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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 4, 1894.

The Week.

THE steady decline of the cash balance in the Treasury will force Congress to pass some kind of a bill immediately on reassembling. The balance is now less than $90,000,000, and this includes the greenback redemption fund, which has long been below the statutory requirement. There is now no export movement of gold, and no apprehension that the country will be forced to the silver basis. Hence the Treasury balance may fall considerably below the present figure without producing distrust. Yet it is not wise to incur the risk of fresh trouble. Nor is it wise to postpone Government obligations which must be paid. The secretary, in his annual report, recommended an alternative for replenishing the Treasury for the time being—namely, the issue of obligations not exceeding $50,000,000 in the aggregate, bearing interest not exceeding 3 per cent., to be paid to such creditors as will accept them, the remainder to be sold at not less than par (these obligations to be payable at the pleasure of the Government one year after date); or, investing the secretary with authority to issue five-year bonds in the ordinary form, and in denominations of $25 and upwards, bearing not more than 3 per cent. interest—the latter to be a continuing authority to protect the Government's gold reserve. These bonds would take the place of those authorized by the old laws for maintaining the greenback redemption fund, but would be available also for meeting casual deficits of revenue. In fact, under present conditions whatever accomplishes one of these ends accomplishes the other also. All the money in the United States being the equivalent of gold, any money which comes into the Treasury answers the purpose of making good the greenback redemption fund and of meeting the public expenses.

We think that both the plans suggested by the secretary ought to be adopted. That is to say, the secretary ought to have discretionary authority at all times to issue exchequer bills to meet temporary deficiencies in the revenue, and this authority ought not to be limited to $50,000,000. It ought to be equal to at least one-half of the appropriations of the Government for any fiscal year. There is no danger whatever that such authority would be abused. No administration likes to have its interest-bearing obligations increased, because such increase puts a club in the hands of the opposite party, and unless it can be shown that the increase was necessary and unavoidable, the consequences are sure to be disastrous in the ensuing elections. But there is something still more disastrous, and that is inability to meet current expenses. The Government's debts are no greater by reason of the issue of exchequer bills. They have merely taken a different form. Instead of owing contractors, pensioners, clerks, and manufacturers, who have groups dependent on themselves, and who cannot afford to wait for their money, it owes people who desire that form of investment. So everybody is satisfied. This is not saying that a Government obligation should be created because some people would like to find a safe investment for their idle money. That would be a form of socialism quite as reprehensible as any other. The rules which should govern in this case are the same as those which apply to a private corporation.

Mr. David A. Wells has in the January *Forum* an article on "The Teaching of Our Recent Economic Experiences," which supplies answers to a great many queries as to why the repeal of the silver-purchase law has not been followed at once by better times. He estimates the total loss, expressed in terms of money, which this country sustained because of its trifling with its standard of value, at one thousand millions of dollars, or more than one-third of the amount of the national debt at the close of the war, and says of it that the burden of these losses "fell most grievously and disproportionately upon that portion of the population of the United States which was least able to bear it, namely, those who depend upon each day's earnings to meet each day's needs." He goes on to show that the causes of these disastrous experiences were mainly artificial, and wholly unnecessary, being due to ignorance as to the origin, nature, and function of money and as to all other economic subjects—an ignorance which prevailed "not only among the masses, but among many who are filling important stations as legislators, editors, and educational directors and teachers."

No one will object to the Senate committee summoning before it as many men as it pleases, to tell what they saw, or failed to see, in Honolulu last January; but no grown man will expect to see the case against Stevens made any the less black thereby. That case does not rest upon what any man or men saw or said, but upon the documentary evidence furnished by Stevens himself and by President Dole, and upon the calendar and the watch. There that evidence stands, and no lawyer or full-witted civilian who studies it can doubt its conclusiveness, or admit the possibility of its being overthrown by any verbal testimony or explanations whatever. All the protests of patriotic motives and benevolent intentions that can be made do not touch the evidence. We commend to Stevens and his pious allies in overthrowing the Hawaiian Government the cold legal view of Mr. Justice Maule, who asked a man on trial for stealing a watch if he had any witnesses to call. "No one but my Maker, who knows that I am innocent," was the reply. The justice settled back for a moment, and then said: "Gentlemen of the jury, the prisoner has summoned one witness, who does not appear; on the other hand, you have heard the evidence of two witnesses who saw him steal the watch."

The House of Representatives passed on December 14 a bill of much general interest, which has attracted very little attention in the newspapers. It was reported by the joint commission of Congress to inquire into the status of laws organizing the executive departments, and it went through without any opposition. Its popular feature makes a reduction in the price of post-office money-orders, to place them on a par in this respect with the money-orders issued by the express companies, and it abolishes the postal note. The argument presented in favor of the latter change was that the postal-note furnishes no security to the sender, for if one is lost no duplicate can be obtained. Under the new law a change of fees is enacted, which permits the issue of money orders for sums not exceeding $2.50 for three cents. As money-orders are subject to endorsement, if one is received at an office that is not authorized to issue or cash them, it can be endorsed to some one who will cash it. On larger orders the rates of issue are materially reduced. The measure went through the House so rapidly that its natural opponents did not have time to get their forces in line, but it is intimated that the express companies will be on hand when the bill comes up in the Senate. These companies were in active opposition to the change in the postal laws years ago that instituted the parcels post, but the measure was so popular that Congress dared not defeat it. The same will probably be the case with this bill. Further than this, it is understood that the express companies find their money-order business so profitable that they may not care to make it a subject of public debate in Congress, as already some banking institutions are said to be thinking seriously of entering into competition for it.

Abundant evidence is furnished in a large number of letters from bankers in all parts of the South, published by the *Manufacturers' Record*, that the farmers of that section are now in a better condition than ever before. The low price of cotton for the last few years has had the good effect of forcing them to raise their own food-stuffs because they could not buy them, and this disposition was strengthened by the decision of bankers and factors not to advance money so readily as before. In this way there is beginning to be a change from the old and improvident credit system, with its reckless buying, to a cash system which requires the closest economy. This change has reduced the volume of general business, but the business which is done rests on a solider foundation than ever before, and the bankers without exception report that the farmers are less in debt now than for years. Money which formerly went North and West for provisions and grain has been retained at home, and there is every reason to believe that the South is less in debt to those sections for supplies than ever before since the end of the war.

Gov. Waite of Colorado seems to be the most hopeless case among the cranks who have been landed in high office by the political upheavals of the last few years. Some weeks ago he intimated that he was going to call an extra session of the Colorado Legislature in order to secure a restoration of the State's former prosperity. The proposition has met with nothing but opposition and protest, for public sentiment is overwhelmingly against it, and earnest appeals have been made to the Governor not to carry out his purpose. But nothing affects so conceited a fool as Waite, and he has issued his proclamation, specifying a large number of absurd plans which he wants the law-makers to carry out. There is no money in the Treasury to pay the expenses of the extra session, and although the members must obey the call of an executive who has the legal right to convene them, he cannot prevent their prompt adjournment.

Colorado—that is, all of the State except the Populist Governor—has so fully recovered from its fit of blues that the commonwealth is in better spirits this winter than ever before. The *Rocky Mountain News*, which only a few months ago prophesied absolute ruin in case the silver-repeal bill were passed, now declares that Denver is the most prosperous city and Colorado the most prosperous State between the Atlantic and the Pacific. Ex-Gov. Grant says that "Colorado is the first State to show signs of business revival," and that it will offer in the future, as in the past, "the most inviting opportunities for labor and capital of any State in the Union." At a recent gathering of business men from all over the State in Denver, the speakers admitted, to quote the words of one of them, that "this terrible importance of our silver is overdrawn," while another boasted, "We have more coal per capita than Pennsylvania, we have greater agricultural resources per capita than the States of the Mississippi valley, we lead all others in the production not only of silver but of gold." There has been a wonderful development of gold-mining during the last few months, and the new gold camp of Cripple Creek is producing marvellous supplies. Altogether it is hard to believe that this is the same State over whose impending destruction Senator Teller was shedding tears in the Senate only a few weeks ago.

The most notable passage in Gov. Flower's message is that in which he puts himself squarely upon record against the present Hill ballot law and in favor of the adoption of a genuine ballot-reform law. He says that repeated experience has shown that changes in the direction of simplicity are desirable, that the "present system leads to confusion, mistakes, and annoyance," and recommends the "adoption of a so-called blanket ballot, with the names upon it so arranged and printed that the elector can easily vote for the candidates of his choice." The Governor also favors a uniform election-inspector law, and recommends the amendment of the present corrupt-practices act in such a way as to include campaign committees and political agents in the requirement of sworn publication after election of all money received and disbursed. All these suggestions are excellent, and we are glad to learn that the Legislature will be given an opportunity to embody all of them in law.

One of the most disgraceful incidents in Tammany rule has been the attempted appointment of a certain Pentecost as assistant district attorney by Mr. Fellows, although this might have been expected from the election of Mr. Fellows himself. Pentecost is a half-cracked preacher and labor agitator, who gave up preaching for the law just one year ago, and joined Tammany Hall. He has been a Baptist minister, a Congregational minister, a Georgite lecturer, and a socialistic editor. He has, in his incendiary labor speeches, declared "there is enough money in this country to give every man $5,000 a year," and that, if he does not get it, he hoped there would be "a revolution, even though there should be a bloody one." In the *Twentieth Century*, which he edited, he came out strongly against capital punishment. That he has any knowledge of the law, or any mental capacity for acquiring it, or any fixed views on any subject, or any fidelity or loyalty to any social organization, there is no reason for supposing. As a public prosecutor he would, of course, have been ridiculous, but he was not selected to prosecute criminals. He was to draw a salary in order to please the radical and revolutionary labor element. There are encouraging features in so notoriously unfit an appointment. It is almost a maxim, in a case of outrageously bad government, such as this city rests under from Tammany, that it must reach its worst point before public opinion will so assert itself as to make reform possible. On merely debatable questions of government the masses will not stop to reason and to think. But the nomination of a Maynard, the election proceedings of a McKane, and the elevation of a Pentecost to the prosecuting office need scarcely any argument to prove their character, and they thus arouse public opinion to a realization of the course down which their affairs are drifting. In the face of this opinion Pentecost has declined the appointment.

The striking Danbury hatters have sent us a little pamphlet entitled, "Slavery Revived in the United States"—that is, by the employing Danbury hatters. We were a good deal startled by this, knowing that slavery was prohibited by the Thirteenth Amendment of the United States Constitution, and knowing also, that, under the Connecticut Constitution, no man could be deprived of his liberty except by a judicial sentence. We asked ourselves, in amazement, whether the Danbury employing hatters could be so crazy as to suppose that they could impose forced labor and the punishment of stripes on a body so respectable and numerous as the working hatters, particularly as the condition of slavery was, according to the pamphlet, to descend to their children. We, therefore, turned to the "exhibits" in the pamphlet with rising indignation, and found that the "slavery" lay in four forms of agreement which the "masters" asked the slaves to sign. In No. 1 the slave applies for work, and affirms that he does not belong to any association which will prevent his carrying out any agreement into which he has freely entered, and that in case of disagreement with the master about prices, the matter shall be referred to a committee of masters chosen by the slaves. In No. 2 the masters agree to pay wages punctually to the slaves, and have due regard for their "rights and convenience," and for their "health and comfort," to renew and readjust the wages paid twice a year, and oftener if requested, and to let any slave who wishes to run away to another master have an honorable discharge if he has been six months in possession of his last owner. The slave, on the other hand, agrees to work faithfully, to obey plantation rules, to make all

complaints first to the overseer and then to the master, to join no association which will prevent his fulfilling lawful contracts, and to pay two weeks' wages as liquidated damages in case of violation of the contract. The other agreements relate to giving instruction in the business to young slaves, and to the necessity of giving two weeks' notice of intention to run away. All we can say about this is, that what strikes us in the agreements is their extraordinary justice, fairness, and considerateness. The tribunal for deciding disputes ought to contain some slaves, but with this exception the terms are, we think, the best ever offered by masters to a servile race. As any slave is at liberty under the contract to run away on giving two weeks' notice, the system is infinitely milder than any other form of slavery ancient or modern. Even the Apostle Paul did not countenance the flight of slaves, for he returned Onesimus to his master.

There are signs that the Presbyterian heresy troubles are going to run parallel to those of the Congregational church of a few years ago, which, it will be remembered, first raged for a time among the churches in this country, and then broke out on the missionary field. A Presbyterian missionary in Siam, the Rev. E. B. McGilvary, has lately resigned on the ground that he cannot accept the doctrines of the inerrancy of Scripture or the Mosaic authorship of the Pentateuch. The General Assembly declared at Portland that any Presbyterian minister who did not accept those doctrines ought at once to leave the denomination. A few liberal ministers in this country took up the challenge and resigned, but many more fell back on the doubt whether the Assembly had a constitutional right to make any such demand, and refused to resign. Mr. McGilvary casts in his lot with those who resign. He seems to have been peculiarly well fitted for his work, having been born in Siam of a missionary father, and having pronounced scholarly tastes. He was educated at Princeton, and his defection must raise horrid doubts about the soundness of the teaching in that institution. The Board of Missions were reluctant to accept his resignation, and speak in the highest terms of his character and abilities. But, of course, it would never do to let a man keep on trying to induce people to stop sacrificing to white elephants who had any toleration for Deutero-Isaiah or the Jehovist.

The *Tribune* published on Sunday a striking letter from "a prominent American" resident in Rio de Janeiro, in which the present troubles in Brazil were intelligently discussed, and, in particular, the only concern of the United States in the squabble tersely set forth. He protests against "the pyrotechnic patriotism in which American editors are continually indulging" whenever there is a rumor that the monarchy is to be restored in Brazil, or anything done there agreeable to anybody in Europe. He denies, in the name both of Americans resident in South America and of South Americans themselves, that the United States can do any good in setting up as "the policeman of the continent," or "the stepfather of every petty republic this side of the Atlantic." With much force he points out that such an interfering protectorate has never been desired by any of the countries in question, but that, on the contrary, they have always resented it both in theory and in attempted application. When Blaine was performing his antics with Chili in 1881, and Harrison his in 1892, the result was to arouse feelings of strong hostility to the United States throughout all South America, and there was much talk of the need of a Latin-American union to resist the overbearing assumptions of the United States. Nothing else could be expected to follow any meddling of ours in Brazilian affairs at present, and our sole duty, as well as interest, is to keep scrupulously out of that quarrel altogether.

Despatches from Brazil represent stock-jobbers and other speculators as very anxious that the United States should "enforce the Monroe doctrine," and say that the news of the departure of the *New York* for Rio is received with "great satisfaction," presumably on the ground that the aforesaid doctrine will be enforced by the big ship. This throws needed light on the modern conception of the Monroe doctrine. What it means historically, and how it fits into the general body of international law, it would be vain to inquire of those who drag it out as a sort of fetish on occasion of disturbances like those with which Brazil is now torn; and it is only by some such specific application of it as the one quoted that we see what the doctrine means, and why it is appealed to, nowadays. Evidently, according to this, the first end and aim of the doctrine is to prevent Americans engaged in speculation in South American countries from losing money. When their ventures go wrong and they see their nitrate beds and rubber concessions slipping away from them, the first thing to do is to summon the ghost of James Monroe to help them out. Then, if they find submission to local laws somewhat irksome, and would like to have some way of setting the writs of local courts at defiance, there is nothing like the Monroe doctrine, properly interpreted. We are glad to see that the Washington authorities are showing no disposition whatever to encourage this view of the duty of the United States, under the Monroe or any other theory of international bullying, and have instructed the admiral in charge of our ships at Rio to maintain the strictest neutrality.

The acquittal on Saturday of all the Frenchmen on trial for the murder of the Italians at Aigues-Mortes last August is as deplorable a miscarriage of justice as was the failure of the New Orleans grand jury even to indict for the massacre of Italians in that city in 1891. Premier Crispi is said to have exclaimed, when he heard of it, "Juries are alike in all countries!" What he meant appears to be that it is idle to expect a jury to convict one or more of their own countrymen for murdering foreigners, when the murder has grown out of race hatred. As soon expect to have men convicted of murder who kill foreigners in open warfare. It must be said, however, that the French machinery of justice did not break down so disgracefully as ours in New Orleans. The French assassins were at least brought to trial, though they were not convicted. But the New Orleans grand jury would not even indict. They handed in a long report on the wickedness of the Italians who were slaughtered in cold blood, but declared that they were not "justified" in presenting indictments, inasmuch as the massacre was the work of "the first, best, and even the most law-abiding citizens of this city."

The analogy between the two cases extends also to the payment of indemnity, or blood-money, as it might be called. President Harrison's administration disclaimed all legal or international responsibility for the assassination of the Italians in New Orleans, but begged the Italian Government to accept 125,000 francs for distribution "among the families of the victims," and as a means of "effacing all memory of the unhappy tragedy." The French Government had already, before learning of the verdict on the Aigues-Mortes assassins, intimated its readiness to pay an indemnity to the Italian Government, and something like 400,000 francs had been agreed upon. But the payment was to be on the basis of reciprocity; the Italian Government, in its turn, being expected to indemnify Frenchmen whose property had been destroyed by mobs in Genoa and Rome. It is now reported, however, that the Italians are so enraged by the acquittal of the Aigues-Mortes criminals that they will refuse to pay any indemnity. In that case they will simply lose the poor satisfaction of getting blood-money for their murdered fellow-countrymen. The jingle of the guinea, in fact, appears to be the only cure left for the hurts of international honor.

BALLOT LAWS AND ELECTION FRAUDS.

IT is a striking commentary on the evil influence of David Bennett Hill upon the political history of this State that the new Legislature will be asked to enact a genuine ballot-reform law. The agitation for ballot reform in this country was started in this city five years ago, and the first comprehensive measure (for more than municipal application) embodying the fundamental principles of the Australian system which was drawn in the United States was presented to the New York Legislature in the winter of 1888. It passed the Legislature and was vetoed by Gov. Hill. It was again presented in 1889, again passed, and again vetoed by Gov. Hill. In the meantime the agitation had reached Massachusetts, and in 1889 a law which was modelled closely upon the measure originally drawn in New York, was put upon the statute-books of that State, and Massachusetts thus obtained the honor of being the first American State to adopt the reform. Other States followed rapidly in her wake, and five years after the movement had been started no less than thirty-six States had enacted laws embodying the new system in various forms. The larger number of these followed the Massachusetts plan, which provides a single or blanket ballot, with the names of all candidates printed upon it, arranged in groups in alphabetical order under each office. Other States adopted a blanket ballot with the names of candidates arranged in party columns, with the party name at the top, and still others added to the names an emblem or symbol. Three States, New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut, all acting under the influence of Gov. Hill, adopted a compromise or makeshift system, which provides separate party ballots, and which has never had the approval of ballot-reformers. We show in the subjoined table the distribution of these laws among the States:

Whole number of laws		36
With blanket ballots		33
Blanket ballots, alphabetical order		19
These are:		
Alabama,	Nebraska,	South Dakota,
Arkansas,	Nevada,	Tennessee,
California,	New Hampshire,	Vermont,
Massachusetts,	North Dakota,	Washington,
Minnesota,	Oregon,	Wisconsin,
Mississippi,	Rhode Island,	Wyoming.
Montana,		
Blanket ballots with party group and name		7
These are:		
Illinois,	Maine,	Pennsylvania,
Iowa,	Missouri,	West Virginia.
Kansas,		
Blanket ballots with party group, name, and emblem		7
These are:		
Colorado,	Kentucky,	Michigan,
Delaware,	Maryland,	Ohio.
Indiana,		
With separate ballots		3
These are:		
Connecticut,	New Jersey,	New York.

With "paster" ballot, New York alone.

The poorest, most inconvenient, and most easily "worked" for fraudulent purposes is the New York law, which Gov. Hill invented and allowed to go upon the statute-books in 1890. The Connecticut and New Jersey laws have many of the evil features of Mr. Hill's contrivance, but they do not have the worst of them, which is the "paster." To get rid of this and of the other bad features of the law is at present the object of the City Club's special committee, which, in consultation with representatives of various political and other organizations, is now preparing a new ballot act embodying the essential principles of the Massachusetts law. Thus, five years after the beginning of the agitation which has been taken up and carried to success in three-quarters of the Union, New York is still engaged in trying to get for itself a genuiue ballot-reform law. There is, we are glad to say, excellent assurance that success will crown this winter's efforts.

The need of a better law than Gov. Hill was willing we should have was very clearly shown in the last election. The Tammany workers, not satisfied with the cheating facilities which the use of the "paster" affords them, have been studying, ever since the law was passed, to discover methods by which to "beat" it. They tried a number of these methods at the recent election, and with such boldness that nearly one hundred of these gentry are now under indictment for violation of the law. What their fate will be, with Col. Fellows as their official prosecutor, remains to be seen. The methods which they operated were more audacious than ingenious. They made the provision which allows a physically disabled voter to take a friend into the booth with him to prepare his ballot, an excuse for accompanying into the booth voters whom they had bribed, having them first swear that they were either blind or prevented by palsy or lameness from preparing their ballots. Several of the blind men who had been aided in this way, incautiously picked up matches and pins from the floor after coming out of the compartments. In several instances Tammany workers, in defiance of law, placed themselves behind the booths or compartments, cut holes in the backs of them, and thus communicated with the voters on the inside, preparing their ballots for them. One Republican inspector whose attention was called to these proceedings, declared that he was not able to see them, and it was discovered subsequently that he had a glass eye, and was studiously keeping that fixed upon the Tammany operators. In other districts no pretence was made of following the regulations, and tramps and repeaters voted freely without regard to the registry list or anything else. So far was this carried that in a district in which there are not more than 7,000 voters, no less than 13,000 votes were cast.

When it came to counting, the two Tammany inspectors, assisted in many districts by the Republican inspectors, showed such zeal that in several localities in "Paddy" Divver's bailiwick not a single Republican vote was counted. In one district there were seventy-five or more ballots upon which the name of an independent candidate for the Assembly had been pasted. The inspectors were preparing to reject all these because the pasters were not placed exactly over the name of the regular candidate. When a watcher called attention to the fact that the law expressly provided that such exactness was not necessary, the Tammany chairman said, pointing to his two associate inspectors in turn: "You vote to reject, you vote to reject, and I vote to reject—we don't count 'em—see?"

These, and in fact nearly all the worst frauds of the late election, were in direct and open defiance of the law, though the use of the "paster" and the somewhat lax condition of the law generally may have contributed somewhat to make the violations more difficult to detect and punish. It is going to be difficult, however, to draft a law which will prevent an enterprising Tammany man from getting behind a booth and boring a hole in it, unless the booths be constructed of sheet-iron, and unless it be distinctly specified that inspectors with one glass eye or policemen with two, or with no eyes at all, shall not be eligible for duty on election day. The best law that human intelligence can devise will be powerless to prevent fraud if its administration is in the hands of a lot of thieves and other rascals—which was the case in many quarters of this city in November last. A step towards preventing this will be taken when the old law giving the Republicans two inspectors to every Tammany two shall have been restored. With a blanket ballot, with all "pasters" forbidden, and with an equal political division of inspectors, we shall certainly be much better off than we are at present; and these, as we understand it, are to be the leading provisions of the law which is now in preparation.

THE NAVAL ALARM IN ENGLAND.

THE alarm in England over the condition of the navy is adding seriously to the troubles of the Gladstone ministry. The revenue is declining, but an expenditure of about $50,000,000 on the navy is imperatively called for, in order to maintain its superiority to the combined forces of France and Russia. The panic is an old one. Every generation has to pass through it. It occurred under Louis Philippe, when the Prince de Joinville wrote a pamphlet showing how England might be ousted from her supremacy at sea. It occurred under Louis Napoleon when he began to build ironclads, and it has come up now again, under the republic.

The controversy is very much obscured by the lack of exact information about

the navies of both France and Russia, the Tories probably exaggerating their size and strength, and the Liberals in like manner underestimating them. There is much the same trouble about the British navy. Opinions widely vary about its strength and efficiency, but the numerous accidents which have of late overtaken it, and the poor behavior of some of the large iron-clads in bad weather, necessarily have diffused a great deal of anxiety through the community. But if the navy were ever so efficient, it is difficult to see how British commerce is to be protected in the narrow seas, where torpedo boats can dash out from a hundred ports and creeks in the dark nights and play havoc with it. This commerce is to-day enormous. It is hardly too much to say that Great Britain is in possession of the carrying-trade of the world. The ocean freight business of all other countries put together is comparatively trifling, and this is another illustration of the way in which Great Britain profits by other people's folly. She has no navigation laws, and nearly every other country has, so she takes the business away from them.

Of course, as the discussion has progressed, each side has caught at every foreign authority that came in sight. Our Capt. Mahan's 'Influence of the Sea Power' has in particular done yeoman service on the Conservative side. It is in all respects a remarkable book, and shows, in flowing and eloquent English, how from the earliest days supremacy on the sea has carried with it supremacy on land. But a good deal of its reasoning on this head has been weakened or vitiated by the invention of railways, which has considerably diminished the importance of water transportation. If Napoleon had to fight Wellington again in Spain, the possession of the sea would do vastly less for the latter. But there is no question whatever that, for the British Empire, the control of the sea is a question of life and death.

Along with Capt. Mahan, whose authority none will dispute, Lord George Hamilton, a civil lord of the admiralty in the late Government, cited our ex-Secretary Tracy as an authority concerning the number of ships Great Britain ought to have in order to hold her own against the navies of the world. We are quite sure Mr. Tracy never uttered any such opinion with the expectation that it would be quoted in Parliament as the opinion of an expert. Even a lifetime in the navy of a great power evidently is hardly a sufficient qualification for forming a judgment on this subject, for the British naval authorities differ about it considerably; and Secretary Tracy can hardly have thought that four years in the Navy Department at Washington, taken from the practice of the law, in middle life, fitted him to "give them points" on the most serious naval problem with which Englishmen have had to deal. If this were true, the training of men for the sea from youth up would be a great farce, and we should, when war broke out, readily gather up a lot of admirals from the dry-goods stores and law offices, and, above all, from the newspaper offices, of any great city.

This citation of Mr. Tracy was evidently made in great ignorance of the way in which our navy is governed. Ours is the only navy in the world, we believe, which has no naval head. All the Continental navies are governed by admirals—that is, the minister of marine, the officer answering to our secretary of the navy, is invariably an admiral. The government of the British navy is peculiar, its commanders being the lords commissioners of the admiralty. Of these there are six, but only two are civilians, the other four admirals. Then, too, it has to be borne in mind that, owing to the permanence in public life of English statesmen, the civil lords are generally men who have given a good deal of attention to the navy during long years in Parliament. This condition has been in a measure fulfilled in the case of our Mr. Herbert, for he was, before his accession to his present position, chairman of the naval committee. But as a rule our secretaries of the navy are lawyers who, before being called to preside over our military marine, hardly knew the bow from the stern of a ship; nor, as a rule, has there been the slightest pretence that they were selected with any reference to their marine experience.

As long as we made no pretence of having a navy this was perhaps a matter of small importance, but now that we are preparing to become a naval power it has a good deal of importance. We undoubtedly owe to it most of the recent mistakes in matters of discipline. It is an old and sound rule of all the military services of the world that "no man is fit to command who has not learned to obey"—that is, that every man must learn to manage subordinates in the army or navy by having himself served under orders. Accordingly, in all armies and all navies each man has to begin at the beginning, and take a long course in obedience, before he is allowed command of the lives or reputations of the soldiers or sailors. In this way, and in this way only, can he find out how much and what kind of service he can fairly exact from those who serve under him. Herein lies the value of sailors in the places of ministers of marine or lords of the admiralty. Herein, too, lies the folly of suddenly seizing a lawyer and putting him in command of the fleet. He has not the least idea how to treat officers and men; and the way in which Commanders Whitehead, Reiter, Higginson, and Admiral Stanton have been keelhauled shows the need of some reorganization of the Navy Department if we are to keep on increasing our navy.

THE EVOLUTION OF A DYNAMITER.

THE police inquiries into the antecedents of Auguste Vaillant, the aspiring youth who set about ushering in the Golden Age by trying to blow up the French Chamber, are full of instruction and warning, as they show very neatly the process by which bomb-throwers are grown. Vaillant had taken a full course in socialism, and was, in fact, as he himself declares, only acting as a consistent graduate in that discipline should when he flung his bomb. After a life of considerable irregularity, in which we see him deserting his wife and taking another man's as his mistress, he was first heard of as a public character in the guise of a founder of a "Cercle Philosophique," at Choisy. The kind of philosophy advocated in this circle may be inferred from the fact that it was soon merged in the "Revolutionary Socialistic Union" of the eighteenth arrondissement, Paris, in which well-known revolutionaries like M. Guesde gave "courses" in "social economy" and "special philosophy."

In other ways did Vaillant ally himself with the socialistic propaganda. He had for a time a connection with the *Cri du Peuple*. He was also a dabbler in local politics. For some time he was at the head of a "movement" to present a bust of Marat to the city, which was somehow expected to give a great lift to the socialist party. But finally the bust was seized by Vaillant's landlord for unpaid rent, and so that movement came to grief. He kept up his political activity, however, and several socialistic proclamations put forth by him as secretary of his "group" have been unearthed. One of them, dated 1886, called upon his fellow-citizens to join their ballots in electing a certain candidate, "while waiting for the time to come to join our rifles to fight against a reactionary society." Another one, put forth in 1887, defined the purpose of his "union" to "pursue, no matter by what means, the socialization of the means of production." This is only the common socialistic jargon, still used and defended even by the French socialists who now condemn Vaillant unsparingly.

Vaillant is to be traced for some time in various socialistic organizations—the "Parisian Agglomeration," the "Federation of Free Thought," the "Equals of Montmartre," and a dozen others. A part of his zeal in attending their meetings may have been due to the fact that he used to work off a good deal of rice and coffee at a commission on his fellow-socialists; but this resource soon failed him, and he then spent some time in South America. Returning to Paris about a year ago, he tried hard to get a nomination as deputy last August.

Had he been successful, he might have been comfortably sitting with the other socialistic deputies in the Chamber on December 9, and left it to some other advanced reformer to throw the bomb from the gallery.

Such a career is worth detailing, because it so characteristically reveals the evolution of an anarchist out of a socialist, and of a dynamiter out of an anarchist. In his own weak and vain head, Vaillant illustrates the precise and necessary operation of the socialistic philosophy upon thousands of other weak and vain heads. Is it anything strange that they should take to throwing bombs in order to hasten the destruction of a social order which, they are assured by their teachers, is one vast system of legalized robbery? A writer in the *Débats* says most truthfully on this point:

"One can easily, link by link, reconstruct the chain which joins the anarchist who throws a bomb in the Palais-Bourbon with the writer whose anti-social theories and incitements and provocations are spread abroad every day in the socialistic newspapers, or with the orator who makes their gatherings reëcho. They are sowing in brutal natures the seeds of every kind of violence and fury, and are giving weak minds the most dangerous sophisms to feed upon. They are planting germs of hatred, they are corrupting the reason and destroying the conscience; and yet, when they have been listened to attentively, when the destructive practices which they have incited have done their work, they disavow their own doing and protest that their hands are clean."

The truth of this is witnessed to in the very condemnations visited upon Vaillant's head by his former socialistic colleagues. They call him "rash" and "premature," and say that the "really responsible criminal" is "the villany of existing society." If this is so, what folly for them to denounce a man for adopting means of his own which to his mind seem more rapid and effective than theirs for putting an end to that villany! They both aim at the destruction of the present social order. Not one stone of it is to be left upon another. Why, then, quarrel about a mere detail of the destructive process? At any rate, as long as their socialistic doctrines are all the while turning out such graduates as Vaillant, it is not possible to disclaim all responsibility for him. He himself asserts that he is the most consistent of socialists, and, as a mere matter of logic, it would be hard to show that he is not. It is easy to say that he is a crack-brained creature who has no grasp of the true socialistic principle; but the world is full of just such fellows as he is, and our benevolent professors and writers who preach up the "nationalization of the means of production" may be sure that they have plenty such in their audiences, ready, like Vaillant, to put their doctrines to the practical test with dynamite.

THE POPULARIZATION OF EVIL.

M. Édouard Rod has been remarking on the predominance in current French caricature of repellent types. He shows how the progress of the art has been away from the clumsy fun of André Gill, all the rage fifteen years ago, through the more delicately conceived raillery of Grévin and Robida, down to the pitiless sarcasm and delight in human brutality which mark the style of Forain, who to-day sets the fashion. "And you must observe," says M. Rod, "that Forain's success is not an isolated fact; it harmonizes with tendencies to which the Théâtre-Libre has given striking emphasis, and which are also conspicuous in some of the recent reviews. It is always the same thing: an over-acute observation which searches after evil, which finds it and rejoices to find it, and displays it with ironic satisfaction. People wallow in all sorts of baseness and laugh at it; they appear to be well pleased to wallow in it and to laugh at it, and they seem to say, 'What a fine thing it is that men are horrible, and what should we have to amuse ourselves with if they were not!'"

Putting artistic questions aside, M. Rod asks what must be the effect of all this on the public. What about the plain people who have no resemblance to the moral monsters pictured for their entertainment, who live quiet lives and enjoy simple pleasures? Do they laugh at these cruel caricatures, and go to plays which turn on abnormal vices simply to be in style? He almost hopes that they do, but he has to admit it to be more likely that "these terrible engravings, with their terrible explanations, awaken in them, almost before they know it, dormant instincts long held in check by civilization, but to which it suddenly becomes proper to give full rein — a legacy of ancient savagery, a survival of primitive ferocity." If that is the case, says M. Rod, we can see whither we are marching, and we must learn betimes to hate the human beast most of all when it is talented.

We may still congratulate ourselves that the talented human beast has made but meagre conquests in this country. Perhaps we ought to hang our heads in shame as benighted Philistines in confessing it, but anyhow it seems to be a fact that the predominant literary and dramatic and artistic taste of Americans does not yet take kindly to those subjects which, as Harapha of Gath said of Samson, "need much washing to be touched." But how if we have a human beast without talent? If it is still true that our writers and artists find their best inspiration and reward in themes that are wholesome, have we no other agencies for the popularization of evil, comparable to those of which M. Rod deplores the bad effects in France?

It is trite enough to say that the sensational press is such an agency, but it is fair to ask if there is not a clear analogy between its harmful influence and that of the worst forms of French naturalism. Leaving entirely out of account for the present the responsibilities of newspaper proprietors and newspaper purchasers, let the simple question be put, What is bound to be the effect on its readers of the constant exploitation of crime and vice and scandal which plays so great a part in the daily press? The question may be thus isolated and asked merely as a psychological and sociological one. Say nothing about the taste and pleasure of the reader or the ethics and profits of the editor, and inquire only what effect the daily presentation of the human beast, without any glamour of literary art about him, is going to have upon the people in whose faces he is thrust every day.

To begin with the lowest class of readers, it has long been well understood by criminologists and alienists that the epidemic character which crime often seems to have in modern times is largely due to the broadcasting of all crime by the press. Let a peculiarly brutal or novel method of murder or suicide be invented in some part of the country, and it is sure to be duplicated as soon as the newspaper suggestion of it can be brought to bear on the unstable brains only waiting for some such push. Something of the same sort is clearly traceable in the plague of dynamite explosions now sweeping over Europe. The bomb in the theatre at Barcelona seems to suggest the bomb in the Chamber at Paris, and that a dozen others, until now the French police are every day arresting half-lunatic criminals perfectly crazy to throw a bomb at somebody. So, too, the passion for sending infernal-machines to prominent men seems often to go in waves of infection of which the newspapers make themselves the vehicle.

We may be sure that the psychological law which we see here so plainly operative, works also in the obscurer cases. "The fig-tree looking on the fig-tree becometh fruitful," says an Arabian proverb. Daily contemplation of the vices and meannesses and domestic unhappinesses of mankind is a dangerous test for any man to subject himself to. If he is pure-minded and high-minded, he is in danger of losing, by familiarity, that quick sense of disgust and repulsion which is his safeguard at first. If he has any diseased parts in his mental and moral make-up, they are sure to be inflamed. A man brooding over his own wrongs or misfortunes, fancied or real, will be given a perilous tilt towards executing the villany he sees spread before him. Into slow-witted natures hints of baseness and trickery will be dropped which they never could of themselves have originated. Innocence and reticence will become more and more impossible to find, and a banal sophistication on all subjects will become universal. Such results are certain to attend the popularization of evil,

and to mark the progress of the human beast, with or without talent.

THE PARLIAMENTARY YEAR IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, December 19, 1893.

ALTHOUGH the Government majority, after the general election, fell slightly short of what sanguine Liberals had anticipated, seldom did a session open with higher hopes than that which met here on the 31st of January. The Queen's speech foreshadowed the following great measures: home rule, registration reform, shortening duration of Parliament, one man one vote, employers' liability, parish councils, local veto, church suspensory bills preparatory to disestablishment for Scotland and Wales. All these have been abandoned for this session, except home rule, employers' liability, and parish councils. Besides the passage of the estimates, for which Parliament is primarily called, home rule practically occupied the entire session from February till September inclusive. After the bill had been thrown out by the Lords, we met again on the 2d of November. The parish-councils bill came up for second reading and was passed without division on the 7th. The employers'-liability bill came up from the grand committee and was passed on the 16th. It was subsequently, in the opinion of three-fourths of the Liberal party, destroyed, at least in one of its most vital provisions, by the Lords. The committee stage of the parish-councils bill was taken on the 17th of November, since when it has practically occupied Parliament. We are to have only three days' vacation at Christmas. Possibly this bill may not be carried through even in January. Only nineteen of seventy-one clauses have yet been passed. What treatment the Lords will inflict on it remains to be seen.

Such a state of affairs is without precedent. A deliberate and deep-laid plan is being carried out to block business, play into the hands of the Lords, discredit the Government, and precipitate a general election. Nor is the Opposition altogether responsible for the blocking. As Mr. Balfour pointed out the other day, the notice paper, when the bill was entered upon in committee, included no fewer than three hundred amendments by Government supporters. The interest of the Government is clearly not to dissolve until it has done effective work, and, if possible, strengthened its hold on the electorate by the passage of the registration and one-man-one-vote bills. To outsiders it may appear that the Conservatives, in thus opposing and delaying Liberal reform, and the Lords in aiding and abetting them, are undermining their own position. But the English are a peculiar people. So long as they get what they want, they do not care under what name or at whose hands it reaches them. This, perhaps, has helped to make their progress steady. They know that both parties must in the end cater for *them*. The upper classes have staved off as long as possible measures imperilling their position and impugning their interests; but they have at the same time maintained their prestige by conceding when it was inevitable, and they often manage to get the credit of passing such reforms as can no longer be withheld. The Conservatives enjoy the immense advantage of having the dead pull of vested interests always on their side. We will suppose the Conservatives are in power. Certain reforms come to be desired which they are loath to concede. Upon a thousand platforms enough enthusiasm is aroused to overcome these vested interests. The Liberals are returned, the reforms conceded. The interests reassert their power, those recently attacked thirsting for revenge. All the Liberals have now to offer is good government. The Conservatives can bid as high in this regard. The Liberals are turned out until a fresh crop of necessities arises. Ireland, meanwhile, unless when making herself a nuisance, so little affects the daily lives of Englishmen as to be likely to be left out of account; and so party succeeds party. And it is to be noted that when Conservatives see fit to take reforms in hand, they do so with the consent of the interests compromised, which realize that it is better to be disturbed by their friends than their opponents.

As yet there is no sign of real agitation against the Lords on account of their action regarding home rule or employers' liability. The middle classes gravitate more and more towards conservatism; the overwhelming preponderance of Irish Protestant opinion against home rule is being exploited with persistent ability against Mr. Gladstone. The church and liquor interests are up in arms. The Lords are generally found willing to pass any measure, however radical, proposed by a Conservative government. The Liberals have no excuse for delaying reform by whomsoever proposed. If affairs go on as they have of late years, it appears as though only a Conservative government is to be permitted to carry through extensive reforms. It must soon become apparent that there is some cause for the present deadlock beyond the presence of eighty Irish National members in the House (who, except at question time, have scarcely opened their lips for months), or the desire of the Liberal party to pass a home-rule bill. It must be evident that even if there were not an Irish Home-Ruler in Parliament, the present effort to transact the affairs, great and small, of thirty-five millions of people at home and to manage a widely extended empire abroad is breaking down under its own weight. Nay, the absurdity of the attempt would be more apparent if Ireland were not agitating for home rule, for then her four millions and a half of inhabitants would not be content without their yearly requirements of legislation in minor matters being attended to. Comparing political needs in the two islands now with what they were at the time of the Union, the difficulty of legislating intelligently for both in one assembly has been greatly increased. There is an established church in England; there is none in Ireland. Equality of institutions existed in Pitt's time. Since then have developed different land laws, a different educational system, a different police system, different marriage laws. Difference of institutions induces other differences. The tendency has been more and more towards diversity. All this is telling now on the parliamentary machine. But still more embarrassing, perhaps, has been the ever-increasing complication of law, and its application, in a manner formerly unknown, to the every-day concerns of life. There is hardly a line of this parish-councils bill that has not to be considered in relation to other legislation passed in late years. Law formerly, however rude in its construction, however rough-and-ready in application, lay like a simple open network over the land. It is now more and more closely woven, and the introduction of new threads, the passing new laws, is increasingly difficult. There is, in truth, almost as much difference between law in its complexity now and the law of sixty years ago as there is between the twin-screw triple-expansion liners which now enter the harbor of San Francisco and the brig in which Dana spent his two years before the mast. We must, besides, remember that the law is in these countries more nearly carried out, more rigid and unbending in its action, than in most countries.

Possibly, while the Opposition, by their dilatory tactics, may be undermining the cause of home rule in the present, they are unwittingly insuring its triumph in the future. Yet all still depends on the Irish people at home and abroad. Undoubtedly the state of affairs in Ireland now is very grave. The long continuance of this perhaps unavoidable contest certainly has most disastrous effects upon the country. The desire for home rule, some effective control over their own laws and institutions, is deeply rooted in the hearts of most Irishmen. In a determined and devoted band it has led to great personal sacrifices. It is retained in a sleepy sort of way by the multitude. They have no intention of abandoning the claim, but they do not care that it should seriously interfere with their daily lives and private money interests. Probably a Protestant people imbued with like desires would work more unitedly and determinedly. They might, it is true, have been on occasions fatally broken down. They might not, by bending to the storm, have preserved themselves, as the Irish often did, for better times. But under circumstances such as the present, I believe a larger proportion of a Protestant community would feel it individually incumbent on them to assert themselves. Most of those from whom the best governing class might be selected in Ireland have, unless in the north, for the present withdrawn altogether from politics. The boycotting by the upper classes of traders professing national proclivities is so severe that they are afraid to come forward. The consequence is that the cause is too often represented by men little skilled in public affairs. They are upon the whole as clean-handed as those who occupied their places in ascendancy times, but they are less experienced. And we are perhaps somewhat inclined, like the French, to prefer untried men who profess to agree with us and who make large promises, to tried men in whose career mistakes can be detected. The number of evicted and idle tenants throughout the country, the unsettlement caused by agitation, constant emigration of the heartiest and strongest, all tend to enervate the country.

Irish Castle government is such a nicely compacted machine that even men like Mr. Morley and Mr. Bryce in their administrative action have been able to make little impression upon it. The masses of the Irish people see little change. Neither the promises nor the anticipations of the general election have been realized. This tends upon the one hand to cool political ardor, and upon the other to strengthen the hands of the Parnellites, who favor a "hillside" and irreconcilable policy. Nevertheless, the real irreconcilables in Ireland will yet be found to be the Protestant and Conservative party. The Nationalists have within the last twenty-five years advanced much closer than they to a reasonable settlement. They have definitely abandoned the separation theory. Irish Conservatives and their English allies have not yet abandoned the idea of Protestant supremacy in Ireland—a theory as impossible of maintenance as that of separation would be of realization. Mr. Bryce is at present filling Mr. Morley's place as chief secretary. Even he cannot please them. I find the

following in the *Pall Mall Gazette* of yesterday: "If the object of the prime minister in selecting Mr. Bryce as the mouthpiece of the Irish government was to insult and irritate Ulstermen, he has clearly achieved an admirable success." If they are not satisfied with the government of men like Mr. Bryce, with whose government would they be satisfied? It is, in truth, for the English people to consider whether they prefer the friendship of the masses of the Irish people, who can be reconciled, or that of the Irish minority, who could be kept in good humor only upon terms impossible of maintenance in a democratic community.

Two articles regarding Ireland, signed "X," but evidently by different authors, which appeared in the *Fortnightly Review* for last month and this, have attracted considerable attention. The first attributes, to a mistaken extent, much of the economic depression in the country to railway and bank mismanagement. It dwells upon the general drawbacks, such as I have above indicated, and, while largely attributing them to the want of home rule, questions whether it is not now too late for the application of that or indeed any other remedy. The second article is devoted principally to an over-colored diatribe against the "Rhetoricians," the line of Irish patriots from Swift downwards, and against all but a small number of those who now speak in the name of Irish nationalism. It especially emphasizes present differences, not only such as existed before the "Parnell split" between Nationalists and Orangemen, and which have since widened between Nationalist and Independent, but those which from one cause or another exist among Nationalists themselves. It would be easy to explain how all these differences have arisen, as differences arise in every country and almost every party. The length of the contest, the heart-sickening of hope deferred, the sufferings endured, the demoralization of the present idle life in Parliament, are almost enough in themselves to cause bickerings.

In whatever direction we turn our gaze, the outlook is clouded and uncertain. At no period, perhaps, were there a larger number of people at home and abroad more sincerely anxious to serve Ireland, more fully prepared to spend and be spent for her regeneration. Yet everything appears for the time at cross purposes. If Irishmen at home and abroad avail themselves of present discouragements and differences as excuses for slackening in the struggle for home rule, the results will be disastrous. If, seeing beyond these complications, they support a reasonable policy, the present deadlock will prove to be only a phase in a long course of conjunctures all pointing towards one inevitable solution. D. B.

VAILLANT, SOCIALISM AND MILITARISM.

PARIS, December 22, 1893.

WHEN the new French Chamber met, it was difficult to know exactly what its character would be. One thing was certain: the monarchical group, Royalists and Bonapartists together, which numbered as much as 150 in the last Chamber, had been reduced to about fifty. But the republican majority was composed of very heterogeneous elements: it embraced the Opportunists, the more or less conservative Republicans, the more or less advanced Radicals, and with them a large number of socialists. In the first discussions which took place in the Chamber, there was a split in this republican majority. M. Dupuy resigned almost immediately after the meeting of the Chamber, and was replaced by M. Casimir-Perier, the grandson of the Perier who was a minister of Louis Philippe. M. Casimir-Perier asked for a vote of confidence, and obtained it only by the help of the Right; he became the protégé of the monarchists. He saw 200 republicans on his side, and 200 republicans (I speak in round numbers) against him.

The reason of this division was obvious: M. Dupuy, and after him M. Casimir-Perier, had declared themselves in favor of a homogeneous cabinet and against the policy which has taken the name of concentration, by which word was meant the coalition of all the republican groups, whatever their ideas and doctrines might be on the most important subjects, and the representation of all these groups in the cabinet. The policy of concentration had great defects: it rendered all serious legislative work next to impossible; but it had also great merits in the eyes of our politicians. Thirty or forty deputies had nothing to do but to form a "group," which consisted merely in naming a president and a board, in meeting and dining together, in having a paper, generally without subscribers but kept up by the aid of the class of financiers who became so conspicuous in the Panama trial. "Je marche, donc je suis," said the group, and the group helped to make and unmake cabinets, and its leader, unknown yesterday, had a good chance of obtaining a seat in case of a readjustment or a reorganization of an administration.

"Concentration" was invented by M. Thiers after the 16th of May, when he made up his electoral lists from the 363 deputies, without an exception, who were hostile to Marshal MacMahon. It continued so long as there was any danger of a restoration; it survived Gambetta, Ferry; it served against Boulanger; but when the republican form of government and the Constitution had ceased to be in question, it became very obnoxious to the country. There were no real parties in the Chamber founded on principles; the groups formed and reformed perpetually; all questions became personal questions. A sort of crusade began against this policy after the last elections. Casimir-Perier was notoriously among those who favored a new policy. His début was not fortunate; all ambitions were visibly ready to conspire against a man who would give no hope to any group, and who spoke of forming a homogeneous administration. His cabinet seemed lost as soon as it was formed; it was saved by the most unforeseen event. The bomb thrown by Vaillant in the Chamber had the effect which no reasoning, no eloquence could have had. The Chamber had hitherto been trying to understand itself; now it found itself, it became conscious. A majority, an overwhelming majority, has been found in favor of the new Administration; the groups have disappeared, at least for the present; the Chamber has obeyed the elementary law of self-preservation, "Primum vivere, deinde politicari."

The Government has asked the Chamber to furnish it with certain indispensable arms against the anarchists, and has introduced four bills, which have been voted with extraordinary haste, after hardly any discussion. All associations formed for the committal of crimes against life and property are to be unlawful; all understanding with the members of such associations will be equally punishable by law, as well as all public apology by means of newspapers or of public meetings. A large supplementary credit for the increase of the police has been placed at the disposal of the Government. Public opinion has fully endorsed all these measures; it feels that a real war has begun against all social institutions. All the reasonings in the world, all the teachings of political economy, are of no avail with people who have invented the new system of propagandism—what they call propagandism *par le fait*, by facts; that is to say, by crimes.

Socialism is no longer what it was in the days of 1848; it has completely transformed itself. Ideas are like the rays of light which take the color of the transparent medium; socialistic ideas, which in the higher classes assume sometimes a religious, sometimes a philosophical, character, become deformed when they penetrate the lowest classes of the population. We have seen in our time, especially in the past twenty years, an extraordinary development of socialism. We have in France what is called Christian socialism, preached by men like M. de Mun; we have the Tolstoian school, which began with admiration of 'War and Peace' and the other beautiful novels of the great Russian writer, and which ended in the sort of primitive Christianity which is now preached by Tolstoi, and which is the negation of personal property and of personal rights. We have read a Papal encyclical under the title of "De conditione opificum." Emperors and kings have spoken of the duties of society toward the workingman. Our politicians have made promises of all sorts to the wage-earning classes; irreligion has worked side by side with religion: those who denied to the poor a future life promised him the kingdoms of the earth.

Under all these influences, is it much to be wondered at if the workingman has conceived hopes which cannot well be satisfied? Disappointment has thrown a bridge between socialism and anarchism. In the famous monologue of Cinna, Augustus speaks of these men:

> "chargés de dettes et de crimes,
> Que pressent de mes lois les ordres légitimes,
> Et qui, désespérant de les plus éviter,
> Si tout n'est renversé, ne sauraient subsister."

Maxime Du Camp has well described this class of men, which is always found in great capitals. They were the men who made the Commune after the war of 1870; they now have taken anarchy for their cry, and they place themselves at the head of the advanced socialists.

The danger of socialism has probably been increased by the militarism which is the order of the day in Europe. In countries where military service has become an obligation, and where every man is called to his regiment first for two or three years, and afterwards from time to time for various periods till he is forty-five years of age, it is not surprising that the individual expects much from the State; the State claims from him services which it must repay. The "droit de travail" which was preached by Louis Blanc at the Luxembourg in 1848, seemed a paradox at the time; it seems now almost an axiom to the workingman. Militarism has another effect: it depletes all European nations, and in this way creates increasing poverty, and poverty is the perpetual theme of all socialists. Italy might have lived happy and contented if she had kept out of the combinations (what the Germans call the constellations) of the great powers. She entered the Triple Alliance, and condemned herself to expenses which are too large for her financial capacity; she begins now to pay the price of her ambition, and is passing through a most dangerous crisis. The great men who achieved Italian unity are gone; her parliamentary personnel is very mediocre. Crispi has again been called to power, as he is considered the

only strong man of the Parliament; he is very clever and very versatile, but one hardly sees how he can detach Italy from the bonds of the Triple Alliance; he can only ask the Italian people to pay new taxes, and taxation has already become almost intolerable in Italy.

The finances of France are not in danger, but they preoccupy all who think of the future. Certainly the resources of France are immense, but they are not inexhaustible. France has one great advantage: her debt is held almost entirely at home; she is not under the necessity of buying gold in order to pay her foreign creditors. In this respect she has a great superiority over Italy, as an immense part of the Italian debt is in French or German hands. France has another advantage: she is a producer of wine, and sells much of it in various countries; she exports, besides, many manufactured articles; as a rule she is almost, with regard to foreign nations, in the position, not of a debtor, but of a creditor. She therefore bears no losses from exchange. This said, we must add that her debt is increasing in an alarming way. M. Boulanger, a Senator, who some time ago made a report on our finances, showed that the funded debt of France alone was equal to the united funded debts of Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Russia. England, alarmed at the prospect of a combination of the Russian and the French fleets in the Mediterranean, is going to vote again large sums for the increase of her already powerful navy. The navies of Italy, of Germany, of France have absorbed enormous sums of late years. Surely, if the old maxim, "Si vis pacem, para bellum," is true, peace was never better assured; but it is difficult to imagine how the perpetuation of armaments will secure for ever the continuation of peace, and on the other hand to imagine anything more absurd than the perpetuation of armaments which are to remain useless.

HABEMUS PONTIFICEM.

ITALY, December 16, 1893.

CRISPI is again at the helm! Zanardelli was unsuccessful in forming a cabinet, owing to the diversity of opinion on the financial question. Saracco and Sonnino, members of the Centre, declined to join him, and the King naturally felt that it would be impossible to accept a ministry without a minister of finance. Then occurred another incident. Zanardelli had chosen for minister of foreign affairs Oreste Baratieri, a native of Trent, who had formed part of the expedition of the Thousand (1860), is now a general in the Italian army and governor of Eritrea. Baratieri accepted, but, on the eve of the completion of the ministry, suddenly declined. This was a singular proceeding, as the King had manifested his approval of Zanardelli's choice. It is said that the Austrian ambassador protested—this again is denied—and there will be an interpellation in the House on the subject. This was the last drop in the cup. Zanardelli informed the King that he must decline further attempts to form a ministry. The King summoned Farini, president of the Senate, who, refusing to attempt to form a ministry himself, advised the King to summon Crispi, and so he did on the day of his arrival from Naples.

Even Crispi has found immense obstacles, owing entirely to the financial difficulties, as he was resolved to allow no question of party or of persons to influence him in his choice of men whose characters and abilities might insure a strong ministry. He had interviews with Rudini, the prime minister who succeeded him in 1891, but they came to little save that Rudini gave promise of support. Then he summoned Nicotera, and all old quarrels were made up. Nicotera, who is one of the most generous and patriotic of men, promised his support to his old friend and fellow-conspirator without making any claim for the admission of his friends to the ministry. Crispi had also long interviews with Signor Colajanni, the Sicilian republican socialist, who first called the attention of the House to the banking scandals, and who has now written a really wonderful book entitled 'The Banks and the Government.' He was the most formidable opponent of Crispi during his late cabinet, but, being first of all a patriot, then a Sicilian, accepted the interview, and expounded his views on the best measures to secure the pacification of Sicily. Saracco and Sonnino accepted, the former the department of public works, the latter that of the treasury. It was hoped that Perazzi, Sella's *alter ego*, would accept the department of finance, but he did not see his way clear, so Sonnino has that also in the interim. Great difficulty was experienced in finding a minister of foreign affairs, but at last Baron Alberto Blanc accepted the office, and seems to be generally acceptable, even to France. Similar difficulties occurred in securing a fitting minister of war, and it is in the war budget that all the difficulties originate. The King deprecates any reduction in the budgets of the army and navy, whereas all the real authorities on finance maintain that, without this reduction, no real equilibrium between expenditure and income can be attained. Gen. Ricotti, in a letter to the *Opinione*, affirms that eighty millions must be found immediately, and that before burdening the country with fresh taxes, forty millions of economy must be effected in the various budgets, commencing with twenty millions in the War and Navy Department. And it is the opinion of this veteran general and ex-minister that the war budget might be reduced from 246 to 232 millions by modifying the organization of the army. "If," he writes, "we persist in maintaining twelve army corps, not only are economies impossible, but other fifteen millions must be found; and an army with ten army corps thoroughly efficient would be stronger than an army with twelve army corps which cannot be rendered efficient without the aforesaid addition to the budget." Gen. Ricotti affirms that he felt the courage to undertake the reduction and to effect the economy of fourteen millions, but that Crispi, on hearing his proposals, did not invite him to become minister of war. This letter is much commented on by the partisans of partial disarmament, whereas the champions of an "Italy powerful by land and on sea" approve Crispi for declining as a colleague a minister who "felt the courage" to reduce the number of army corps. The actual minister of war, Gen. Stanislao Mocenni, is a member of the Chamber of Deputies, and is credited with the intention of effecting economy in the war budget without reducing the corps.

Prof. Guido Baccelli is hailed with delight by the university students as minister of education. Crispi first summoned Carducci, who went to Rome and gave his opinions on the difficult questions to be resolved. He would not in any case accept office unless allowed to revolutionize the entire system of public instruction as it exists to-day, beginning with the reduction by one-half of the existing universities. This was the intention of the late minister Ferdinand Martini, but the presentation of the bill was received with such a howl of execration by the provinces to be decapitated that he shelved it at once. Carducci assuredly would not do so, but would resign instanter if prevented from carrying out all the reforms that he believed necessary. In any case it is a relief to all who admire the poet and the sturdy citizen-professor, that he is not caught in the ministerial machine, whose wheels would have lacerated brain, mind, and heart. As a Senator, he will continue to propound his ideas as to educational reform—a reform which every citizen of the United States will agree to be urgent when they consider that, with 61 per cent. of *analfabeti*, out of thirty-six millions spent for education by the State only eight millions is allotted to primary instruction, the secondary and higher absorbing the rest, and the universities alone costing the nation ten millions.

Signor Boselli, minister of public instruction under Depretis, has taken the Department of Agriculture, Industry, and Commerce. The whole country is agitating for a repeal of the late banking law passed at the imperious bidding of Signor Giolitti, which is held responsible for the numerous and heavy failures or suspensions of some of the largest banks. Among these we regret to see that of Maquay & Hooker, so long regarded by the large American and English population as "safe as the Bank of England." The stoppage of the popular Bank of Genoa is also a sad disaster. It is said that at the opening of the Chambers there will be a tail to the bank-scandal revelations. The private accounts of Tanlongo, the late director of the Roman Bank, now extinct, have been given to the public, and they certainly are not edifying reading. Letters are published of which one at least proves that when Depretis was minister, and the abolition of the compulsory circulation of paper money was the question of the day, several members of the ministry instructed Tanlongo to bring the *rente* up to a certain figure, now 91, now 92, then to *par*, promising that the Government would make good all losses. Minghetti and Sella were on intimate terms with Tanlongo, praising his efforts to "help his country," seemingly forgetful that the business of a bank director is to protect the interests of the bank and of the shareholders, with whose deposits he has no right to play ducks and drakes even for patriotic purposes. Nothing, therefore, can be gained by further touching pitch, and there is a chance that Crispi may have sufficient influence to prevent at least the time of the House being wasted in discussing matters which, at this period of the affair, can be properly sifted only in a court of justice. I refer to the matter simply to show how involved is the situation, and what courage and skill are needed to extricate the country from the rocks and shoals and quicksands on which inexpert helmsmen have allowed the frail bark to drift.

And when all these difficulties are enumerated, the greatest and most urgent remains—that is, the pacification of Sicily. Since I wrote last, two fresh rebellions have broken out in the province of Palermo. At Partinico the people protested against the intolerable taxation—the poll tax; the tax on beasts of burden; the tax on flour. Their remonstrances were unheeded, nay, scoffed at. Then they surrounded the municipality, burned the tax rolls, and committed other misdemeanors. Fortunately, the president and other members of the much calumniated *fasci* succeeded in preventing bloodshed, remonstrating with the enraged populace, reminding them that, in the municipal council, at least three members were

chosen by themselves to protect their interests; and with equal good fortune the troops did not intervene. But at Giardinelli, a little commune close to Palermo, a far more serious riot occurred. The people clamored for the abolition of certain taxes; the syndic refused to entertain the proposal. The people went in procession, a woman carrying the portrait of King Humbert at its head. Disorders were committed, as at Partinico—tax-rolls and other documents burned. But one carbineer was in the place; he summoned the military, and, how or why no one seems able to explain, without warning, without the three trumpet-blasts which would amount to reading the riot act, shots were fired and eight victims fell—first of all the woman carrying the King's portrait—while other seven were seriously wounded. The troops retreated to a tower outside the village, not one of them being injured. The lieutenant who was in command affirms that he gave the order *not* to fire. The post-mortem examination of the bodies proves that different bullets were used. Many of the spectators affirm that the first shots were fired from the private house of the syndic. Of course there is an "inquiry," but inquiries have been made after all the disorders, and, as Colajanni stated yesterday, "in eleven months, twenty-five Sicilian citizens have been killed and more than a hundred wounded, while not a single Government agent has been punished." This is an ugly record for the Giolitti ministry, and Senator Cordova's letter may pass for its epitaph:

"In October I wrote from my unhappy land to the competent authorities, praying that the white cross of Savoy might not be steeped in blood. I received thanks and promises; but what are words worth when not followed up by deeds, when affairs are allowed to take their course down the slope of Mussulman fatality that has no rival in history? Misery, neglect, suffering—these are the three garlands which encircle the brow of the victors of Palermo and of Milazzo, abandoned to the tender mercies of a communal and provincial oligarchy whose impudent peculations are safeguarded by the protectorate of the clients in high places with the complicity of the prefects?"

Yesterday it was Senator Villari, to-day Senator Cordova, who stigmatizes the conduct of the governments and of their agents. Now all the hopes of the Sicilians are centred in "Don Ciccio," as they familiarly call Crispi. Sidney Sonnino, who is at the Treasury and *pro tem.* holds the portfolio of finance, was the first exponent of the wants and woes of Sicily in 1876; and quite recently, as private deputy, presented a bill for the adjustment of contracts between proprietors and farmers. But the bill savors too much of the Irish land-bills without touching the absentee proprietors. These must be reached if agriculture and agriculturists are to be saved from utter ruin. Crispi knows that two and two make four and not five. To save the country, he must restore the people to the land, and the land to the people; he must deal with a high hand in all questions relating to the land. He must ordain an inspection of the municipal administrations, especially in the matter of *dazio consumo*. Think of a city like Palermo, where more than half the population are either without any regular calling, or who live from hand to mouth, never eating a breakfast till they have earned it, and who yet pay nine millions in taxes on food. Think of the fact that, while articles of luxury have yielded less by half a million than in former years because the administration is, to draw it mild, defective—because smuggling in the dear has yielded 35,000 lire above the average, flour being taxed at the rate of 8 per cent., besides the Government custom house tax. Think that, while the sanitary works are suspended for want of funds, 75 000 lire were voted for the theatrical company which comes to divert the wealthy classes, and these alone, as no workingman can afford a ticket for the theatres there. And now comes the municipal crisis at Palermo, precisely on account of the budget—another complication while half the communes in the island are under royal commissaries.

Of course there are not wanting numbers who assert that the resolution of the late crisis by the King was unconstitutional. This is untrue, but it was *unusual*. The King did "choose his own minister," and stands by his choice; and if Crispi should assume certain powers which will bring down on him the epithets of "dictator," of "Bismarck in miniature," the King must uphold him still, granting him power if needed to dissolve the House and appeal to the country in word and in deed; otherwise Mazzini's prophecy may be fulfilled, and Crispi may become the last minister of monarchy in Italy. J. W. M.

Correspondence.

SUUM CUIQUE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your last issue Senator Proctor's bill for the annexation of Utah to Nevada is mentioned with praise. The same plan was embodied in a bill introduced by Mr. Oates of Alabama in the House of Representatives very early in the extra session.

In your remarks on the vote for extra mileage, it is not fair to give the discredit of it entirely to the Democrats. It was opposed by several prominent members on that side of the House, notably Mr. Sayers of Texas, the present, and Mr. Holman of Indiana, the former, Chairman of the Committee on Appropriations. No opposition appeared from the Republican side, that party preferring to let the Democrats fight it out among themselves. What is least creditable, the opponents of the measure were refused the right to go on record by a call of the yeas and nays. Among those who voted against additional mileage in the House were Mr. Wilson of West Virginia and Mr. Powers of Vermont, among the most distinguished of their respective sides. The vote in the Senate stood 41 to 12, the opposition showing very prominent Democrats such as Mr. Mills as well as Republicans.

Yours respectfully, William Everett.

Quincy, Mass., December 31, 1893.

ANTI-ROMANIST FOLLY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Letters in Nos. 1480 and 1482 of the *Nation* from Mr. Alexander Milne of Columbus, Ohio, suggest the idea that readers who are interested in the growth of the American Protective Association may wish to know the part that organization has been playing in recent elections in Chicago.

Before the November election for judges of the courts of Cook County, the Association issued a circular giving in parallel columns the names of the candidates of the two leading parties, with asterisks, calling attention to certain nominees termed "Romanists" in the foot note. These circulars seem to have been widely distributed in a quiet manner by the members and friends of the society. A careful study of the tabulated vote, however, reveals the fact that only a few hundred citizens were influenced by this appeal to prejudice, and that no judicial candidate owes his defeat to it—this in spite of the fact that the contest was close, one Democrat and eight Republicans being elected. The Republican who was defeated was not opposed by the A. P. A., and the Democrats who were so opposed did not run behind their colleagues to any material extent. The one Republican who was marked for defeat was successful with the rest of his ticket, with the exception noted.

The special election of December 19 for a mayor to succeed the late Carter H. Harrison gave the Association an opportunity to present a clear issue to its sympathizers. It apparently embraced the occasion, for circulars were distributed not only from hand to hand as heretofore, but even in some churches on the Sunday before the election. The following is a copy of the card:

CANDIDATES TO BE VOTED FOR DEC. 19, 1893.

Geo. B. Swift, Protestant.

John P. Hopkins, Romanist.

No one could be found who would admit having authorized this electioneering device, the campaign committees being particularly eager to disavow such action; but with many the A. P. A. received credit for the publication, and that was doubtless the source from which it emanated. The response of the people in electing Mr. Hopkins, a young man of great promise, reassures those who hope for the speedy extinction of the religious issue in American politics.

The rancorous nature of the A. P. A.'s opposition is well illustrated by the resolutions currently reported in the Western press to have been adopted by a Denver (Colorado) society upon the occasion of a recreant member appointing a Catholic to office. The resolutions conclude as follows:

"Resolved, That a likeness of said traitor, with a copy of these resolutions duly certified, be sent to each and every supreme council, supreme lodge, supreme camp, and grand commandery within the jurisdiction of the United States, as well as to each local council within the jurisdiction of the State, with the request that the same be read and that the name of 'Marion D. Van Horne, traitor and perjurer,' be proclaimed three times at each of four consecutive regular meetings of such councils.

"Resolved, further, That a photograph or likeness of said traitor be prepared bearing across the breast of said likeness a Roman cross painted thereon, surmounted by the word 'Traitor,' said likeness to be draped in black and hung in our council chamber; be it

"Resolved, further, That all communication, socially or otherwise, with said traitor and perjurer by any member of this order do now for ever cease; that in his joys or in his sorrows, in his hopes or in his disappointments, awake or asleep, in health or in sickness, at his fireside or with his fellow-men, we ask Providence to grant one faint ray of conscience to quicken his Plutonian soul so that he may see himself as others see him; be it

"Resolved, further, That when his carcass reposes in the arms of Mother Earth, in whatsoever land, an unknown committee, duly appointed, shall perform its last rite in the name of this council by marking the place so all may know: 'Here lies a traitor.'"—*Chicago Record, October 21, 1893.*

L. F. E.

Chicago, December 22, 1893.

THINGS CHINESE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your notice of 'Things Chinese' on page 475 of your issue of December 21 you naturally take exception to the use of this plan

of book without acknowledgment to Prof. Chamberlain, the author of 'Things Japanese.' In justice to the author of the former work it should be stated that this apparent discourtesy is probably the fault of the American publisher; for in the writer's edition, issued by Sampson Low, Marston & Co., the following occurs in the preface:

"On the appearance of 'Things Japanese' it was suggested to the author that he should prepare a book on similar lines with regard to Chinese subjects, and the present volume is the result. His thanks are due to B. H. Chamberlain, Esquire, for the courtesy and kindness which accorded a ready assent to the request that the classification and plan of arrangement used in 'Things Japanese' might be copied in 'Things Chinese' as far as was compatible with the subject-matter of the latter."

Yours, C. A. B.

Boston, December 25, 1893.

THE UNDERSTATEMENT OF "GUESS."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The remarks of "F. H.," in your last issue, on the Yankee use of the word "guess" to "imply a positive certainty," have renewed a long-standing wonder that no writer, so far as I know, not even Lowell, has mentioned a possible, and, to my mind, the most natural, explanation of that use. One of the simplest rhetorical devices, and one particularly congenial to sententious and satirical peoples like the ancient Romans and the modern Yankees, is that of ironical understatement. Thus, when a Yankee is asked a question the answer to which appears to him absurdly obvious, he naturally replies by a sarcastic affectation of ignorance. If, loaded down with bundles and looking utterly dragged out, I am greeted with a cheerful inquiry "whether I feel tired," I answer not with the courteous and reflective "I think I do," but with the ironical "I rather think I do," or, being a Yankee, "I guess I do."

The case is exactly parallel with the common use of the conditional mood, in such phrases as "I should think so!" when what is really implied is a most emphatic indicative. Why should one of these uses be branded as more of a solecism than the other? L. W. H.

December 29, 1893.

Notes.

Macmillan & Co. announce as nearly ready Mrs. J. R. Green's 'Town Life in the 15th Century,' and as in preparation 'The Dawn of Astronomy,' by J. Norman Lockyer, with numerous illustrations.

Ginn & Co. will issue next month 'First Lessons in Civil Government,' by Jesse Macy, a work for young children.

Henry S. Morais, No. 546 North Fifth Street, Philadelphia, is about to issue to subscribers 'The Jews of Philadelphia: Their History from the Earliest Settlements to the Present Time.'

The Schulte Publishing Co., Chicago, will publish in an illustrated imperial octavo volume the papers read before the recent International Congress of Anthropology.

'Heinrich Heine's Life Told in His Own Words' is the title which Mr. Arthur Dexter has given to his translation, just published by Henry Holt & Co., of Gustav Karpeles's well-known 'Heine's Autobiographie.' As Heine did not himself select the material of which this book is composed, the change of title seems very appropriate indeed. To those familiar with Heine's writings the book offers little that is new, as it consists almost exclusively of passages taken from his collected works, arranged in chronological order. To those, however, who wish to have put before them in a compact and authentic form Heine's estimate of himself, nothing could be more useful than this volume. The translation, at least of the prose part, is of a high order of excellence. As for the poetical passages, it would be hard to recognize

"Die frommen klugen Gazelln"

in

"The gazelles, in their innocent cunning";

or

"Die Kleine, die Feine, die Reine, die Eine"

in

"My pet, my darling, my dainty, my own."

But one ought not to be too harsh with one who dares to translate Heine.

It might easily be believed that an educated and travelled Spaniard would have something to say worth our while to make a note of in such a book as 'Costumbres Yankees; Viajes por la América del Norte'; but, alas! its author, José Sanchez Somoano, brought so little intellectual baggage, and owns a pair of eyes so far from achromatic, that his little book is almost barren of interest. For one thing he has a prodigious talent, and that is a laborious misunderstanding of what he has seen or read. One of his most brilliant achievements of that sort is the following account of the origin of Boston Common: "A great philanthropist, named Common, had the happy idea of presenting the children of Boston with a leafy grove of great trees" (p. 186).

A translation of Arrian's 'Anabasis of Alexander' and 'Indica,' by Edward James Chinnock, M.A., LL.D. (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan), has just been issued in the revised series of Bohn's Library. It is a serviceable work, executed with care and following the original with sufficient closeness and accuracy. The notes, geographical and historical, furnish the intelligent reader with a guide to the itinerary of Alexander and to the chief sources of his history. Several maps add to the usefulness of a volume which, while not conceived on the scale and standard of Mr. Dakyns's 'Xenophon,' for instance, is praiseworthy in its execution. The value of the work would be greatly increased by a detailed index of names and places.

The eighth book of Thucydides, by H. C. Goodhart, professor in Edinburgh University (Macmillan), is a piece of minute and careful scholarship, especially dwelling on points of grammatical construction and interpretation, resuming the labors of preceding editors, and adding some independent studies of the manuscript authority and the historical questions connected with this part of the history. Among these is an able discussion of the relation of Thucydides's narrative of the revolution of 411 B. C. to the account given in Aristotle's 'Athenian Constitution.'

Karl Gjellerup, the Danish translator of several of Wagner's librettos and the author of a very suggestive work on the great master, has recently translated into Danish verse the sacred songs of the Older Edda, the second instalment of which has already appeared in Copenhagen. Apart from the scholarly rendering of difficult passages and the successful reproduction of the spirit of the original, this latest contribution to Eddic literature is of interest on account of the numerous illustrations by the Danish artist Lorenz Frölich, who vies with the poet in his enthusiasm for the old Northern life. A careful and sympathetic English rendering of the original with these Danish pictures would be sure of a hearty welcome both in this country and in England.

The two volumes of *St. Nicholas* for 1893 (Century Co.) afford the variety of interest for all sorts and conditions of children which has come to be associated with that magazine. The longer serials take their color from adventure, the marvellous, and from practical life; there are articles on several of the leading American cities, on ship-building and sea-fighting, ancient and modern; short tales of boating and fishing and hunting; poems in plenty, with Whittier to lead off, and an abundance of comicalities that are often very insinuating.

Harper's Young People for 1893 exhibits no change referable to the loss of its former editor, Mr. Starey. It still addresses the older children, who are generally treated very much as adults by writers (like W. Hamilton Gibson, Harriet Prescott Spofford, Lieut. Peary, etc.) whose proper audience is adult. Athletics are, as the fashion of the day goes, not unduly celebrated. The Chicago Fair and the Columbian exercises, of course, have their share of attention, and here and there one may find other reflections of what is passing in the outer world. Among the illustrations, Mr. Peter Newell's facetiæ hold the first place for originality and humor.

The principal article in the *Geographical Journal* for December is a survey, by Mr. C. R. Markham, of those regions of the earth which are still unexplored. He begins with the Polar areas as containing the most extensive unknown tracts, incidentally saying that in his opinion the argument on which Nansen's "proceedings are based is sound." In the Old World the western Sudan and southern Arabia are the largest and most important countries awaiting explorers, while in this hemisphere he asserts that over one-fourth of the Dominion of Canada is "entirely unknown," as well as an enormous tract in Colombia. In referring to the condition of our own country, he remarks that "the United States Coast Survey is a monument of rigorous accuracy." Mr. W. Astor Chanler gives a too brief account of a visit made to an interesting tribe, apparently of Somali extraction, which he calls the Rendile. Although "they had never even heard of Europeans," they were clothed in heavy American sheeting. They possess immense herds of camels and sheep, and live in villages, each ruled by a chief who is elected and holds office for life. "They never elect a rich or powerful man, but some poor peasant fellow." The expedition appears to be nearly stranded for want of pack animals and porters, and Mr. Chanler's companion, Lieut. von Höhnel, having been severely wounded by a rhinoceros, has been obliged to return to the coast. The map of the number is of the Anglo-Portuguese boundary in East Africa, constructed by the British section of the boundary commission. From the accompanying geographical notes it appears that a large part of the region through which the boundary line passes is practically uninhabited.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for December contains an interesting address by Lord Roberts on India, past and present. The most striking part is that relating to the Mutiny, of which he gives some personal reminiscences, though he sheds no new light on its causes. In closing he strongly defends the present Afghan policy, arguing that, under the present circumstances, Lord Lawrence, the great advocate of "masterly inactivity," would approve of what has been and is being done on the northwestern frontier. An interesting series of historical maps show the

growth of the empire from 1760 to 1893. Another map shows the advance of Russia since 1857. In the geographical notes a strange error for a scientific journal is made in the statement that "in March last two French scientists, MM. Hermite and Besançon, ascended from Vaugirard" to a height of 52,480 feet, where the minimum temperature was —60° F., and remained several hours. The balloon, in fact, contained nothing but some automatically registering instruments.

The article of most general interest in the current number of the *Annales de Géographie* is M. Maistre's account of his expedition from the Congo to the Niger. He confirms the statement of other travellers as to the spread of Mohammedanism in this part of the Sudan and of its elevating effect upon the people. In describing a partial ascent of Ararat, M. Chantre calls attention to the remarkably rapid absorption of the water from the melting snow, and suggests the existence of a vast subterranean reservoir. Only three springs are to be found upon the mountain, and the neighboring plain is uninhabitable in summer from want of water. There are also articles upon the lakes of Jura and on Brittany, together with geographical notes and correspondence. A valuable map, with an accompanying explanatory text, shows the distribution of animals throughout the world, and a useful map of Africa gives its present political divisions. It is interesting to note that the French claim the northwestern shore of Lake Tchad.

The recent smallpox epidemic in Norway has attracted increased attention to this disease throughout the North. Of the many discussions of the subject, one of the most interesting is a series of papers in a Danish medical journal on the influence of light on the skin, with special reference to its use in the treatment of skin diseases. As long ago as 1300 the English court physician, Gaddesden (the Gatesden of Chaucer's Prologue), reported the results of his experience in surrounding the smallpox patient's bed with red curtains, adding that by following this method he cured the king's son without leaving any marks. For many hundred years this treatment was followed throughout Europe, and as late as the seventeenth century it received additional confirmation from the great Danish physician and scientist, Thomas Bartholin. Later it was contemptuously put aside by the medical men of a more enlightened age as a foolish error of the past. Its modern revival comes from Bergen, Norway, one of whose hospital physicians makes report not dissimilar in its main results to old Gaddesden's of 600 years ago.

Among the recent evidences of the progress of Western ideas in the East is the formation of the Bengal Academy. Its chief object is to develop Bengali as a prose literary language by the compilation of an authoritative dictionary, which shall define, consolidate, and purify the written dialect. It also aims to secure the "scientific criticism of Bengali style and grammatical structure, the discussion of Bengali works, and a collection of biographies of Bengali authors." The first great impulse to vernacular composition in this language was given by the movement for widow remarriage in 1854. Previous to this time its literature consisted of a few poems and ballads; now, one of its enthusiastic admirers asserts that, "apart from ephemeral and worthless productions," Bengali literature contains about 700 works. "Of these, 150 are dramas or works of fiction, 20 are histories, and 50 are philosophical or scientific treatises." The rules of the Academy, says a writer in the London *Times*, "are conceived in a practical and modest spirit." And he adds: "There is something that must appeal to scholars and men of letters of all nations in this quiet and carefully planned effort to give form and consistency to one of the new literary languages of the world."

Sir William Dawson of McGill College, Montreal, has lately published an essay on the Canadian Ice Age, which, as the author admits, may be classed with Howorth's 'Glacial Nightmare.' It is an ardent presentation of obsolescent views, in which land ice-sheets are restricted far below the extension now generally allowed them, and in which floating ice is held accountable for a great part of the glacial deposits in northeastern America. Those who are sceptical about glacial theories will take much comfort in this book, in which the learned author objects to what he calls "the rough-and-ready method employed by so many of his juniors." On the other hand, those who have slowly approached a general understanding of the conditions of glaciation by a close examination of the drift deposits of Canada and the northern United States, and who recognize great glacial extension across the international boundary, as well as a certain amount of marine and lacustrine iceberg action, will here find little to disturb their views.

Prof. J. W. Spencer, State Geologist of Georgia, has recently issued a report on the palæozoic rocks of that State under the heading of the 'Geology of the Ten Counties of Northwestern Georgia' (Atlanta, 1893). Little work of finished quality has hitherto been done in Georgia; the present volume is much more detailed in its discussion of the structure and resources of the northwestern part of the State than any heretofore issued. It opens with a general geological description of the region, which is followed by local county reports. Then come an account of the economic resources, chiefly iron and coal, and a chapter on roads, with the relation of their construction to the supply of stone or brick-making clay. The latter should attract general interest in a region where the roads are so much in need of improvement.

With the sections for Hanover, Stuttgart, and Munich the fine publication, Dr. C. Vogel's Map of the German Empire, is brought to a close (Gotha: Perthes; New York: Westermann). The fourteen parts can now be bound up together, and most subscribers will not fail to possess themselves of the index of names, which is issued separately for three marks. The work is a very valuable addition to patriotic and scholarly resources.

The Christmas number of *Light and Shade* is wholly given up to a commemoration of the Columbian Exposition in photogravures of varied tints, from many unusual points of view.

The *Photographic Times* for December 22 contains the only sort of general view of Philadelphia possible from the nature of its site, viz., from a balloon. It is very effective.

—The contents of the *Atlantic* for January are varied, though by no means of absorbing interest. Mrs. Deland begins a new novel, and Charles Egbert Craddock continues the monotonous course of "His Vanished Star"; there are biographical sketches of Admiral Howe and the late Gen. Armstrong, and ten letters which Coleridge wrote to Southey in his usual vein, just after his own return from Germany. Most worthy of discussion, however, is a single point in Prof. Shaler's somewhat too elaborate article on the transmission of learning through universities, with regard to the character of the instruction which should be given in scientific and technical schools. Just what that should be is one of the most important, though least debated, problems which modern educators have, by theory and by experiment, yet to solve. The extremely rapid growth of such schools during the few years they have been in existence shows the astonishingly large class of young men from which they draw. The greater part of *Scribner's* is a rethreshing of old straw. Mr. Crawford concludes his excellently illustrated account of Constantinople, Mr. Hamerton writes briefly on Édouard Manet, and Mr. R. C. Winthrop on Webster's reply to Hayne and the way in which Webster was accustomed to prepare his speeches for delivery and for publication. It is comforting to find at last in a popular article on the Israelites in Egypt the statement that the "monuments and papyri of Egypt, so far as at present explored, are absolutely silent about the history of the Israelites while in Egypt and about the manner in which they left it."

—The collocation of articles in the current number of the *Century* is happy in the extreme. We have Mr. Cole's engravings of Franz Hals, in continuation of his series on the Dutch masters; some masterly generalizations on the function of the poet, from one of Lowell's lectures; Mr. Brander Matthews's appreciative but reserved criticism of the work of Andrew Lang; and, to take mere articles of information, a scholarly statement of the light which Assyrian literature and archæology throw on the Bible, and an interesting account of the discovery of chloroform by Sir James Simpson in 1847. In the essay last mentioned it is worth noticing that poetry was the handmaid of science, for Dr. Simpson was continually spurred on to new and sometimes reckless experiments by remembering Shakspere's "not poppy nor mandragora, nor all the drowsy syrups of the world" and similar Elizabethan references to narcotic drugs. A curious error, by the way, is that of the sonnet on Guittone d'Arezzo, whom the author calls the "Columbus of the sonnet," and represents as gay of song and life—an opinion which no one could form who had ever waded through the platitudinous wastes of this pedantic and garrulous versifier.

—The place of honor in *Harper's* is rightly given to the opening chapters of Du Maurier's new novel "Trilby," which depicts so faithfully and charmingly the studio life of long ago in Paris that it is hard to tell whether the text or the illustrations are more delightful. In addition there are the usual articles of travel. Mr. R. H. Davis concludes his series of descriptions of English life with a somewhat ill-humored criticism of English hospitality, and Mr. Weeks continues the interesting account of his Eastern travels, which would, however, be less confusing if they were provided with a map. Besides "Trilby," the most noteworthy article in the number is Dr. Griffis's statement of the extraordinary influence which the Dutch in the Old World exerted over the future colonists of New England, and the Dutch in America over their northern and eastern neighbors. In the spirit of the late Douglas Campbell, not only much of New England's commercial prosperity, not only that fertile inventiveness which is supposed to be a Yankee's birthright, but much of what little physical or mental "sweetness and light" the poor New Englanders had, is ascribed to the practical, genial, and sensible influence of the Dutch.

—The American Psychological Association held its second meeting on December 27 and 28 at Columbia College. Papers were read on the first day by Prof. Fullerton of Philadelphia, on the "Psychological Standpoint"; by Prof. Royce of Harvard, on "The Case of John Bunyan" (an attempt to throw into the categories of modern alienism the mental perturbations of the period of insistent impulse and incipient illusion of Bunyan's early life); by Mr. H. C. Warren of Princeton, on "Experiments on Visual Memory" (showing by interesting curves the relative reliability of the memory of a large number of male and female students for simple square figures after intervals of ten, twenty, and forty minutes); by Prof. Murray of Montreal, on the question of the occurrence of tastes in dreams; and by Prof. Butler of Columbia College, on Mr. Fiske's doctrine of the "Meaning of Infancy." Prof. Cattell, Prof. Münsterberg, and Dr. Scripture gave accounts of the work done during the past year in the laboratories at Columbia, Harvard, and Yale respectively. Perhaps the most interesting item from a practical and educational point of view was the description by Prof. Münsterberg of a new device for producing stereoscopic visual effects from plane figures without any of the usual aids from mirrors or prisms. The effect is secured by throwing pictures prepared for each eye separately into the eyes in succession separately. By means of a simple rotating apparatus the ordinary zoötropic effects may be added to the stereoscopic effect. This opens up the possibility of showing by lantern slides animals, machines, etc., not only in lateral motion, but at the same time in relief, and also in motion to and from the plane of vision. This, with other of the Harvard results, as well as part of the paper of Prof. Royce on Bunyan, are to be noted in the *Psychological Review* for January. On the second day papers were read by Dr. Hyslop of Columbia, Mr. Mead of Michigan, Mr. H. R. Marshall of New York city, Dr. Scripture, Prof. Miller of Bryn Mawr, and Prof. Pace of the Catholic University at Washington. Among those who contributed to the discussions were Profs. Dewey of Michigan, James of Harvard, Strong of Chicago, and Starr of the New York College of Physicians and Surgeons. The next session is to be held during the Christmas recess 1894-95 at Princeton, with Prof. James as President and Prof. Cattell as Secretary.

—On the 5th of December the Congregation of the University of Oxford, by a majority of forty, passed a resolution in favor of establishing an honor school of English language and literature. The subject has excited a good deal of controversy in recent years as well as enthusiastic support; some elections to the Council (which alone can initiate legislation) have turned upon it, and the vote of the other day marks a change in public opinion—a minority has become a substantial majority. The broad principle now affirmed is the acceptance of English—as Modern History, Law, and Oriental Languages have previously been accepted—as a proper and adequate means for university education and training. But the supporters of the movement have not yet accomplished their end. The statute embodying the resolution has yet to be drafted, and much divergence of opinion is likely to appear as to the relative proportions of philology and literature to be required in the proposed school. It is felt, on the one hand, that a good amount of philology is essential to give the school a needful weight and to save it from being what has been described (in terms suggested by a phrase familiar at Harvard) as a "soft option," attractive mainly to the weaker students. On the other, it is urged that philologists are apt to give undue importance to their subject, to the practical exclusion of all the greatest books and writers in English since the fifteenth century. It is to be hoped that a satisfactory compromise may be arrived at, so that what is assuredly a strange omission may no longer disfigure the list of Oxford studies.

—The lively interest still felt in the Sudan is shown by the fact that 'Ten Years' Captivity in the Mahdi's Camp' (Scribners) has reached its "tenth, abridged, popular edition" in a year from its first publication. This is owing partly to the great interest of the personal narrative, but more especially to the fact that it has a unique historical value in being the only account which we have, or possibly can ever hope to have, by a European eye-witness of the Mahdi's rebellion from the beginning. Father Ohrwalder, a member of the Austrian mission to Kordofan, reached his station, about four hundred miles to the southwest of Khartum, in 1881, just at the outbreak of hostilities. A year later he was carried captive to the Mahdi's camp, and was present at the siege and fall of El Obeid. After a five years' slavery in or near this place, he was sent to Omdurman, the Dervish capital, a city of some one hundred and fifty thousand inhabitants, lying across the Nile from Khartum and built largely from its ruins. Here he was allowed some liberty, and earned his own living, at one time by soap-boiling in partnership with Lupton Bey till his death, and latterly as a ribbon-weaver. By the help of an Arab he and the two surviving Italian sisters of the mission, with a slave-girl, escaped, and, after a seven days' ride on camels, they reached the first Egyptian outpost, five hundred miles distant. In addition to the story of his own life during these eventful years, Father Ohrwalder gives a condensed history of the Mahdi movement, interspersed with pen-portraits of the principal leaders. At his first interview with the Mahdi he describes him as a "powerfully built man, of dark-brown complexion and carefully kept skin; he had a pleasant smile, which showed to advantage the curious slit between his front teeth. By constant training he had acquired a gentle manner in speaking, and with these exceptions there was nothing unusual in his appearance." The impression of him in many respects is distinctly favorable, and he seems to have treated the European captives with some consideration. Very different is his successor, the Khalifa Abdullah, whose cruel tyranny, in the father's opinion, confirmed by other testimony, would be gladly exchanged for the Egyptian rule by all his subjects except the men of his own tribe. The description of Omdurman, its government, social life, the frequent reviews and prayers at the mosque, at which sometimes one hundred thousand people are present, is very interesting. The father comments severely on Gen. Gordon's strange failure to comprehend the religious character of the revolt, and believes that his coming, from the false hopes which it raised, cost thousands of lives. His memory, however, is held in great honor in the Sudan, a common saying among the Moslems being, "Had Gordon been one of us, he would have been a perfect man." The work of translating the author's manuscript from the German has been well done by Maj. F. R. Wingate of the Egyptian army, who has also added a plan of Omdurman and a map of the eastern Sudan. A number of illustrations add to the attractiveness of this interesting, though often very painful, book.

REMBRANDT.

Rembrandt: His Life, his Work, and his Time. By Émile Michel, member of the Institute of France. From the French by Florence Simmonds. Edited by Frederick Wedmore. With 67 full-page plates and 250 text illustrations. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1894.

Saskia, the Wife of Rembrandt. By Charles Knowles Bolton. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 1893.

Of all the great masters of painting none is so popular to-day as Rembrandt. No one has more influence on painters, and no one is so much written about and admired by critics. The solitary old man whose fame was already so forgotten that his death was unnoticed by his contemporaries, and whose portraits, a few years later, could be bought for "sixpence apiece," is now the god of the hour. Dozens of earnest searchers rummage in musty records to glean the slightest fact connected with his life, and books and articles without end are devoted to his memory. After three hundred years his strangely original genius is appreciated, if not understood, and long-neglected pictures are brought forth from garrets and given places of honor in great museums or sold for enormous sums to American millionaires. Among the notable signs of our interest in him is the publication of the two books under review. Of the second of them we shall have little to say, but the fact is eloquent that it is thought worth while to devote a volume entirely to Saskia because she was Rembrandt's wife. The other, with its two royal octavo volumes, splendid in fine paper and clear print, its wealth of beautiful reproductions of the master's paintings, etchings, and drawings, its careful and minute research, is still more significant.

Let us say at once that the book is admirable, and, considering what it contains, astonishingly cheap: how so much can be given for so little money is a mystery. M. Michel is one of the leading authorities on Rembrandt and his works, and has written a monumental, and, we should think, nearly definitive Life. The translation seems admirably done. We have not had an opportunity to compare it with the original, but it is everywhere clear, lucid, and idiomatic, and, where we could test it (as in the quotations from Fromentin), faithful. Mr. Wedmore's editing is discreet and useful. We wish he had told us just what plates he thought it best to suppress—possibly some of the freer subjects; those which he has added are really additions and are most welcome. Hardly too much can be said in praise of the illustrations. To compare the heliogravures after paintings with even the most admirable woodcuts is to feel at once that superior authenticity of photography which has made modern criticism possible, and the reproductions of the etchings give nearly everything except that wonderful quality of the etched line which nothing can reproduce. A special feature of this publication is the number and prominence of the reproductions of drawings and sketches, those immediate records of the artist's moods and feelings, struck off at white heat, which often give surer revelation of his mind and heart than his more finished productions. We have only to suggest that in preparing these volumes for publication in this country it would have been as well to translate the prices,

which are given in florins, francs, and pounds, but never in dollars, and to lament the absence of a fuller index. There are catalogues of paintings, drawings, and etchings, a bibliography, and an index of proper names, and, of course, a table of contents and a list of illustrations, and the strict chronological order of the text makes reference fairly easy; but all this is not always sufficient. References from the text to the illustration are rare, and from the illustration to the text non-existent, and many of the illustrations are widely separated from the passage in the text that refers to them. As an instance take the "Rembrandt leaning on a stone sill." The plate is at page 211 of the second volume. The date of the etching is 1639, which would naturally bring the text referring to it somewhere in the latter part of vol. i. When the illustration was reached, we tried to turn back to the passage in the text for verification, but have not yet been able to find it.

A Life of Rembrandt reads much like a Life of Shakspere. Really next to nothing is known about it, and the elaborate investigations undertaken of late years have served more to destroy legends formerly believed than to add much of authentic information. "Possibly" and "perhaps" are the ever-recurring words, and we are more often told that he may, might, could, would, or should have done or felt this or that than that he really did so. The possibilities, too, have a strange knack of becoming probabilities, and the probabilities certainties in a few pages, and so lend themselves as bases of deduction for new possibilities, which go through the same transformations. Most of M. Michel's guessing is plausible and seems to have some foundation in the only real record of Rembrandt's life, his work, which is generally dated. The system is burlesqued in Mr. Bolton's little book on Saskia, which is an utterly superfluous work. Of Saskia nothing is known at all except her birth and parentage, the date of her marriage, the dates of the birth of her children and of her own death, and such an idea of her personal appearance as can be gathered from various portraits more or less plausibly assumed to be hers, and very different from each other in expression and even in feature. How then write a Life of her? The task is easy. Bring in the Prince of Orange and Sir Philip Sidney, Alexandre Dumas and "La Tulipe Noire," lions, monkeys, and Dr. Tulp; assume that if Rembrandt scratches an etching of a woman in bed, Saskia is failing fast, and then introduce a most robust personage as a portrait of her a year later, make her a good influence in his life, and tell how, after her death, "his hand etched pictures unworthy" of him, in the face of the fact that the worst of the "free" subjects are of the year 1640—and the thing is done. We shall give one instance in the author's own words, but with our italics, and have done. On page 2, "Rombertus van Ulenburgh, the father of Saskia, in the early autumn of the year 1578 was a student in *some* foreign university, *perhaps* at Paris or in England." On page 3, "he *must have* enjoyed his walk to the Thames to see the barge of Leicester pass, or to look upon the gray beard and knitted eyebrows of Burleigh, the great minister."

M. Michel is not so bad as this, but even M. Michel works his guesses rather hard. He objects, justly, to the "mania for identification" which has given various historic names to Rembrandt's portraits and etchings, but he seems to us not free from the malady himself. His identification of Rembrandt's father is plausible, but he makes Saskias and Hendrickjes of female figures, nude or costumed, that have slight resemblances to each other, and, once having decided that Rembrandt worked much from members of his household, will have brothers and sisters and servants at every turn. Perhaps the strangest of all is his identification of the so-called Sobiesky with Rembrandt himself, in spite of a discrepancy of ten or fifteen years between the apparent age of the model and the date of the picture. The master played strange tricks with his own features, but we find it hard to believe in this one, especially as the head seems one of the most living and real of his works. The eye and nose are not unlike Rembrandt's at a later date, but the lower part of the face is entirely different in form from that of any of his portraits.

Eliminating the conjectural in Rembrandt's life, what is left that is important can be briefly enough told. Rembrandt Harmensz, who sometimes called himself Van Ryn, was born in Leyden of a respectable lower-middle-class family on the 15th day of July, 1606-7 or 8—for the date even is uncertain, and there seems about as much documentary evidence for one of these years as for the others. "No record of Rembrandt's early youth has come down to us," we are expressly told by M. Michel, but the may-have-beens bravely fill the gap. He was enrolled in the university, but how much he studied there we can only guess. At "about" the age of fifteen he began the study of art with a bad painter, Jacob van Swanenburch, and "probably" stayed with him three years. In 1624 he went to Amsterdam to study with a painter of greater reputation, the Italianizer Pieter Lastman, but remained in his studio less than six months, when he returned to Leyden, determined "to study and practise painting alone, in his own fashion." This was in 1624, and his earliest known works, the "St. Paul in Prison" in the Schönborn collection and "The Money Changer" in the Berlin Gallery, are dated 1627, so that three years are unaccounted for. After this time he soon began to be celebrated, so much so that Gerard Dou became his pupil in 1628 and remained with him until 1631. That Dou was his pupil seems strange until one finds that Rembrandt's work at this time was much more like Dou's than like his own later productions. In 1631, when he went to settle definitely in Amsterdam, he was already a well-known painter, and was shortly the fashionable portrait-painter of the day. The next year, when he was not more than twenty-six years old, he painted the "Anatomy Lesson," which set the cap-sheaf on his glory and made him the most famous of Dutch artists.

At this time he met Saskia van Uylenborch, a young woman of a much wealthier and better family than his own, and was welcomed as an aspirant by her relatives, and married her in 1634. In 1639 he bought the house in the Breestraat that was never paid for, and filled it with the collections that figured in his inventory eighteen years later. He was fond of his wife and his work, always busy, the master of many pupils, earning much money, and spending it lavishly on his wife and on his collections. He bought paintings, engravings, and bric-à-brac at extravagant prices, and seems to have been regularly fleeced by dealers and money-lenders. Titus, the only child of his marriage that lived to maturity, was born in 1641, and Saskia died in June of the next year. In that year also he painted "The Night Watch," that puzzling picture which generations of critics have fought over, and which Capt. Cocq and his company, for whom it was painted, understood as little as the rest of the world. This was the beginning of the end. Rembrandt was becoming too original to be popular; and as time went on, and his work grew better and better, the public neglected him more and more. He shut himself up in his work, made his servant, Hendrickje Stoffels, his mistress, and let his finances take care of themselves. The crash came, and in 1657 he was declared a bankrupt, and sold up. From that time his life becomes more and more sordid and miserable. He had no money of his own, and could have none, and Hendrickje and Titus, in partnership, took charge of all his affairs, and made him an allowance. In 1661 he painted his grand picture of "The Syndics," perhaps the greatest of his masterpieces, but it does not seem to have been admired. It is likely that his eyes were beginning to fail, for his etchings cease altogether from this year, and from 1662 to 1664 there is no work at all from his hand. Hendrickje must have died about this time, though there is no record of it. Titus married and died, both in 1668, and in 1669 the old man himself followed him, an obscure pauper. He left a daughter by Hendrickje, who did not live long. In the next generation his posterity seems to have become extinct.

But if the known facts of his life may be thus briefly catalogued, it is very different with his work. In this also is he like Shakspere, that commentary and discussion on his art are endless, and that judgments on it have been passed which differ as the North from the South. One extreme is marked by the opinion of a painter of the next generation, Gerard de Lairesse, a contemporary and rival of Van der Werf, which Michel quotes as follows: "In his efforts to attain a mellow manner, Rembrandt merely achieved an effect of rottenness. The vulgar and prosaic aspects of a subject were the only ones he was capable of noting, and, with his red and yellow tones, he set the fatal example of shadows so hot they seem aglow, and colors which seem to lie like liquid mud upon the canvas." The other extreme is marked by the latter-day thick-and-thin admirers of the master, of whom M. Michel is to some extent one, who maintain that he was not only a great poet in light and shade, but a great colorist and a great draughtsman as well, and who lay all the blame of the ugliness of some of his figures upon the models. M. Michel is explicit and reiterative upon this point, and considers poor Saskia and Hendrickje responsible for the bandy legs, sprawling hands, and stumpy bodies of various Susannahs, Bathshebas, and Danaes. He expatiates on the difficulty of securing models in virtuous Holland, and explains that Rembrandt had to take what he could get. We must confess that this seems to us wilfully blind and shallow. Many of Rembrandt's portraits are as ill-proportioned as his nude studies, while the works of Terburgh and Metzu, his contemporaries, and of Ver Meer of Delft, but little younger, are there to show that there was grace and beauty and refinement in Dutch life at the time. When Rembrandt does show a sense of beauty, his worshippers cry aloud and call upon us to admire it; why should they not admit that more often he does not show it? Fromentin's remark, that Rembrandt saw nothing in life "but physical ugliness and moral beauty," still remains, as does so much else that he has written, the truest word of criticism upon that strange genius. In what else we have to say we pretend to do no more than to follow Fromentin's

illuminating critique, condensing it to suit the space at our disposal.

According to our teacher, then, Rembrandt was two men in one. On the one hand was the thoroughly trained Dutch painter of the time, the realist *par excellence*, the perfect technician, the observer, *l'homme extérieur*. Of this Rembrandt no better example could be cited than that known to all of us, "The Gilder." Here is no poetry, no idealism, no style, but a piece of work so thorough, so wonderful, so truly seen and rendered, that it rightly ranks among the masterpieces of the world. This is the Rembrandt who was the idol of the Dutch public, the man whom the compatriots of Terburgh adored. The other Rembrandt was an idealist, a dreamer of strange dreams, a worshipper of light. The "Supper at Emmaus" in the Louvre, recently recalled to us by Cole's engraving in the *Century*, and of which Michel gives a fine photogravure, is *his* work. The mysterious charm and power of such work as this is indescribable and incommunicable. For once a result seems to have been produced in art without any visible or analyzable means. Something supernatural seems before one, and one feels himself in the presence of a being who has really died and risen again. Yet in technical matters the picture is every way inferior to the portrait of "The Gilder." It is not particularly well drawn, and it is entirely without color. In its physical appearance the canvas is mean and insignificant—and its handling is timid and almost fumbling. With something to say that had never been said, how should he say it with assurance and in the current language of art?

As long as these two Rembrandts were separate, one was sure to please. But the dreamer insisted on having a hand in works where the observer only was needed, and the result was such an enigmatic picture as "The Night Watch." It is a splendid failure, and Capt. Cocq can hardly be blamed for preferring the accomplished mediocrity of Van der Helst. Again the two Rembrandts take up their different tasks, but the public confidence is shaken, and public favor is deflected upon more reliable artists who can be trusted not to dream *mal-apropos*. Shut off from public favor and public commissions, the dreamer is strengthened and the technician weakened. Strange experiments are made, violences are resorted to, methods become more and more startling and original. Late in life, once or twice only, the master-painter and the great imaginer coincide, and pictures like "The Syndics" are produced—pictures in which imagination and observation work together for the production of the perfect masterpiece; but it is too late, and the technique, perfect as it is, is no longer the smooth accomplishment of earlier days. No one comprehends and no one cares, and the great painter drops into his neglected grave.

A colorist, save once or twice, Rembrandt never was. Neither was he, properly speaking, a draughtsman. He was never sure of proportion, and had next to no sense of line. Even in his etchings he works, normally, with light and shade, and his outline, when he uses it, is never classic or intrinsically beautiful, but only picturesque and suggestive, giving the sense of light and shade even when these are entirely absent. Of chiaroscuro he is the supreme master. It is almost his only method of expression, and with it he expresses such strange things as were never, before or since, expressed in art, and makes us dimly see one of the greatest and most profoundly original minds in the world's history. Like all such minds, he had no artistic posterity, and worked almost pure harm to those who were influenced by him. Like Michelangelo, he was the ruin of his followers. The language of these solitary minds is fitted only for the expression of their own thoughts, and becomes empty verbiage in the mouths of imitators.

MOLTKE AS A WRITER.

Essays, Speeches, and Memoirs of Field-Marshal Count Helmuth von Moltke. The essays translated by Charles Flint McClumpha, Ph.D.; the speeches by Major C. Barter, D.A.A.G.; and the memoirs by Mary Herms. 2 vols. 8vo, 308, 239 pp. Harper & Bros. 1893.

MOLTKE'S reputation as a writer will always rest mainly on work which does not bear his name, on the general-staff histories of the great wars which he directed. The extent to which these books are really his may be judged from the account which Gen. von Verdy gives (in one of the volumes before us) of the preparation of the history of the Austrian war of 1866:

"As soon as a paragraph of the work was written, it was submitted to him [Moltke], and he began to revise it most carefully. In many cases the paragraph was completely remodelled by his expressing the events in his classical style, omitting what seemed to him unimportant, cancelling any repetition, summing up the most essential points in short sentences. . . . Thus changed and revised, the work went back to the same department, where it was again looked through in order that each sentence might correspond exactly with the historical truth. . . . If any cause was found for . . . criticism, the manuscript was returned again to the General, and this proceeding was continued till both parties were satisfied." (Vol. ii., p. 187.)

It is not surprising that Moltke's posthumous history of the Franco-German war proved to be merely an abridgment of the general staff history. He had done the work once, and felt no impulse to do it again on really different lines. His purpose was simply to put the facts in briefer and more popular form.

But while Moltke's miscellaneous writings will add little to his reputation either as strategist or writer, they will certainly not lessen it; and the essays, speeches, and biographical notes included in the present collection, like the volumes of letters and journals that appeared earlier, help us to know and understand the man. The most striking fact about the essays is that no one of them is devoted to the discussion of a technical military theme. They were written between the thirtieth and the forty-fifth years of his life—at an age, that is, when the nineteenth-century specialist is prone to feel that he has no time for matters outside his particular department. Moltke was certainly a specialist, and one of the most distinguished of our time; but we find that the revolutionary movements of 1830 do not impel him to publish his views on the conduct of the Dutch or the Russian campaign, but to study the political and social development of Belgium and Poland since the middle ages. The assertion made by Thiers in 1840 that the Rhine was the natural eastern boundary of France leads him to make a similar study in mediæval history and to collect the evidence against the French claim. His four years of service (1835–'39) as military adviser to the Sultan result in the publication of five short papers on the Eastern question; but here again the point of view is not that of the soldier, it is that of the economist and statesman. Economic, again, is his discussion of the choice of railway routes (1843). Costs and profits are the uppermost topics, military points of view are suggested, but briefly and in the second line.

Besides the interest which these essays possess as showing the wide range of Moltke's studies and thought, they contain occasional evidence of ideas which were to prove forces. In his paper on the Situation of the Ottoman Empire he anticipates by twenty years Bismarck's advice to Austria to transfer her centre of gravity to Pesth.

"But, unfortunately, we see the dissevered provinces and countries [of the Balkan Peninsula] under the influence of Russia, France, and England, but not under that of Germany. It is a striking fact that in Turkey we always hear of these three powers, but never of Austria; and yet the latter should be held in greater regard there, for it is Austria's sword which will some day be thrown into the scale to decide the fate of this empire." (Vol. i., p. 296.)

Again, in his paper on the Western Boundary of Germany, (1841), he speaks of the treaties of 1814–15 as follows:

"It was . . . dangerous to leave the French . . . in possession of German provinces and of so important a military-political outpost as Strasbourg. It was dangerous to make only Napoleon the scapegoat, to heap on him all the curse and to spare France itself: for history teaches that Napoleon only continued the wrong the French kings long before him had done us. Napoleon was not the first cause and France the second cause, but France was the first cause and Napoleon the second cause. Napoleon was a passing event, France was permanent. With France we had to do centuries before, and with France we shall have to do centuries to come." (Vol. i., p. 213.)

Thirty years later this was compressed into the saying of the German professor: "We are not fighting Napoleon III.; we are fighting Louis XIV."

Other opinions appear in the essays which were considerably modified in Moltke's later years. In 1841 he writes:

"We candidly confess our belief in the idea, on which so much ridicule has been cast, of a general European peace. Not that long and bloody wars are to cease from henceforth . . . —that is too much to expect; but . . . wars will become rarer and rarer because they are growing expensive beyond measure. . . . Has not the population of Prussia, under a good and wise administration, increased by a fourth in twenty-five years of peace? And are not her fifteen millions of inhabitants better fed, clothed, and instructed to-day than her eleven millions used to be? Are not such results equal to a victorious campaign or to the conquest of a province, with this great difference, that they were not gained at the expense of other nations, nor with the sacrifice of the enormous number of victims that a war demands?" (Vol. i, pp. 276, 277.)

Moltke's speeches in the Reichstag, a generation later, strike another note:

"Possibly, a later and more fortunate generation, a part of whose burdens we already bear, may hope to escape from the condition of armed peace which has already so long weighed Europe down. For us no such smiling prospect is, I fear, in store. An event so great, so historically important, as the reërection of the German Empire is scarcely to be compassed in a short space of time. That which we have wrested by force of arms in half a year we may have to protect by arms for half a century." (Vol. ii., pp. 107, 108.)

The days of cabinet wars, he says again (vol. ii., p. 136), have passed, but their place has been taken by popular wars:

"The passions of the populace, the ambition of party leaders, and public opinion led astray both in speeches and by the press—all these elements, are elements that may prove stronger than the will of those who rule. Have we not seen how even stock-exchange interests have kindled wars." (Vol. ii., p. 135.)

As early as 1841 Moltke had said that the fear "that, with the cessation of war, men

would lose their moral energy and unlearn the virtue of sacrificing their lives for an idea" was not altogether without foundation (Vol. i., p. 277). This fear seems to have taken stronger hold upon him in his later years, and perhaps his last thought was expressed in the answer which he is said to have made to the address of a Peace Society: "Gentlemen, universal peace is a dream, and not even a beautiful dream."

All the earlier essays are characterized by a directness of diction and a transparent simplicity of style which correspond to the innermost nature of the man himself. Figures are rarely used, but in a paper on the Eastern Question we find a very striking one: "The division of Turkey will be like the division of a diamond ring; the question is, who is to possess the most precious of solitaires, Constantinople?" (Vol. i., p. 273). But in the essays Moltke had not yet achieved that terseness for which he afterwards became famous, and which is so marked in his parliamentary speeches. Some of these consist of a simple sentence of two or three lines. The two longest might each have been delivered in twenty minutes. Their relative length is explained by the fact that he was speaking on important bills, that he was arguing against a probable adverse majority, and that he had many independent points to make. But, in spite of the brevity of these speeches, Moltke's meaning is always unmistakable, and his arguments are so fully developed that we feel, in reading, that the addition of more words would only weaken them.

Scarcely less remarkable is the infrequency of his speeches. Moltke sat for twenty-four years in the Reichstag and for nineteen years in the upper house of the Prussian Diet. He spoke but forty-one times in the former body and but three times in the latter. He never spoke simply because of his interest in the subject under debate; he certainly never spoke to win applause. He spoke only when it seemed necessary. Among his papers were found two different drafts of a speech which was prepared for the Customs Parliament in 1868. It was—or would have been—an admirable speech. It was never delivered; apparently because he was convinced that the motion which he intended to oppose would be defeated (as, in fact, it was) without any speech from him. If it be added that none of his speeches shows the slightest tinge of personal or party feeling; that he always assumed (without saying it, of course) that his hearers were open-minded and fair; that his effort was solely to make them see things which they had seemingly overlooked or to remove from their minds misconceptions due to error—we cannot wonder that his rare speeches were received by a house almost breathlessly silent, and that he was judged to be the most *effective* orator (in the literal sense of the word) in the German Parliament.

The speeches, with introduction and notes, occupy the first half of the second volume. The second half is chiefly made up of reminiscences of Moltke, furnished by relatives, friends, and colleagues. These are of very unequal value: they range from collections of nearly pointless anecdotes to really important contributions to a memoir of Moltke and to the history of his time. To the latter class belongs the following episode, narrated by Count Bethusy-Huc:

"In the spring of 1867 we sat in the Constituent Reichstag; the Luxemburg affair had come up again, and Bennigsen's motion was on the order of the day for the next day but one. . . . Gen. von Moltke, in a conversation with me in [one of] the ante-rooms . . . spoke as follows: 'After a war such as we have just had, no one can really feel a desire to have another, and no one can be farther from cherishing such a desire than I am. And yet I cannot but wish that the occasion given for a war with France were taken advantage of. Unhappily I regard this war as absolutely unavoidable within the next five years, and within this period the now indisputable superiority of our organization and weapons will be equalled by France. . . . The sooner, therefore, we come to blows the better. The present occasion is good. It has a national character, and ought therefore to be taken advantage of.'"

After a consultation with his political friends, Bethusy-Huc reported Moltke's words to Bismarck.

"Count Bismarck recognized the justice of Moltke's remarks, both from the political and military point of view, but declared that he could never bear the responsibility of bringing the misery of a war upon his country unless [it was] necessary (as in the case of the Austrian war), in defence of its vital interests and its honor. The personal conviction of a ruler or statesman, however well founded, that war would eventually break out, could not justify its promotion. Unforeseen events might alter the situation and avert what seemed inevitable.

"When I told the General this, next day, he answered: 'Bismarck's standpoint is unassailable, but it will cost us many human lives one day.'" (Vol. ii., pp. 204, 205.)

The translators of these volumes have done their work faithfully, but with different degrees of success. The rendering of the speeches is excellent; that of the reminiscences ("memoirs" gives a false impression) is good; but the English of the essays is often deplorable.

William Jay and the Constitutional Movement for the Abolition of Slavery. By Bayard Tuckerman. With a preface by John Jay. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1893.

A STUDY of Judge Jay in a single phase of his career was well worth making. Something more than this, though less than a full life, is to be found in Mr. Tuckerman's narrative and Mr. John Jay's summary; but in the main we have to do with the relations of the subject of this memoir to the abolition societies and the political anti-slavery parties. Great stress is laid upon his insistence on the incompetency of Congress under the Constitution to abolish slavery in the States, and no doubt his concern on this point led to the explicit acknowledgment embodied in the constitution of the American Anti-Slavery Society at Philadelphia in 1833. In the practice and aims, however, of those who formed that Society, there was nothing to make them hesitate to adopt Judge Jay's view. They had confined their political efforts, as he had done, to the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia and other United States territory, and to preventing the further extension of slavery. A year before, Garrison had denounced the Constitution for the immunity it gave to slavery in the States, and afterwards held himself and induced his followers to hold themselves disfranchised because unable to take oath to support such a constitution. Still, Judge Jay undoubtedly did good service by helping to make the lawfulness of the society's methods plain and unmistakable; and when it was attempted, in 1838, by a new adherent, Alvan Stewart, to revoke the article in question, he saved the day, to Garrison's satisfaction among others.

Judge Jay had scruples about the expediency of a national anti-slavery society, but, once founded, he lent it the great weight of his name and high character, and became the president of the auxiliary New York State Society. He manifested the conservatism of his profession by discountenancing appeals to the courts, as against the pro-slavery violations of the mail in New York, Charleston and at the South generally; and by deprecating the practice of passing "resolutions" which the shifting aspects and incidents of the agitation forced upon the various abolition bodies. One such casual resolution, which did no more than recommend testing the constitutionality of slavery by petition to Congress or in the Supreme Court, he curiously considered equivalent to asking Congress "to commit perjury" and to interfere with slavery in the States. So strong a feeling that the Constitution opened no way for general emancipation tended to keep Judge Jay at one with the Garrisonian wing of the abolitionists, who resisted the proposal "to change," in Jay's language, "the anti-slavery enterprise from a religious into a political one." "I doubt," he said in July, 1840, "the practicability of forming such a party; and I moreover question whether such a party would be consistent with our obligation as citizens." He objected to the singleness of its aim, in neglect of questions of "trade, the finances, internal improvements, foreign affairs, or the military power of the nation"; and he advanced many other valid considerations against it.

On the other hand, his conservatism was shocked by the free expression of opinion on subjects not directly associated with the anti-slavery cause by its chief promoter, and especially by the stand taken for the equal share of women in the labors and direction of the cause. Hence he joined the seceders in 1840, and became one of the managers of the really personal organization of Mr. Lewis Tappan calling itself the American and Foreign Anti-Slavery Society. To this he fondly looked "as a refuge for such abolitionists as had been expelled from the [American A. S.] Society by the faithlessness of those who had converted it into an instrument for spreading other than anti-slavery doctrines." The new society, by its constitution, stood pledged "carefully to abstain from all the machinery of party political arrangements in effecting [its] objects," but the very next year this pledge was almost unanimously stricken out in favor of "the maxim now promulgated in certain quarters, that the friends of immediate emancipation should labor to secure for themselves all the loaves and fishes in the gift of the republic—the power and emoluments *of every office*."

Meantime, Alvan Stewart had, more than almost any other man, drawn the "new organization" abolitionists into the Liberty party, and Judge Jay found himself voting for Birney in 1844. The second refuge proved no safer than the first, for, in 1845, he wrote to Henry B. Stanton complaining "of the strenuous efforts now making to change its character, and to convert it from an anti-slavery party into one for matters and things in general," beginning with Stewart's old heresy "that the Federal Government has the constitutional power to abolish slavery in the States," and ending with the later heresy "that women should exercise the right of suffrage and be eligible to office." In 1846 Jay wrote: "I shall leave the Liberty party whenever it makes abolition a pack-horse to carry favorite measures unconnected with slavery, whether those measures are of Whig or Democratic origin." The party was, however, already moribund if not dead, and Jay's standing for Senator in its name in 1845 appears to have been his last identification with any party, though he did not abate his consistent anti-slavery endeavor. We should have been glad of some light on his attitude towards

the doctrine imposed upon Free-Soilers and Republicans by the logic of the disunion abolitionists, viz., that the Constitution was an anti-slavery instrument; but in lieu of that we have his very courteous letter (in marked contrast to that of prominent Republican politicians) to T. W. Higginson and his fellow-disunionists of 1857. After pronouncing the Union a curse to the people of the slave and the free States alike, as well as to the unhappy bondmen whose chains it riveted, he said: "While I believe you are doomed to disappointment, I nevertheless rejoice in every exposure of the demoralizing influence of the Union. When the people of the North cease to idolize the Union, they will cease to offer on its altar their rights and their duties. . . . When all this happens the North will continue its Union with the South, and you yourselves will have no wish to see that Union severed."

Judge Jay retained, throughout, his connection with the Episcopal Church, whose unfaithfulness to the slave's cause he knew and persistently combated—in some minor issues with success. No abolition utterances on the awful shortcomings of the ecclesiastical bodies of the land exceeded some here cited from his pen, which may be summed up in two: "The church of the living God"—he means the self-styled church—"is the great buttress of slavery and caste in the United States" (the bulwark, in Birney's phraseology); "Our pro-slavery clergy, our negro-hating clergy, our slave-catching clergy are the most successful apostles of infidelity in the country." It was in accordance with Jay's sweet temper that while he could not imitate those (the so-called "come-outers") who refused to sit under such a clergy, and while he deplored the spiritual dangers of their course, he never indulged in abuse of them.

This blameless and most estimable man deserved the larger work contemplated by his son, whose ill-health vetoed the undertaking. What we get from Mr. Tuckerman lacks the accuracy and the grasp which we should exact of a veteran of the anti-slavery days. So far as Jay is allowed to speak in his own words, the book is a substantial addition to the sources of anti-slavery history; how much more so might it have been made if the store of MS. material implied on pp. 158-159 as available had been printed even without link or comment.

A Colony of Mercy; or, Social Christianity at Work. By Julie Sutter. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1893.

MANY persons, we fear, will be repelled from this book by the almost hysterical key in which it is pitched. A large part of it is taken up with ecstatic exclamations and pious rhapsodies, and, after the subject has been properly completed, a wild screed is added upon the agrarian question in Great Britain. But if we omit this digression upon a topic with which the writer is wholly incompetent to deal, and skip some of the sincere but inept religious effusions, we shall find matter which is well deserving of attention. In fact, as the beautiful story of the results attained by wise and devoted benevolence is revealed, we are moved to look upon the writer's lack of restraint with forgiving eyes; and although we could wish the facts presented in more systematic manner, we are glad to have them upon any terms.

The "Colony of Mercy," or Bethel, is in the immediate vicinity of Bielefeld in Westphalia, lying at the foot of the Sparrenburg, a stronghold of the counts of Lippe in former years. From the hill upon which the castle is placed, views are obtained over the ranges of the Teutoburger forest and the Weser mountains, the intervening country being the principality of Lippe-Detmold. Here in 1867 an institution for epileptics was founded by private benevolence, which has not only greatly increased but has gradually developed at its side a house for the training of deaconesses, from which 600 nurses have been sent out, a similar house for the training of deacons or brothers, a labor colony, and a workman's-home association. A farm-house was first acquired and four epileptic sufferers were provided with a home; but the work grew at once, and, under Pastor Bodelschwingh, who was called in 1872, it has assumed its present dimensions. There are now more than one hundred houses in which the epileptic sufferers are grouped in families, and the different enterprises now occupy one hundred and fifty houses in all. It is hardly necessary to say that useful work, physical or mental, is provided for all who are able to do it, and the trades of the carpenter, the mason, the tailor, the printer, the bookbinder, the basket-maker, the baker, etc., are actively prosecuted. An immense labor has been undertaken in reclaiming a barren waste in the neighborhood—a sandy surface underlaid at the depth of three or four feet with an impervious stratum which requires to be broken up before vegetation can flourish. To a remarkable extent this colony of epileptics has been self-supporting, but there has never been any lack of revenue from charitable offerings. Its success has led to the establishment of many similar institutions in Germany, and its methods deserve the study of all to whom the condition of a peculiarly helpless class appeals.

It is impossible to do justice, in our space, to the spiritual influences that have made this colony what it is. Even more than the insane the epileptic are repulsive and helpless. Their seizures are so distressing that mercy to themselves as well as to others requires them to live apart, and the hope of recovery is in most cases so small as to make it seem almost cruel to endeavor to protract lives of increasing suffering. Without love and sympathy no one can undertake the care of such sufferers, and love and sympathy are not to be had for wages. As we understand Miss Sutter, all service in this cause is without pay. Teachers, managers, nurses, patients, all live together as a great family, all receiving food, clothing, shelter, and provision for true wants, but none receiving pecuniary compensation, and none giving it except those who are able. In spite of the incessant manifestations of disease and the constant deaths, if we may trust this account, an atmosphere of cheerfulness, even of happiness, prevails, music is constantly heard, and an unquestioning faith in the mercy of God causes death to be regarded less as the natural end of their suffering lives than as the beginning of a more blessed state. Altogether Miss Sutter's picture is affecting in the extreme, and few can read of such cheerful self sacrifice as has been displayed here, and its beneficent results, without being strengthened in all kindly feeling.

We can barely hint at the extraordinary variety of collateral enterprises that have grown out of this home for epileptics. Among them are a retreat for the mildly insane and others for the incurable, a hospital for consumptive infants, a home for idiots, a refuge for fallen women, an orphan asylum, a reformatory for drunkards, and others literally too numerous to mention. But the "Labor Colony" and its complements, the relief-station and the wayfarer's home, deserve special mention on account of the distress now prevailing among the poor of our own country. Somewhat more than a dozen years ago Germany was suffering from a collapse of business, and the country swarmed with tramps. They were always fed and clad by Pastor von Bodelschwingh, but the results of this indiscriminate charity were so pernicious that he determined to take radical measures for treating the evil. He obtained a grant of funds from the province and founded an industrial colony, devoted principally to the reclamation of the barren waste already referred to. Thenceforth applicants for relief received it as wages, not as alms. The policy was not to give a breakfast for an hour's work, but to renovate the tramp externally, and, so far as possible, internally, by making him work until he had earned what he had received. The "colonist," in fact, is made to sign a contract to work for his board, although after a time ten cents a day is allowed him as a gratuity. But this is the limit, except for piece-work, and even these modest savings are paid over in such a way as not to be squandered. The aim is not to provide permanent occupation, but to prevent men out of work from being driven by despair to beggary and crime, and to put them in the way of getting remunerative employment. In spite of the fact that the colony is not self-supporting, the saving from the diminution of vagrancy more than outweighs the apparent loss. Labor-colonies upon this model now number some twenty-five in Germany, and their effectiveness is greatly increased by the fact that they are directed chiefly by private persons; and it is also increased by coöperation. In this way the antecedents of nearly every applicant for relief are investigated, and provision is made that his future movements shall be recorded. This is partly done through the relief-stations, of which we condense Miss Sutter's account.

Along the great high roads, she writes—north, south, east, and west—there are *Natural-Verpflegungs-Stationen*, at a distance from one another of half a day's march. The man in search of work, having obtained a kind of passport which is regularly *visé*, starts forth, perhaps from a labor-colony, and reaches his station at mid-day. There he gets a dinner, works all the afternoon, generally at wood-cutting, has his supper and a bed, and in the morning—unless it is Sunday—after getting breakfast resumes his travels. His destination being fixed, he may not deviate from the course prescribed in his ticket without forfeiting his claim to entertainment. These stations are employment-agencies, and if a man reaches the end of his course without finding work, he may be committed as a vagrant, or, if deserving, receive another certificate and resume his search. These relief-stations are maintained by law, and although it is scarcely ten years since the first was established, they number 2,000, and shelter on the average about 8,000 tramps every night. A grade above them are the *Herbergen zur Heimath*, or wayfarers' homes, where, for a trifling sum, any decent artisan is accommodated while wandering in search of employment. There are some 400 of these sustained by private benevolence, with accommodations for 13,000 guests, and they are said to be always full.

We state these details not because this book contains the most accurate account of the German system of poor relief, but because many will read a book of this kind who will not look at official publications, and there is enough here to suggest solutions for our own problems. It may be laid down as an axiom that our people are too kind-hearted to refuse to

feed tramps and give to beggars, unless it is demonstrable that proper relief for urgent wants is regularly provided. Their theories may be economically sound, but when they fear that a fellow-creature may starve or freeze to death if turned away, they are unwilling to take any chances. They would rather that ninety-nine guilty tramps should be fed than that one innocent one should go hungry. But the relief of tramps by private persons is not only an expensive but a dangerous exercise of charity. It directly increases vagrancy, and it results in an increase of crimes, frequently of the most revolting character. The losses suffered through incendiary fires have been so severe that many farmers do not dare to refuse a beggar for fear of having their buildings burned. The injury to railroad property through these vagabonds is enormous. Scarcely an accident occurs to a freight-train which does not kill some tramps who were "stealing a ride," and their other stealings are in the aggregate very large. Better regulation of this evil is a crying want of our country, and the German system seems to cover the ground. It is as impossible as it would be unjust to prevent men out of work from going forth to search for it; but it is neither unjust nor impossible to require those who need help to be identified and to submit to regulation. When this is done, and the money now spent in maintaining vagabonds is systematically applied, we can enforce prohibitions of begging. The evil will then be reduced to manageable dimensions.

An Old Master, and Other Political Essays. By Woodrow Wilson, Professor of Jurisprudence in Princeton University. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1893.

Prof. Woodrow Wilson gives us, in a small volume, five essays, four of which have already appeared in the pages of the *Atlantic* and *New Princeton Review*. The first of these lends its name to the volume, 'An Old Master,' and the Old Master is Adam Smith. This essay is a most appreciative and agreeable study of a great, brave, modest man, whose simplicity and unassuming reticence in his daily intercourse with his fellow-men seem strangely at variance with his boldness—his almost audacity—of conception and design whenever he took his pen in his hand. At this day, when Adam Smith is little more than a name, though still a respected and renowned name, this sketch is most acceptable.

On other subjects, "The Study of Politics," "Political Sovereignty," "Character of Democracy in the United States," "Government under the Constitution," Prof. Wilson writes with a facile pen—a too facile pen, many people may think, for there are subjects that demand a cautious pen which will record only guarded utterances. Prof. Wilson talks with his pen: it runs in a clear, fluent, unhesitating manner, and it throws off unguarded expressions as if they came in the warmth of animated conversation. It is an easy thing for him to write that "the English have transformed their Crown into a Ministry," and "have kept a strong executive without abating either the power or the independence of the representative chamber," while we, "*being under the spell of the Constitution*, have been unable to see the facts which written documents can neither establish nor change"; or that "the old, blunt, antagonistic veto is no longer needed" in England, yet "is needed here, however, to preserve the Presidency from the insignificance of merely administrative functions"; that the veto is "neither revisory nor corrective"; that it "is merely obstructive," "a simple blunt negation." But such seed, planted in the minds of many who will accept his conclusions as superior to their own knowledge, may bear very undesirable fruit.

Prof. Wilson knows, though many of his readers do not know, that the veto of the Crown has been obsolete for more than two centuries, and that there is no power that can revise or disapprove an act of Parliament. Yet he says:

> "In England the veto of the Crown has not passed out of use, as is commonly said. It has simply changed its form. It does not exist as an imperative, obstructive 'No' uttered by the sovereign. It has passed over into the privilege of the ministers to throw their party weight, reinforced by their power to dissolve Parliament, against measures of which they disapprove. It is a much-tempered instrument, but for that reason all the more flexible and useful."

Now, "the privilege of the ministers to throw their party weight"—whatever that may mean—"reinforced by their power to dissolve Parliament, against measures of which they disapprove," has not one element of the veto power. That the Opposition can frame a political measure and carry it through Parliament against the will of the existing Government is an impossibility. There never was a case where a ministry dissolved Parliament to prevent the passage of a bill of which they disapproved. The veto power is a supervision of legislative action lodged in some one who is outside of the law-making or (if it be preferred) the bill-making machinery of government; and a disapproval by the President is not "a simple, blunt negation," "merely obstructive," for the very plain reasons that the President is required to set forth his objections for the consideration of Congress, and if those objections are not deemed well taken, Congress can immediately pass the bill over the veto, the only restriction being that there must be a decisive majority in favor of the measure. A prime minister, on the contrary, is neither a President nor a King, but a person who is an integral part of the legislative machinery, and who has undertaken to carry on the government agreeably to the will of Parliament. When he fails to do so, the bargain is at an end, and out he goes. Such were the agreed terms of his employment. Occasionally he may say to Parliament, "You employed me to carry through this and that measure, or to manage the government on such and such lines of policy, and I have done so and am willing to continue to do so—it is not I, but you who have broken the compact; I appeal to the country"; and then, as the representative of the sovereign, he dissolves Parliament and orders a general election.

This "flexible and useful" veto power of an English ministry, which appears so superior to our own in the eyes of persons who are not "under the spell of the Constitution," then amounts to this: If the legislative power is not of the premier's way of thinking, he can influence and bully and intimidate members by threatening them with the pains and penalties of a new election; if, notwithstanding his threats, a sufficient number stand firmly by their convictions and refuse to pass one of his measures of which they disapprove, he can smash the existing government, legislative and executive, and plunge the country into the turmoil of one of our Presidential elections. That any intelligent person, American or English, can characterize such a *quasi* revolution, constitutional though it be, which may be precipitated on a country at any moment and by the will of one man, as "flexible and useful," and that he can regard it as superior to the quiet and orderly proceeding of the American veto, would be inconceivable if it were not in print. Such comments on constitutional systems will not affect the judgment of any man who has given the matter thoughtful attention, but they form most unfortunate seed to be sown in the minds of young American citizens.

The Diary of Col. Peter Hawker. With an introduction by Sir Ralph Payne-Gallwey, Bart. In two volumes with illustrations. Longmans, Green & Co.

Col. Peter Hawker was one of the most noted sportsmen and brilliant shots of his time. Moreover, he possessed the faculty of imparting a rare interest to all that he wrote, not only concerning the sports of the field, but in relation to his personal experiences in a wider sphere of action. Unlike most Englishmen of his epoch, he did not indulge in fox-hunting. He confined himself exclusively to the pursuit of upland game and of wild-fowl. Col. Hawker was a soldier who had served under Wellington. A wound in the thigh incapacitating him for active service, he devoted most of his leisure to fishing and shooting. He was a man of large wealth and the owner of a beautiful and extensive property. Thus equipped, and endowed with an inventive and ingenious mind, a tireless patience and perseverance, and a gluttony for slaughter, he attained to that apogee of some Englishmen's ambition of being the foremost gunner of his time.

In his forays against the wild life of the fields and waters, he proceeded upon military principles. He made careful maps of the territory over which he proposed to shoot. To his retainers, of whom he employed many, and to his brother gunners, he assigned positions carefully indicated upon his charts. All prepared, with markers in the tallest trees and his beaters in advance and on his flanks, he swept the country in his front. A dead shot and a remorseless one, nothing escaped him. On one occasion he determined to ravage the land of a certain Parson Bond. This theologian, having got wind of the proposed attack, carefully planted his territory with traps for the discomfiture of man and dog. The Colonel, however, was not to be caught napping. He made a personal reconnoissance, and, having ascertained the sites of all of the machines, marked them upon a map of the property which he had already constructed. A facsimile of this chart is reproduced in the first volume of his diary. Thus fortified, with his beaters, markers, and dogs he descended upon the parson and cleared the land of its game. Colonel Hawker's account of his subsequent controversy with this gentleman, who from a convenient perch had witnessed the triumphant march of the gunners, is most amusing.

Those portions of Col. Hawker's diary which relate to the sports of the field are by no means the most interesting. They are somewhat prolix and monotonous, and too much space is given to technical details and statistical notes. Where he is the more entertaining is in his account of travels at home and abroad. He has a keen sense of humor and a blunt, vigorous style of narrative which imparts a most delightful piquancy to all that he relates. His relations of a visit to Scotland and one to France immediately following the fall of Napoleon have, within their limitations, rarely been excelled. On his way to Scotland he halted at Gretna Green, where he had an interview with Joe Parsley, the blacksmith (so called) who united

eloping couples. This practitioner on occasions received fees of from $200 to $500 for tying the knot. He was, however, an intolerable drunkard, and had no sooner received his pay than he hastened to the grog-shop, where he remained until every penny was expended. Joe Parsley was not a blacksmith, as is commonly supposed, but a tobacconist.

On his visit to France, Col. Hawker was accompanied by Mrs. Hawker. Upon landing at Cherbourg they were met by the hospitable inhabitants with a volley of paving-stones; although they managed to escape the fury of the mob, the captain of the boat was seriously injured. This experience at Cherbourg was duplicated at many other points in France. The journey was a continual battle with sullen foes and wrangles with hotel-keepers, postillions, and officers of justice. The Colonel's narrative is a most vivid picture of the demoralized condition of the French at the time.

The egotism of Col. Hawker is on occasion very much in evidence; but this is lost sight of by the reader in the admiration which his absolute contempt for danger under any conditions inspires. His savage greed for killing game is lamentable, but this was before the days when any protest was made against the wanton slaughter of the wild life of the woods and waters. Apart from this, Col. Hawker was a man of much refinement. He was a musician of no little ability, and published a book of 'Instruction for the Best Position on the Piano-forte.' He was also author of 'The Journal of a Regimental Officer during the Recent Campaign in Portugal and Spain' (1810). Moreover, he was the inventor of several devices of value. His great popularity was owing to his 'Book of Instructions to Young Sportsmen.' It passed through twelve editions, and was for fifty years the recognized manual on guns and shooting, especially in that relating to wild-fowl.

Sunny Manitoba. By Alfred O. Legge. London: T. Fisher Unwin. 1893.

Mr. Legge states that his justification for writing this book is his desire to remove some of the prevailing misconceptions and convey accurate information about a much calumniated province of the British Empire. His endeavor to reëstablish Manitoba in the affections of English emigrants is based on the following favorable considerations. He believes—and there is good authority for this belief—that the yield of wheat increases as the northern limit is approached within which it can be grown at all; and he claims that Manitoba wheat excels in quality as well as in yield per acre. He praises the system of experimental farms conducted by the Government, which have been eminently successful in testing the merits and adaptability of different seeds and fertilizers, and have thereby greatly assisted the farmers. He quotes various cases which have come under his observation showing the remarkable results of a few years' farming by emigrants starting with little or no capital. And, finally, he says all that it is possible to say in favor of the climate.

Having exhausted his brief on this side of the case, he then proceeds to give some idea of the other side. He admits that the temperature runs to very high figures in the summer and very low ones in the winter, with a mean temperature for the year of about 32°, which seems to harmonize but coldly with the title of his book. He further confesses to a very deficient water supply, which renders a large part of southwestern Manitoba unfit for settlement, and is more or less felt in other sections. His remedy for this is an extensive system of forestry, to be carried on both by the Government and by individuals, with a view to increasing the rainfall—a plan from which, at best, results cannot be expected for many years. His general conclusion is, that those who see their way to a tolerable livelihood in England had better not emigrate to Manitoba, "because of the sacrifices involved." This is rather a lame and impotent conclusion, and will hardly be received with enthusiasm by our "much calumniated" friends across the border. In the present condition of agricultural and other pursuits open to young men in England, it is probably more difficult than ever before to make a tolerable livelihood, and it may be safely assumed that Englishmen will continue to cross the Atlantic, whether they settle permanently in Manitoba, or whether they follow a common Canadian custom—very annoying to Mr. Legge's patriotic feelings—and drift over the border into the Dakotas.

Mr. Legge has something to say about missionaries, and he finds that they meet with the same difficulties among the Canadian Indians as in other parts of the world. The Indian argument against Christianity has a familiar sort of sound: "If your Bible is true, why are the white men worse than the Indians? It is they who have taught us our worst vices."

The book has a number of excellent illustrations and a map of the province on a liberal scale. It is fairly well written, although Mr. Legge is fond of unusual words and peculiar spelling. A startling instance of the latter is the man "whose ambition *sores* above the log shanty"!

An Unknown Heroine: An Historical Episode of the War Between the States. By L. E. Chittenden. Richmond, Croscup & Co.

In comparison with the numerous important biographies, personal recollections, and still weightier historical documents that have grown out of the war, Mr. Chittenden's latest volume has a modest but yet significant part to play. As it deals almost entirely with private history, it is happily removed from the field of party controversy, and as it is the admiring and appreciative testimony of a former Union soldier to the bravery and humanity of a Southern woman, it displays a spirit of dispassionate generosity which carries the reader's feelings along with it. Clearer circumstantial evidence, indeed, to the inherent soundness of the "human heart by which we live," under whatever political creed it happens to have been nourished, it would not be easy to find between the covers of a book. Into the details of Mrs. Van Metre's sturdy heroism in her rescue from death of a wounded and abandoned Union officer, near Harper's Ferry, it is needless to go; the account of the Vermont officer's steadfast gratitude, and of his assistance to Mrs. Van Metre in finding her Confederate husband in a Northern prison, may also be left to the reader's curiosity. The letter to Mrs. Van Metre from Gen. Hitchcock, informing her of Secretary Stanton's order of release for her husband, in return for the preserved life of an enemy, offers, as here quoted, one of those pleasant incidents now and then to be met with which seem to prove for the nonce that poetic justice is not a fiction of the imagination, but a homely dweller among the stern realities of life.

The value of a book of this kind is quite independent of questions of literary form or finish. Its use is to give permanence and notoriety to an episode similar to many that must survive in the memories of persons still living on the borderland of North and South, the knowledge of which is unfortunately passing away with the lives of those who witnessed them. Whenever such a record does appear, it is highly desirable that it should be disseminated in all quarters where sectional feeling is still in vogue, or wherever there are individuals to be found with unreconstructed opinions upon the subject of the war. Carefully read, it may, in a quiet and unobtrusive way, do much towards making felt the oneness of our national life, and can hardly fail in helping to neutralize the efforts of the sham patriotism which seeks to make political capital by dragging forth the issues of a dead and buried strife.

Utility of Quaternions in Physics. By A. McAulay, Lecturer in Mathematics and Physics in the University of Tasmania. Macmillan & Co. 1893.

When a man has acquired a considerable reputation for intellectual force and attainments, he begins to find people hanging upon his lips and adopting every proposition he may lay down; and, thereupon, being human, he straightway begins to talk about things concerning which he is not qualified to form an opinion. In that way, Maxwell, in his 'Electricity and Magnetism' (§10) said: "I am convinced that the introduction of the ideas, as distinguished from the operations and methods, of Quaternions will be of great use to us in all parts of our subject"; which is as much as to say that he would adopt the addition-process of multiple algebra, without its multiplication-process; and it is amazing what an influence this dictum has had in preventing men from studying quaternions. Yet in truth Maxwell was not enough versed in the subject to know what the ideas of quaternions are. Everybody who has ever exhibited any mastery of quaternions has, we believe without a single exception, pronounced Maxwell's opinion frivolous and superficial. Mr. McAulay writes to demonstrate that it is so, and to convince mathematicians of the high value of quaternions as the *calculus* which it essentially is, and not merely as involving a good idea, and especially of the high value of this calculus in the study of physical problems. We hold this thesis to be sound; but we are sorry to say we fear this book will do little to bring men into the way of truth. There is a sort of an egotistic spirit, an arbitrary self-will, displayed in it that is far from the quality best adapted to the purpose of persuasion. Its innovations in notation are confusing and quite inadmissible. Worse still, the reasoning is in many places decidedly obscure, and often quite needlessly intricate. We can but agree with Prof. Tait, the first of living quaternionists, that some sections of the book are veritable models of "how not to do it." Moreover, Mr. McAulay does not seem to be as familiar with the works of Hamilton as it behooves an apostle of quaternions to be.

Yet, with all these serious faults, the work is not useless, and as it has probably not stood in the way of the publication of any other, we are glad to get it. Though it will not convert the scoffer, it here and there offers suggestions which disciples of Hamilton will receive with satisfaction.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Standard Dictionary of the English Language. Vol. I. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $12.

Atwood, G. E. Complete Graded Arithmetic. Part I. 45 cents. Part II. 85c. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.

Baden Powell, B. H. Land Revenue and its Administration in British India. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Broughton, L. Estoppel by Matter of Record in Civil Suits in India. Oxford: Clarendon Press: New York: Macmillan.
Bussing, C. F. Canned Foods. Retail Grocers' Publishing Co.
Cheney, J. V. Ninette: A Redwoods Idyl. San Francisco: William Doxey.
Dixon, W. M. English Poetry from Blake to Browning. London: Methuen & Co.
Franqueville, Le Cte. de. Le Système Judiciaire de la Grande Bretagne. 2 vols. Paris: J. Rothschild.
Gray, W. C. Camp Fire Musings: Life and Good Times in the Woods. Randolph.
Hooker, J. D., and Jackson, B. D. Index Kewensis. Part II. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Huxley, Prof. T. H. Science and Education: Essays. Appletons. $1.25.
Jackman, W. S. Number Work in Nature Study. Part I. Chicago: The Author.
Kukula, R., and Trübner, K. Minerva: Jahrbuch der Gelehrten Welt. 1893—1894. Strassburg; Trübner: New York: Westermann.
Lowell, J. R. A Fable for Critics. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 30 cents.
Lummis, C. F. The Spanish Pioneers. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Margolis, M. L. An Elementary Text-book of Hebrew Accidence. Cincinnati: Hebrew Union College; New York: G. E. Stechert
Masson, Frédéric. Napoléon et les Femmes. 9th ed. Paris: Ollendorff: New York: Christern.
Moehler, J. A. Symbolism; or, Exposition of the Doctrinal Differences between Catholics and Protestants. Scribners. $2.50.
Mozoomdar, P. C. Heart-Beats. Boston: G. H. Ellis. $1.50.
Neville, Ella H., Martin, Sarah G., and Deborah B. Historic Green Bay. Green Bay, Wis.: The Authors. $1.25.
Noll, Augustus. How to Wire Buildings. C. C. Shelley.
Ostrogorski, M. The Rights of Women. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.
Paul, Kenneth. The New Minister. A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.
Payne, E. J. Voyages of Elizabethan Seamen. First Series. 2d ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.40.
Platt, C. A. Italian Gardens. Harpers. $5.
Rand, Rev. S. T. Legends of the Micmacs. Longmans, Green & Co.
Rearden, T. H. Petrarch, and Other Essays. San Francisco: William Doxey.
Ricks, George. Object Lessons and How to Give Them. First and Second Series. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. Each 90 cents.
Rouge, Le Vte. Jacques de. Géographie Ancienne de la Basse-Egypte. Paris: J. Rothschild.
Scribner's Magazine, 1893. 2 vols. Scribners.
Seeley, C. S. The Lost Canyon of the Toltecs. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Seeley, J. R. Goethe, Reviewed after Sixty Years. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Sheppard, Elizabeth. Rumour. 2 vols. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
The *Overland Monthly*. July—Dec., 1893. San Francisco: *Overland Monthly* Publishing Co.
Thoreau, H. D. Spring. Excursions. Miscellanies. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Each $1.50.
Tozer, Rev. H. F. Selections from Strabo. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Transactions of the Royal Historical Society. New Series. Vol. VII. Longmans, Green & Co.
Wheatley, H. B. Pepys's Diary. Vol. III. London: George Bell & Sons: New York: Macmillan. $1.50.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 11, 1894.

The Week.

THE tariff debate has begun at last. Mr. Wilson's opening speech is of a very high order. He begins by showing what has become of the vast surplus left in the Treasury by the first Cleveland Administration. The cash balance in the Treasury at that time was $185,000,000. This was the amount that Secretary Windom acknowledged to have received from Secretary Fairchild. Where is it now? What has become of an *annual* surplus of $105,000,000? Why is the Government confronting a deficit of $28,000,000, or $50,000,000, or some other unknown amount, notwithstanding the fact that the sinking-fund appropriation, amounting to nearly $50,000,000, has been dropped from the public accounts? Mr. Wilson does not indulge in any railing accusations on this subject, but points out the undeniable fact that the present strained condition of the Treasury is not due to the party or the policy that he represents. He shows, too, that the arrangement of the national finances under the Republican régime of the past four years has been such as not only to deplete the Treasury but to increase the taxes on the mass of the people, and to create bounties and privileges to particular classes.

Looking at these particular interests, and especially at those of wool, coal, and iron ore, Mr. Wilson makes an unanswerable argument in favor of putting all of these articles on the free list and of reducing correspondingly the duties on the articles into which they enter. The great merit of Mr. Wilson's speech is the fearlessness with which he attacks these intrenched shams. He shows how they have grown bolder and more impudent with the lapse of time, until everybody who is protected at all thinks that he ought to have a prohibitory duty, so that the consumer shall not buy anything except at his shop. It is upon this beautiful theory that a duty on coal is still demanded. Nobody considers coal-mining an infant industry. Nobody pretends that coal can be mined more cheaply in Nova Scotia than in this country. Yet we are asked for a duty on coal that will enable railroads to carry it from the western slope of the Alleghanies to the eastern boundary of Maine, and this in the name of protection. This is only one of the monstrosities of the present system which Mr. Wilson has struck in the face. The value of his speech consists more in its spirit than in its detailed analysis. It assures us that the bill which he has presented is to be passed without unnecessary delay, and in spite of the new non-voting tactics adopted by the Republicans. There is some danger of the latter making themselves ridiculous. If they persistently efface themselves from the list of yeas and nays, the public may forget that there is any such party in the House.

The letter of Mr. Andrew Carnegie on tariff reform which the *Tribune* published on Monday, is something like the report of the Tariff Commission of 1882-1883. That report was in part the work of H. W. Oliver, jr., Mr. Carnegie's fellow-laborer and capitalist in the iron and steel trade, and almost as distinguished as he. Mr. Carnegie now stands where Mr. Oliver stood ten years ago. Both maintain that it is not a mere blind, unreasoning outcry that leads to the political movement for lower duties, but that there is a sound conservative sentiment at the bottom of it which ought to be respected. They agree also in thinking that American industry, even from the protectionist standpoint, has more to gain than to lose by acquiescing in a moderate measure like the Wilson bill or the Tariff-Commission bill of 1883 than in an unceasing battle and the uncertainty which attends it. Upon this point Mr. Carnegie is very strong. The Democrats, he says, if allowed to pass their bill, would not attack their own tariff. Some years of peace would be secured, and that would be worth far more than a temporary victory to be followed by a new agitation. Of course the *Tribune* is greatly disturbed by this view, because it wants a tariff for politics only.

It has already been announced that the Carnegie iron and steel works have taken the place formerly held by the Britishers as bugaboos to the American manufacturers. In other words, the Carnegies have so far outstripped all their domestic competitors in the completeness and perfection of their machinery that the latter need protection against Carnegie rather than against John Bull. This is especially true in Pittsburgh, where we are told that the condition of the poor and of the unemployed is rendered worse every day by the continued operation of the Carnegie rolling-mills. The reason is that he does work at such low rates that other mills cannot make any money. This may be true, but the tariff supplies no remedy for such a condition. It is a condition which has its parallel in many other places and trades. Confining our present view of it to the iron and steel trade, there is no room for doubt that this country can hold its own with Great Britain or any other nation on terms of equality as regards the principal products, and that the tariff no longer has any protective element in it except as to a few specialties. Nobody who has to compete with Carnegie need fear competition with anybody in England.

The latest Hawaiian news leaves our annexationists with their thirst for blood still unslaked. Minister Willis's quiet "Good-day, gentlemen," at the close of his conference with the provisional government, was an indescribably base betrayal of those who had their gory headlines and their articles of impeachment all ready. In his statement he regretted the delay which had marked the action of the United States, but truthfully said that it had been unavoidable. If the decision which he communicated to the provisional government on December 19 could have been made on March 19, or even on April 19 or May 19, there is no doubt that it would have been speedily acquiesced in. At that time the attitude of all parties in Hawaii was that of awaiting the finding of the President of the United States as arbitrator. But the lapse of time necessary for the President's full and patient investigation left opportunity for the provisional government to strengthen itself so that it is not surprising that it should now decline to relinquish power. On what grounds it bases this refusal will not be known, apparently, until President Dole's answer reaches Washington. Meanwhile, Minister Thurston, who left this country with the expressed determination to set up an independent Hawaiian republic, now announces that nothing of the kind will be attempted. The present "semi-American government" will be continued. That is a good phrase. The "American" part of the government consists in owning the land and being on the official pay-rolls, and the "semi" part consists in denying the right of suffrage, in taxing the majority without allowing them representation, and in setting up an oligarchy by the aid of a standing army and calling it a republican form of government.

We take pleasure in noting the *Outlook's* denial that it holds to "one code of ethics for individuals and another for nations." It now tells us that "the analogy between the nation and the individual is perfect," in the sense that "if the nation has done a wrong, it ought to be ready to rectify that wrong." But it goes on to say that the analogy is unsound both in logic and in morals in the Hawaiian business, "because

the nation gave Mr. Cleveland no authority to determine whether the wrong had been perpetrated, or to set it right." What this means, unless it be that the Hawaiian revolution of January, 1893, was not an issue in the Presidential election of November, 1892, we confess we cannot see. There is no question that the nation gave Mr. Cleveland the Presidency, and with it the constitutional right and duty to initiate or withdraw treaties, appoint and receive ministers, and in general direct our foreign and diplomatic policy. The *Outlook* does not specify, and cannot, a single particular in which the President has gone beyond the powers given him by the Constitution, yet it talks as glibly as the partisan press of his "usurpation of power." That appears to us to be unsound both in logic and in morals.

The Rev. C. M. Hyde of Honolulu, "the only resident missionary of the A. B. C. F. M.," whose treatment of Father Damien brought down on him the scathing comments of Robert Louis Stevenson, says, in his letter to Mr. Blount, that his instructions are, "to induce in the Hawaiians more of the sentiments of personal independence and self-reliance, and to develop that strength of character which shall enable them to withstand the unfavorable influences which have hitherto depressed them, and still exist, from their contact with so large a foreign population." He has been salaried for this work ever since 1877 by the A. B. C. F. M. It is a work which, we need hardly say, would require infinite tact, deep sympathy with the people, thorough comprehension of their character on its best side, and a style of living which would be an assurance of disinterestedness. All these qualifications are apparently wanting in Mr. Hyde's case. He lives in a large and comfortable house, which, as Mr. Stevenson says, is "a cause of mocking in the streets of Honolulu." This house, too, he admits, was supplied by the capitalistic class of foreigners, or the "missionary element," which the native Hawaiians regard as their enemies and despoilers.

That there must be some foundation for this prejudice, we judge from the fact that while Americans and Europeans own 1,052,492 acres of the land of the country, the natives own only 257,457, and the 861,800 acres left to the Government is mostly of poor quality. The monthly pay-roll of the provisional government, too, before they began to weed out, showed that exactly the same sum was paid to American officials as to twice that number of native Hawaiian officials. Such facts as these may be accounted for on grounds not discreditable to the foreigners—although the experience of mankind is against this view—but they naturally keep alive a deep distrust, in the native mind, of the "missionary element." Under these circumstances what are we to think of the policy of sending, at the expense of American Congregationalists, "to induce in the Hawaiians more of the sentiments of personal independence and self-reliance," etc., a man who lives among and makes common cause with those whom they regard as their enemies, and—this is the worst of it—who abuses publicly the people he is sent to evangelize, denounces their manners and morals, and belittles their intellectual capacity? It may be well to have this done, but think of its being done by a salari d missionary. That he has succeeded in retaining his place so long under such conditions shows how much the machinery of the American Board needs overhauling. The Board settled, or rather agreed to leave unsettled, the question of the future of the heathen in the next world. We think it would be well now to examine the mental attitude of the living heathen towards its agents.

The Rev. W. L. Sheldon sent out 500 letters to employers of labor in St. Louis, asking them the following questions.

"(1.) What has been the average number of your employees in ordinary times at this season of the year?

"(2.) How many have you in your employ now?

"(3.) How much of a reduction in wages has been made in your line of business?

"(4.) What percentage of your employees do you think have been accustomed to save something from their wages for a future emergency?

"(5.) Do you think conditions are growing better or worse?"

To these letters he received 254 answers, from every kind of trade and business. To the first two questions the answer was 47,049, and the decrease in this number owing to the financial crisis or anything else was 6,938. Five establishments only reported themselves as having "shut down." In the great majority there had been no reduction in wages. About 11,000 to 12,000 out of 40,000 are supposed to save something out of their wages. This is the kind of work which ought to have been done here long ago by somebody. We dare not say that the condition of St. Louis is a fair specimen of that of other cities, but if it be, it will be readily seen that the situation is not as bad as it has seemed.

Judge Dean of the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania rendered an interesting decision last week on the question of boycotting. There was a memorable strike of the building trades of Pittsburgh in 1891, which brought building operations there to a practical standstill for two months over the question of nine hours' wages for eight hours' work. Most of the local dealers in building materials entered into an agreement not to sell materials to contractors who gave employment to strikers. One contractor thus deprived of supplies brought suit to test the question whether such an agreement constituted an illegal boycott. In the lower court he secured a verdict of $1,500. This the Supreme Court reverses. Judge Dean points out that, while the strike of the laborers referred to, and their efforts to prevent men from working, would have been an indictable offence under the common law in Pennsylvania, acts passed by the Legislature in 1869, '72, '76, and '91 gave the men a right to strike, and to prevent others from working except by the use of force. The court reasons thus:

"The moment the Legislature relieved one class, and by far the larger number of citizens of the commonwealth, from the common-law prohibitions against combinations to raise the price of labor and by a combination the price was raised, down went the foundation on which common-law conspiracy was based as to that particular subject."

Furthermore, the deduction is made that "however unchanged may be the law as to combinations of employers to interfere with wages where such combinations take the initiative, they certainly do not depress a market when they combine to resist a combination to artificially advance price." The meaning of all this in simple words is, that it is a poor rule that will not work both ways, and that when labor organizations appeal to the law-makers for some special provision in their interest, they must not complain if the courts extend the same protection to employers.

The latest action of the striking Danbury hatters, who recently expressed their mortal dread of being forced into slavery if they went back to work, is to pass resolutions against any of their weaker members who may be induced to desert their ranks. Their threat "not to speak to nor associate with any such persons" might be endured with Christian resignation, one would think, but they go further and declare:

"That, while living within and not breaking any of the laws of the State or of the United States, we will endeavor by all proper means to make the lives of such persons in this town so unpleasant that they will seek their abode elsewhere, in a place filled with their own kind."

This seems indiscreet in those who are appealing to the public to prevent them from falling into slavery. They never, no, never, will be slaves, but they have no objection whatever to being slave-drivers and cracking their whips over those whose one offence is that they want to support themselves by honest and free labor.

In discussing last week the ballot laws which have been enacted in thirty-six States of the Union, we said that in nineteen of them the Massachusetts method of arranging the names of candidates in

alphabetical order in groups under each office had been followed. As the laws were originally passed this was the case, but within the past year or more in five of these laws the alphabetical order has been abandoned, and the party-column order adopted in its place. The States making this change are Vermont, Wisconsin, Washington, North Dakota, and South Dakota. The list of States should stand, therefore, as concerns the blanket ballot, as follows: With alphabetical order, 14; with party column, 19. Of the three remaining States with ballot laws, New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut, all of which have separate party ballots, the two former are likely to change to the blanket ballot this year —whether to alphabetical order or party column remains to be seen.

Municipal elections were held in the province of Ontario last week, and at the same time a plébiscite was taken on the question of prohibition. The vote was not on the adoption of any form of law, but for the purpose of determining whether the people desire the Legislature to enact a prohibitory statute. The result was an overwhelming majority in favor of prohibition, estimated as high as 100,000 in the whole province. Not only country villages but cities voted in the affirmative, the majority in Toronto being more than 2,000. In these elections, for the first time in the history of the province, women possessing certain property qualifications had the privilege of voting on the liquor question, but only a small minority of those thus qualified—1,136 out of about 5,000 in Toronto—went to the polls. The majority for prohibition throughout the province was so great that the Legislature can hardly fail to enact it.

Despatches from New Zealand give the details of the first parliamentary elections within the British empire held on a mixed (male and female) franchise. The New Zealand women, as a new addition to the electorate, have, as a body, confirmed the political opinions of the men by whom they had hitherto been represented, and to this extent their vote may be called conservative. While the data at hand make it impossible to discern minor influences due to the fresh body of voters, there is no trace whatever of the reactionary effects which, it is commonly assumed, women will import into politics. The New Zealand Government which has just received endorsement is the most radical that the colony has had for many years; the ministry were returned with fifty-four members in a House of seventy-four, of whom four are Maoris, or native members; thirty-three of the old members failed of reëlection, and this modification of the lists suggests that the new electors have taken their duties seriously, and exercised judgment in the selection of candidates. Among the issues of the election were secular education and local option, but even on the liquor question the women have shown much less partisanship than was expected, as but twenty-four of the fifty-four Government members are known to be in favor of a direct veto on licenses by a majority vote of the local electors. It is worth mention also that but one prominent member of the Opposition failed to retain his seat. To quote the London *Times:* "The result decisively scatters any fears of a sex vote, and testifies to the discrimination and wholesome division of opinion of the new electorate."

The wrath of the anarchists in Europe is being made to work for international amity and peace in unexpected ways. When the President of the French Chamber was able to read despatches of sympathy, on the occasion of the bomb-throwing, from the Speaker of the House of Commons and from Government officials in Italy and Austria and Switzerland, while Emperor William's unofficial expression of horror at the crime was in the newspapers, the general applause witnessed to a spirit of concord between the nations quite unwonted. Already there is talk of an international movement or agreement for the suppression of dynamiters, though it is doubtful if this will come to anything more than a better understanding in regard to the speedy extradition of persons charged with anarchistic crimes against life and property. The important thing is, the growing consciousness that the whole social order upon which modern civilization rests is involved, and that this rises in importance far above any international feuds or jealousies. The anarchists themselves cannot complain of this result, as one of their tenets is the folly of war. They have, in fact, brought upon themselves much obloquy, as men "without a country," because they have argued that the reconstitution of society after their ideas was more important than anything that passed by the name of patriotism, and because their "catechisms," specially prepared for distribution in the barracks, have advocated the refusal to obey orders calling upon the soldiers of one country to attack those of another.

Although Mr. Gladstone's age makes him now one of the wonders of the century, there is no question that it is the main cause of the slow progress of legislation in England. It is generally acknowledged that if he were dead or disabled, the Liberal party would undergo at least a temporary eclipse, and probably a permanent division. The Radicals and Labor party would split off from the old Whigs and the "gentlemen," and the Tories would have execution of them for at least one Parliament. It is very questionable whether the English Radicals care greatly about home rule, but they cannot dispense with the eighty Irish votes, and they are overawed by the Premier into believing home rule to be a necessary Radical measure. How long they would continue to believe it after Mr. Gladstone's withdrawal, is a question not easily answered. The Conservatives see all this, of course, clearly enough, and probably exaggerate Mr. Gladstone's importance to his party, and they have, therefore, ever since 1886 made delay and obstruction the keystone of their policy. They kept the last Parliament sitting almost to the last moment, obstructed the home-rule bill on pretence that they wished longer time to debate it, and are now obstructing the parish-councils bill, undoubtedly with the expectation that any day may bring the news of the premier's death or break-down. The bill is really not a contentious measure. Although Lord Salisbury has thrown some ridicule on it, the bulk of the Conservatives are actually well content to let it pass. The power it gives to the villages is now a matter of comparative indifference to the landholders, who have already lost most of their influence in the country through the ballot and the county-councils bill, and above all through the decline in the value of land.

Their persistent opposition to the bill is, therefore, aimed in reality at the home-rule bill, which may be introduced in the spring if this is put out of the way. Or if the home-rule bill is not introduced in the spring, there may be a dissolution in the early summer, and the Grand Old Man may go to the country with such feathers in his cap as the employers'-liability bill, just defeated by the Lords, and the parish-councils bill. Should he, with these two bills and the home-rule bill before the country, win another election, the passage of the home-rule bill would be almost a certainty, because the chief argument against it—that the country had not considered it—would be no longer available. It is not to be wondered at, then, that the Conservatives should be "playing against an old man's life," as Mr. Gladstone has more than once said they were. His own knowledge of this fact makes more astonishing than ever his strength of nerve. To sit night after night opposite to a large body of men who are watching eagerly for the slightest symptom of weakness or infirmity, and to whom his death would be the most welcome news they could receive, must be an ordeal from which youth and perfect health might well shrink. To face it successfully at eighty-four, with the cares of an empire resting on his shoulders, is probably the most wonderful display of vitality recorded in history.

THE NATIONAL FINANCES.

THE comparative statement of receipts and expenditures of the United States during the month of December and also during the half year is as follows:

	1892.	1893.
RECEIPTS.		
December	$33,[illegible]963	[illegible]22,512,027
Half year	194,251,040	157,[illegible]5,444
EXPENDITURES.		
December	$33,157,999	$30,058,260
Half year	190,102,830	184,379,773

This shows a shortage in revenue, as compared with last year, of nearly $11,000,000 for the month, and of more than $42,000,000 for the half year, while expenditures have varied less than $1,000,000 in the half year.

The public-debt statement, issued simultaneously, shows a net cash balance of $90,375,555, all of which, except $9,483,955, is the remains of the greenback redemption fund, which was accumulated by a special sale of bonds in 1877–8 for a particular purpose. In other words, the Government is now meeting its daily expenses in part with money borrowed at 4 per cent. interest. No sophistry can disguise this fact, nor can anybody pretend or imagine that new taxes can be put in working order in time to relieve the Treasury or to stop this shrinkage of the gold reserve. On the contrary, there is every reason to believe that the deficit of revenue for the full year will reach $76,000,000, and that the gold reserve will be reduced to $35,000,000 on the 30th day of June, unless remedial measures are taken meanwhile. Fortunately there is no outflow of gold at the present time, and, therefore, little danger of alarm in the public mind. If there should be such an outward movement, it would be necessary for Congress to act at once to replenish the Treasury by some form of borrowing, and, indeed, that resort, in our opinion, cannot be long delayed.

The facts were presented to Congress by Secretary Carlisle on the 19th of December. There was not time to do anything before the holiday recess, yet the interval might have been well employed by the committee on ways and means in coming to some decision on the points presented in the secretary's report. Instead of this a majority of the Democratic members have voted in favor of an income tax of 2 per cent. on individual incomes above $4,000, and also for a tax on the income of corporations and an increase of the tax on cigarettes, the estimated receipts of all of which are about $42,000,000. Shall this internal tax bill be attached to the tariff bill, or be left to make its own way on its own merits—to stand or fall by itself? Upon this point we have the very decided opinion that if it is patched upon the tariff bill, it will pull that measure down and defeat both. Internal-revenue bills and tariff bills have in almost every instance been passed separately, yet there are precedents for tying them together. The tariff bill of 1883 was one of the latter kind, but it became so, not by the choice of the two houses, but through a parliamentary tangle. If the committee should attempt to carry an income tax on the back of a tariff bill now, it is probable that a number of Democrats would deem themselves absolved from any party obligation to support a measure thus weighted, and would vote against the whole, in obedience to the demands of their constituents. This would disintegrate the party even if it did not defeat the bill, whereas if it should defeat the bill altogether, it would kill the party. The people would say that the Democrats had been preaching tariff reform for twenty years, and had succeeded in making it the distinctive if not the sole issue in politics, and had finally carried the country on that issue, but were not able, even with the House, Senate, and Executive in their hands, to carry their ideas into effect. What else could follow but the trampling of such a party under foot?

Since the Government really has no money of its own at present, but is living on the greenback redemption fund, the first step to be taken would seem to be some provision for raising a loan in an honorable way. Upon this point our esteemed contemporary the Cincinnati *Southwest* thinks that there would be danger in the plan of giving the secretary of the treasury power to issue exchequer bills, or interest-bearing Treasury notes, at any time, to meet shortages of revenue. It says:

> "During Mr. Cleveland's first administration it was a surplus of a hundred millions, and now it is a deficit of similar magnitude that we have to cope with. For almost a generation our Congresses have never cared a straw whether our revenues balanced our expenditures. With the almost irresistible energy which every Congressman develops in the direction of extravagant appropriations for his 'deestrict,' we fear that it would be bad policy to make running into debt so easy."

We think that all experience since the close of the war shows that the danger lies in the existence of a surplus, not in the power to borrow money. It was the great surplus left by Mr. Cleveland's first administration that incited the pension-agents and contractors for public buildings and internal improvements and everybody else to "go for it." They did go for it and they made short work with it. They emptied the treasury in short order. Now, does anybody suppose that this looting would have taken place if there had been nothing to loot? Would the Billion-Dollar Congress have dared to pass those bills if it had been necessary to borrow the money to pay the appropriations? Assuredly not. There is nothing that the American people are so much averse to as borrowing, and there is nothing that they give so little heed to as spending a surplus.

THE GRAVER EVILS OF THE INCOME TAX.

THE discussion of the proposal to levy an income tax on all incomes above $4,000 has mostly proceeded on the lines of expediency, fiscal and partisan. Looked at solely from that point of view, the proposed tax cannot be defended, as it is perfectly certain to prove inquisitorial in operation and wasteful and diminishing in collection, while nothing can be clearer than that it would be fatal to any party making itself responsible for it. But there are other aspects of the matter which are far more important to those who watch our social and political development with anxiety, and which, to them, are decisive of the case.

That it would be a piece of unblushing class legislation even its advocates do not deny. Indeed, that very fact is what commends the tax to them. They want to get at a class of men who, they say, do not contribute to the Government in proportion to their means, and to put the screws on them. They assert that the tax would be highly "popular," and thereby, as Congressman Cockran has truly said, confess that it is unjust. It could be popular only because it appeared to the masses to relieve them and to make a comparatively few citizens sweat. That is class legislation of the most vicious sort. Beside it the bounty and protective laws which we already have, and which the present Congress was elected to abolish, are innocence and equity personified. The Democratic party floated into power on the wave of indignation which the favoritism of Republican legislation had aroused, and if it now proceeds to give us laws of which the little finger is thicker than the loins of tariff and bounties, it will find, unlike the poet, that there are many who fear the wagging of an ass's ears, and will have neither part nor lot with it.

The ever-increasing demands of the protected classes would be nothing compared to the accelerating evils of such socialistic legislation. To set off by themselves a class of citizens who may be considered fair game for demagogues, would be an experiment of which the issue could only be disastrous. If the people having an income above $4,000 can be spoliated to the extent of 2 per cent., why not 5 or 10 or 50? What check would there be on national extravagance when the wealth of the entire country could be drawn upon without limit? And, conversely, if the Democratic party has suffered and our politics been corrupted by the large money contributions of the protected manufacturers to campaign funds, what an orgy of vote-buying and legislature-purchasing would be sure to result when all the large property-owners of the country were driven to lavish political outlay in order to protect themselves from spoliation! What could ballot-reform or corrupt-practices acts

do to prevent the demoralizing irruption of the moneyed classes into politics, who would always be ready to spend one-quarter of their all in order to save half of it?

It is said the rich largely escape taxation under customs laws and internal-revenue statutes. This is by no means so clear as is often assumed, though it may be admitted that, under the ingenious arrangements of McKinley, the poorer classes are disproportionately taxed. But federal taxation is not the only kind, is not the most important kind, of taxation in this country. State and municipal taxation surpasses it in amount many times over. Who pays this tax, and who escapes it? Everybody knows that it is the large estates and the middle classes upon which this burden mostly falls, and that the poor are almost entirely freed from it. Here is another powerful argument against the income tax, that it tends to exalt the national government over the local government, to extend the mischievous idea that the federal government and federal politics are the only things for the citizen to concern himself about, and that all legislation must more and more be confided to a great central power which insensibly shades off into the all-wise and benevolent State of the socialists.

Finally, it is said that, even if all this is true, the aggregation of wealth in private hands is so great a danger that it must be attacked at all hazards and by any means. This is a thoroughly Populist position, theoretically, and, practically, it completely overlooks the means by which wealth and its blessings are, in the long run, invariably diffused through the community. If a rich man is a niggard, the chances are ten to one that his sons will be spendthrifts, and a hundred to one that his grandsons will be, if the family lasts so long as the third generation. The devil, or Providence, as one chooses to consider it, has a fateful way of breaking up great properties in this country, so that, looking merely at the typical miserly rich man whom the Populist is aching to get his taxing hands upon, it is certain that, all in good time, "distribution will undo excess and each man have enough."

On the other hand, the philanthropic rich and the effect on them of laws aimed at their property are altogether left out of the Populist account. Yet it is certain that they give up every year of their wealth for the public good; if not for wasteful legislation and for socialistic schemes of state industries, sums of money far vaster than any system of taxation could possibly extort for them. Take Mr. Rockefeller, for instance. He is a man for whom, personally, we have no particular admiration. But he is precisely the kind of man, growing rich out of public franchises, whom the Populists have in mind as fit subjects for spoliation. Yet to Chicago University alone he has given, since its foundation, upwards of $3,500,000, while his other charities during the same time must bring the total up to $5,000,000. Could any such sums have been wrung from him by any conceivable system of taxation? On the other hand, if he and men like him were singled out for special and onerous taxes, would not the certain effect be to dry up the streams of their public benefactions? It ought to be clearly understood that if the wealthy classes are to be set off by themselves as subjects of burdensome and increasing taxation, the result will be sure to be, partly through diminishing their ability and more by diminishing their good will, to cut off the support of hospitals and libraries and museums and colleges and churches, for which now such large and constant demands are made upon their generosity.

THE REPORT AGAINST MR. HORNBLOWER.

It is unfortunate for Mr. Hornblower and for the country that his rejection by the Senate committee should have political importance, but such importance it has. The professional objections to him have never been serious. To say that he is young for the place is to disregard many precedents and to err grossly about human maturity. A man who at forty-two is not fit for any place calling for judgment, knowledge, and discretion is sure never to be fit at all. The cases are, indeed, rare in which any advancement based on merit comes to a man after that age. It is literally the meridian of life. He may subsequently have a larger practice, but he cannot deserve it more. We should be indeed fortunate if we could get all our federal judges at that age, so that we should have a fair prospect of thirty years of service from them on the bench. The objections to him touching the nature and amount of his practice, have been equally trivial. They have been urged in the main by two obscure lawyers whose enmity he has excited in the course of his practice, and who have gone to heavy expense in printing and travelling in order to vilify him. The opinion of the bar of this city and State has been unmistakably on his side. We believe that a vote of Mr. Hornblower's own profession would place him among the *dignissimi*. Moreover, he will lose nothing by comparison with all the appointments to the Supreme bench hitherto made by either Mr. Cleveland or Mr. Harrison, and this we say while admitting that Mr. Harrison's appointments were exceptionally good.

What, then, has led to his rejection? A combination of causes. It cannot be forgotten that he was one of two lawyers whose presence on the committee of the Bar Association which investigated the election frauds of last year, Maynard specially asked for. It was, therefore, a deep mortification to Maynard and his partisans, familiarly known as "the Hill crowd," when these two lawyers joined in the anti-Maynard report. It is a cardinal rule of the corrupt politics in which Hill and his people revel, that not only should an agent never be deserted, but that an enemy should never be forgiven. They were, therefore, bound by the constitution of their ring not only to nominate Maynard for the Court of Appeals, but to slaughter any of his judges on whom they could lay hands. Their opportunities of revenge are few, for, we believe, no member of the committee is in politics, or is, or is likely to become, a candidate for any political office. It was, however, Mr. Hornblower's evil fate to be selected for a place which brought him within the range of Senator Hill's malice. The "courtesy of the Senate," which assumes that the greatest rascal who gets into that body will consider the public good in passing on nominations made from his own State, doubtless powerfully aided in staving off confirmation or defeating it.

But there were other causes, perhaps just as powerful, which it would be foolish to ignore. One is the absolute lack of public spirit in the Senate on both sides. The great men of other days are gone out of it. The men who fill it are all engaged in the smallest kind of partisan politics. Even Senator Hoar, who is supposed to be the last heir of the great traditions of the body, is probably occupied just now far more with stirring up strife in the Democratic party than in providing good judges for the Supreme bench. In other words, the tariff, being regarded by so many men as a question of property, produces a bitterness and unscrupulousness in everybody who has an interest in it, which destroys all real regard for any function of the government which does not propose to fill his pockets. There is nothing sacred for a high-tariff man when brought to bay. "I will beat Wells if I have to mortgage the mill," said a Connecticut manufacturer, and doubtless many a Senator would help put a Maynard in the Supreme Court if he were sure it would embarrass the President or increase the number of his enemies. It is a notorious fact that a large number of them to-day occupy themselves in trying to find out what he wants in order to prevent his getting it. He has not grown in the affections of political men since his election. On the contrary, the hatred which led them to scout the idea of his nomination and caused them to witness his election with dismay, has been greatly aggravated by his reappearance in the presidential chair.

We should like to stop here, but it is due to the history of our time to say that the President has done little or nothing either to disarm hostility or to increase the number of his friends. He is not "magnetic," and if we said he had winning manners, we should depart widely from the truth. Ever since he came into office, he has almost studiously ignored his chief supporters of 1884, 1888, and 1892. He has not sought their counsel, and he has apparently tried to forget that they ever served him. His allusions to the civil-service reformers in his message to Congress and in his letter to Mr. Van Alen were very unfortunate coming from a gentleman who owed them so much. The notion, too, which at times has seemed to possess him, that he could in any way consistent with his character and principles conciliate his enemies in this State, showed a surprising simplicity in a gentleman who had lived among them so long. Either he or they would have to undergo a complete change of heart in order to live together in amity or to work in concert. A very small experience of them, together with a very small modicum of worldly wisdom, would seem to have prescribed to him, when he took office, the propriety of fostering the devotion of those who compelled his nomination and secured his election. They were what is best in the Democratic party as well as in this community, and the only men who can give the Democratic party any future after Mr. Cleveland's career is closed. The notion that Hill and Murphy and their kind can ever commend that party to national favor or acceptance is surely a great hallucination. It must live, if it is to live, by the presence in it of such men as Mr. Cleveland and his anti-snappers, who alone saved it from total wreck at the last election. Everybody else in it was totally discredited with the country at large.

NEWSPAPER SOCIETY.

An evening journal in this city received the following by special messenger a few days ago:

"Sir: In publishing names of attendants at the Charity will you kindly mention Mr. and Mrs. ——! If you mention costumes, Mrs. —— in pink and Nile novelty satin 'décolleté,' old lace, diamond ornaments. We were late and missed the newspaper men. If there is any charge, kindly let me know by bearer, and greatly oblige.

"Signed by Mr. ——."

What is interesting about this is the belief it reveals that some portion of the public carefully peruses the lists of people at charity and other public balls, notes who was there, and makes a mental image of the costumes. But this again is based on a still profounder faith, that by getting into the newspapers you get into "society." If the public only knew the extent to which the givers of teas, receptions, and little gatherings of all sorts coöperate with the reporters in getting an account of these festivities into the "society column" of the morning papers, it would read that column with renewed zest. "Society" in New York really means nothing except a collection, more or less large, of people who invite other people to their houses, either to dinners or to dances or to parties of some kind. It connotes nothing as to manners, or education, or birth. As soon as a man or woman begins to do this, he or she is on the way to society. By persistently issuing invitations to entertainments for two or three years people at last begin to accept them, and the aspirant is "in society," and becomes a "society man," or "society woman," or "society girl," as the case may be. But it stands to reason that no such rapid progress would be possible without the aid of the press. Being a candidate for society would be a very tedious business if nobody knew it but the people who get your invitations. So the reporters are called in, and through them it is given to the world that on a certain afternoon Mrs. A gave a tea, which was attended by Mrs. B, Mrs. C, and Mrs. D, and Miss G, and so on.

Now the effect of this on the outside world is very curious. The great body of the readers believe that there was at Mrs. A's a very brilliant gathering, and that she and her company are, so to speak, "in it" up to their eyes. If it were not so, why should it be in the newspapers? And once Mrs. A's social doings get into the newspapers, they really never get out of them as long as money lasts. Teas, receptions, and dinners succeed each other in rapid succession, and at the close of the season the "newspaper man" follows Mrs. A to Bar Harbor and Newport, still keeping up the popular excitement about her doings, until her triumph is assured. Publicity, in other words, carries the day. To the outside world the "society column" is paradise, where the men and women live in silks and satins and drink champagne all day long, and are eagerly watched by mankind. In reality it is a region of very hard work and some anxiety. Mrs. A has to get as much space as Mrs. B, and "newspaper men" are notoriously slippery customers and have to be cajoled and "placated." Then it is very hard to make them get the costume right without giving it to them yourself in writing, and once you do this you are in the creature's power for ever, and he can trample on you as he pleases.

No account of the troubles of newspaper society, however, would be adequate which said nothing of the snares set for it by enterprising press speculators. Of course this passion for publicity is well known to the great army of publishers of one sort or other who try to make a living out of the weaknesses of their fellow-men. These gentry are naturally constantly occupied with the invention of modes of extracting "honest dollars" out of people's anxiety to be thought members of the world of fashion. Their activity has been greatly increased since a foolish and ridiculous man set down the number of New Yorkers who could be said to belong to "society" at 400, but without giving any list of names. This exact definition of the number was all the speculators wanted, and they at once set to work printing lists of their own, and of course they could not be expected to put anybody on the list for nothing, and they were sure of a sale of four hundred copies of the work to those who knew they were in it, four hundred more to those who hoped to be in it, and at least four hundred to those who wanted to see who were in it. Other speculators, of course, got up lists of their own, and the "Four Hundred" became a newspaper synonym for aristocracy. The aristocracy of New York then underwent more mutations in a month than that of France or Venice in a thousand years. The way estimable citizens, male and female, were kicked in and out of the Four Hundred by rival newspaper men was a sight which ought to have moved the sternest to tears.

There is even now a speculation under way, carried on by a body of unknown persons, doubtless live journalists, calling themselves the "Historical Company," which we think will tickle "society people" terribly. The company sends you a circular, acknowledging that you are a conspicuous member of "the Four Hundred." You are touched by this. You feel that these fellows evidently know who's who, and you read on. You find that the biographies of the Four Hundred are going to be published, and for this purpose you are asked for particulars about your birth, parentage, education, and situation in life, and about your ancestors for three degrees, fuller than any French *juge d'instruction* would require in a murder case. If you do not answer, this list of the Four Hundred will probably appear without you, and there you are. If you do answer, you probably will have to lie freely in order to make your antecedents respectable. If you do not lie, and your antecedents are not respectable, how will you ever show your face at the teas? The rascals who have got up these dilemmas of course care nothing about your feelings. They simply want to make a little money, and they will probably make it.

ITALY AND THE TRIPLE ALLIANCE.

Rome, December 26, 1893.

It suits France to assume that the Triple Alliance is the cause of the Italian financial embarrassment, and it pleases the republicans and radicals of Italy to repeat it, but in point of fact the Alliance, by means of the military confederation, enables Italy to provide for her

security from attack by land with a much diminished army. The Italian army at this moment is only about 160,000 men under arms, hardly enough for all the garrison duties and the public security, and this number includes the carabinieri, who are more policemen than soldiers. It is perfectly well known, and I have the highest official assurance of the fact, that the treaty of the Triple Alliance imposes no conditions as to the force to be kept under arms by either of the allies; but as the enemy against whom all the members of it had to provide was chiefly France, and in the alternative Russia, and the only desire of the central powers was peace and a successful defence if war came, the confederation of the central powers enabled each to diminish its force, and I know that the strength of the army is really much less than it would be considered prudent to leave it if Italy were isolated. It is now less than that of the English army. The great gain of the two northern powers by the alliance was the security of Austria against an attack on the south in case she should be engaged with Russia, and an aggressive part in a possible campaign has never been expected of Italy.

The total cost of her army this year is less than $50,000,000, and when we consider that the army is the great school of the nation, the most efficient means of reducing it to unity and homogeneity, that the total budget of the kingdom is a milliard and a half of lire, more or less, of which the army takes about the sixth, it cannot be said that the military expenses are the ruin of Italy. The fact is, and the recent outbreaks in Sicily show it, that the army is not large enough to secure order and legality in the kingdom. The present Government of Italy is gathering the fruits of ages of misgovernment as well as of extravagance during the past thirty years. State property to the amount of three milliards of lire, or six hundred millions of dollars, has been wasted in various ways, but mainly with the purpose of avoiding the necessity of taxing the nation to carry on the business of the state; and now, when the patrimony is exhausted and taxation is necessary, it is found that the Government demands sacrifices. Three milliards and a half have been expended in the construction or purchase of railways, of which not a single network pays its expenses and the interest on its cost—partly owing to their construction having been conducted on electoral principles, to conciliate the voters of the provinces served, and partly owing to their bad and wasteful management, so that the railways alone make a deficit in the national accounts of about one hundred millions a year, exclusive of the interest on the bonds for their construction. The army of *impiegati*, the public servants in the vast and complicated machinery of the state, is in most departments double what is required, and diminution is rendered impossible by the number of votes they would influence. Their number is probably much more in excess of the actual needs of the country than that of the army, even if the ranks were full.

The present distress of the country is due to the commercial crisis, due in its turn to the immense inflation of all kinds of business, and especially building, and real-estate operations connected therewith, beginning about ten years ago, and connected more or less with the absurd megalomania consequent on the acquisition of Rome as the capital of the nation and the idea of the third Imperial Rome (offspring, by the way, of Quintino Sella, the pride of Italian finance, not of Crispi, who only came in for the promises and debts which Sella & Co. had made). As long as loans were easy and the income sufficed to pay the interest, all went on smoothly, and it was only when the commercial crisis diminished income that the public began to realize that spending meant, sooner or later, paying. But extravagant expenditure in all directions had become so the rule of the state and the commune that it was impossible to arrest it at once. Rome and Naples became bankrupt, and the Royal Government had to take up their obligations as it had done those of Florence ten years before. Rome alone had sunk 700 millions of lire in works either useless or totally unremunerative, and the state has had to undertake the completion of all the public works. Under various laws, from 1879 to 1885, there were appropriated for public works at the charge of the state 1,610 millions of lire, and for 19 railways voted in the first of those years the expense exceeded the appropriation by 200 millions. All these have had to be paid for in the subsequent years.

As if it were not enough to have overloaded the finances of the state with debts for posterity to pay, the ministries from 1880 to 1885 abolished taxes which at a moderate estimate would now produce 150 millions a year, among them being the grist tax, which would alone now give an income of over 100 millions a year, and the abolition of which has not affected the price of bread in the least or really benefited the lower classes, but which cannot be reimposed. The salt tax, which could be depended on for about 25 millions, was another of the abolished taxes which cannot be restored. This is the way in which the prosperous days of the Italian existence were provided, to be paid for by a mortgaged future, become an almost bankrupt present. But this was not enough. The earlier governments, which earned cheap glory by the contraction of debts for the present, also left it the *corso forzoso* (legal tender, we called it), though they had contracted a debt of 600 millions to abolish it; and what was infinitely worse, they left the finances of the state and the issue of the currency the monopoly of joint-stock banks, arranged in such a way that the banks would get all the profits, if any, and the country all the losses. These banks are now practically bankrupt. They lent their capital during the great crisis of four or five years ago on real estate and other securities which they were legally forbidden to lend on, and they have now a circulation of about 1,000 millions out, and cannot realize on the securities they hold to redeem it if presented, and the presentation is prevented only by the legal-tender provision of the law. The natural result is that the premium on gold is such as to cripple enterprise and add enormously to all the losses and embarrassments of commerce, already almost paralyzed by the bursting of the great speculation bubble.

What share, then, has the military expenditure of less than two hundred and fifty millions a year, and the naval of about one hundred, in the present state of things? Would the withdrawal of Italy from the Triple Alliance enable her to dismiss an army when what she has is not enough to keep order in the state? Could a nation which is one of the most active of the European nations on the sea, be without a navy? Would not exclusion from any alliance, and isolation in Europe, with the risk of a war on the north and another on the west, to say nothing about the accidents which all civilized nations have to risk, compel her to have a larger rather than a smaller army and navy? Even Belgium, protected by treaties in her neutrality, is now obliged to strengthen her army to avert the violation of her frontiers in the impending collision between the greater powers, and Switzerland is busy fortifying her frontiers and putting her armory in order; what chance has Italy, then, to keep out of the broil?

Then we have Massowah, which costs another fifty millions and returns no profit beyond the chance of now and then showing, as just now at Agordat, how well the Italian military organization works and what gallant fellows their officers are, and this we all knew long ago. But this too has nothing to do with the Triple Alliance. Nor has any one of the chief causes of financial embarrassment which now afflicts Italy, except the single fact that she does not sell so much of her wines to France as she used to. And that the exclusivist and protectionist measures now adopted against Italy would have been adopted in any case by the protectionists is made more than probable by their application to Switzerland, which is not in the Alliance. The outbreak of war in Europe, even if Italy were not directly involved in it, would cost her far more than the present system of coöperation in a league the object and up-to-date effect of which has been and is to keep the peace in Europe. It is only through French spectacles that the Triple Alliance is seen as the prime cause of any financial or political trouble to Italy. But the French want war, and mean war, and Italy in the Alliance is another obstacle to this intention. They talk peace, but, as an ex-officer of the war of 1870 said to me last summer: "We want it after we have got back Alsace and Lorraine." And that is what it really means.

W. J. Stillman.

THE SPANIARDS AT MELILLA.

Algiers, December 20, 1893.

No one out of the peninsula during the past few months of hostilities between Spain and the Moors of the Riff tribes can have formed any idea of the prevailing excitement on account of this event. The Spanish newspapers have devoted pages of every issue to the "campaign in the Riff country"—pages of headlines and of glorification of Spain and her soldiers. The calling out of the first army reserves has flooded every city with half-uniformed levies, and every movement of troops has drawn animated crowds to the railway stations. Every railroad and every harbor in southern Spain has been strained to transport soldiers and supplies to the scene of action, and a cabinet crisis almost occurred because the war minister could barely be dissuaded from resigning his portfolio and placing himself at the head of the glorious expedition. All this has furnished plenty of excuse for a display of blatant patriotism and national vanity which, to an American, has in some of its aspects a familiar Blaine or Jingo air. Nevertheless, this "campaign" has been a great boon to the gossips of the cafés and a stimulus to promotion in the army, and as it has brought Spain into prominence among the European powers holding African possessions, of course little consideration is paid to the fact that the expense thus far has exceeded fifteen millions, and has greatly added to the existing financial troubles of the Government.

Melilla itself, as seen at sunrise from the roadstead, presents a wonderfully picturesque appearance, being situated upon and around a high rock jutting out into the Mediterranean. The old-fashioned fortifications, with here and

there a threatening cannon, the crowded little Spanish houses, with an occasional new barrack; the tents of the soldiers, and the outlying forts on the hills beyond; the heavily laden transports and the grim men-of-war floating on the blue water—all this makes an enchanting spectacle. Indeed, it is not until the crimson rays have faded away into white, and the many clear-voiced bugles have ceased their musical calls to reveillé and to breakfast that one realizes that the curtain has not risen on a new opera, and that the interest of the place lies not in its picturesqueness, but in the purposes and actions of the armed men it contains.

Viewed in broad daylight, Melilla is a surprisingly small place, with next to no attractive houses. Its streets are very narrow and very steep, and it is evident at a glance that the town has not the slightest value except as affording Spain a foothold in Africa and the advantages of an open roadstead for her ships. On the 14th of December, the day of my visit to Melilla, hostilities were still suspended pending the negotiations for peace, so that inspection of the camps was everywhere permitted and there were not even sentries at the landing-place to question a visitor's purpose. The faces of two or three Jewish traders, who looked sadly through the barred windows of the small cell which forms the guard-house, proved, however, that the commander-in-chief, Marshal Martínez Campos, is in earnest in his efforts to check any traffic in guns or ammunition with the enemy. In that portion of the town which lies at the foot of the rock there was a pitiful attempt at a market; stores were few and far between, but there were a number of booths of the usual camp-followers, most of them for the sale of liquors. In an Anglo-Saxon camp of corresponding size, this sale would be suppressed; but a drunken Spanish soldier is a rare sight anywhere. The only building in the least worthy of the name of a hotel was a shockingly dirty place, but so extensive was its business that the privilege of occupying a chair cost five pesetas (about one dollar) a night! So few women and children were to be seen that it was evident that numbers of the inhabitants had withdrawn during the hostilities. One met with quite a number of friendly Moors, and at the landing-place a most interesting crowd of soldiers, sailors, boatmen, Moors, negroes, gendarmes, and civilian laborers could be studied.

From a military standpoint, there is much to find fault with in Melilla. Perhaps the most striking thing in the whole town is the lack of the simplest sanitary arrangements and precautions. With the exception of the tiny square in front of the chief military office building, the streets are very foul. Even in the camps outside the walls there are no evidences of systematic policing, and useful materials are thrown about in an inexcusably careless way, while nowhere is there that neatness ever to be expected of good soldiers. The fortifications are antiquated, and, with the exception of four Krupp pieces, the heavy guns are still more so, dating back to 1850, and in the case of the mortars to 1780, suggesting at once in their appearance the old trophies at West Point. The marshal himself says that the outlying forts are badly located and not well built. They have to be reprovisioned once every eight days, and that at a serious cost of life if warfare be going on. From the electric search-light tower the walls of the new fort were visible, which have since collapsed, owing to the rains. It was the construction of this fort, together with the extension of the neutral zone, which brought about the whole trouble.

At present there are some 30,000 troops in Melilla, and these are commanded by 26 line generals. Throughout, the number of officers in proportion to the soldiers is very large. The regiments are generally small, but have been more or less recruited. One artillery regiment at home had but 300 men to some 35 to 40 officers, I was informed; but this may have been an exceptional case, and doubtless those at the front are considerably larger. At Melilla the light artillery guns were parked in the open air without breech coverings, whereas mules and horses looked well taken care of. The soldiers themselves wore the fatigue working suits, originally of some coarse linen, but they were so campaign-worn it was hard to tell what they had been. The men were in the best of spirits, and, as far as could be judged, made light of their hardships and enjoyed their rations of wine and the *puchero* doled out to them. This latter dish, a sort of soup of peas and other vegetables, forms a large part of the diet of the Spanish soldiers, as well as of the peasants, but it seemed a scanty fare. The English soldiers at Gibraltar spoke of it with an amusing mixture of horror and disgust, combined with a good deal of pity for their Spanish brothers-in-arms, but the latter seemed to relish it, and I saw nothing of the dissatisfaction which, according to French despatches, is universal. A large detachment of men carrying heavy burdens of flour joked and larked as though it was very good fun, and they went, in fact, almost too far with their noise. The soldiers appeared to have a great deal of liberty about town, and in consequence there was considerable wrecking of traders' booths, for which, as an example, one poor fellow was sentenced to be shot. As a whole, the Spanish soldiers are under-sized and under-aged, nor have they a very strong physique. The officers are neat and very soldierly looking.

In the afternoon of the 14th there was a division drill along the beach, across the river, and upon the hills, which are the spurs of a mountain 3,000 feet high, by no means a blot on the landscape. The men marched quickly, executed the skirmish-drill movements well, and, from a distance, appeared to be carefully and ably handled, which was a distinct surprise after what I had seen in Spain. As though to add realism to the picture, blank-cartridge firing was indulged in, and as the manœuvres were executed near the neutral line, small bodies of Moors appeared to watch the spectacle, which was put an end to by a heavy rain. The town of Melilla itself is not well situated, and the opinion has more than once been expressed that it is defensible only against the Moors. It certainly seems as though some modern cannon on the neighboring mountain would speedily render it untenable.

At anchor in the roadstead lay the fleet which recently created such havoc among the Moors by firing upon them suddenly at night by aid of the powerful search-lights. There were six ships in all, ranging from an old vessel with tall spars very much resembling Farragut's *Hartford* to more modern ships. The flagship *Alfonso XII.* added to the martial picture of the afternoon by practice-firing from a bow gun. There were no foreign men-of-war in harbor. On the 18th a gale drove ashore a Spanish vessel which the Moors promptly attacked. The nearest forts replied, but the affair soon ended and the Moors have humbly apologized. In fact, as the expensive fort has fallen to pieces and the Sultan has promised to disarm the belligerent tribes, we shall soon see Spain once more pacific, and doubtless well satisfied at having added another glorious triumph to the many feats of Spanish arms. O. G. V.

Correspondence.

AN OLD-WORLD LESSON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is not only German professors of philology who were in some way moved by their experience at the World's Fair to sympathize with women in their desire to get access to German universities. Prof. Klein was so well convinced of the fitness of an American woman to become an attendant upon his lectures (what he discourages most aspiring American men-students of mathematics from undertaking) that he brought his powerful influence to bear upon the Prussian Cultusminister upon her account, and has thus caused the doors of the ancient University of Göttingen to open enough to let exceptional women in. It is to be hoped that, when the next world's fair is held, at Berlin, the Harvard College authorities may be sent thither, and may there discover that, even under Old World customs, it is possible for women to listen to great professors in the same room with men with a very high degree of safety to them both. X.

THE ADMISSION OF UTAH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: You say that "because we have several States which ought to be Territories is no reason for making another mistake of the same sort." Most true indeed is this; but, conversely, is that a reason for refusing statehood to a Territory that in an eminent degree possesses all the qualifications heretofore deemed essential in a new State, and especially those of prime importance—population and wealth? The population of Utah in 1890 was 207,905, while the aggregate population of Idaho, Nevada, and Wyoming was 190,851, a difference in Utah's favor of 17,054. The assessed valuation of property in Utah for 1893 (a year of extreme business depression, when values of all kinds were greatly depressed) was $115,114,842; total Territorial debt, $700,000; value of public property, $1,175,459.76.

As to Congressman Harter's objection—"that we do not want any more States until we can civilize Kansas"—that is most unfair to Utah, for it may be that Kansas never can be civilized; and let it be remembered that Kansas, "bleeding Kansas," got its form of civilization from the New England Emigrant Aid Society, and not from the West.

You commend Senator Proctor's bill for annexing Utah to Nevada, and say it is an "ideal solution of a problem which otherwise must apparently always remain on our hands." That problem is Nevada's, not Utah's. It may be answered, it probably will be answered, that Congress and Nevada will decide the question, and that the people of Utah will have to abide that decision. But would not the imposition of the Constitution of Nevada on the people of this Territory, willy-nilly, be an outrage on them and a gross violation of the best traditions regarding the admission of new States? And the further question arises, may it not be unconstitutional? It is safe to say that to-day Utah's population is six times greater than Nevada's, and to annex us to her against our aspirations and will would surely

be to make the tail wag the dog; and a bob-tail at that. I am sure the *Nation* is wrong when it intimates that opposition to the proposed annexation would come from office-seekers mainly. It would come from the entire people, irrespective of politics.

In Utah we have had a long struggle for the vindication and supremacy of the nation's laws, and to-day they command the respect and obedience of all. The past is past, and all are looking forward to a happy, prosperous, and honorable future as a State of the Union. We in Utah are pleased to think that we have, in the language of Prof. Bryce, a share of that "reserve of force and patriotism more than sufficient to sweep away all the evils which are now tolerated, and to make the politics of the country worthy of its material grandeur and of the private virtues of its inhabitants."

If Utah is not fitted for statehood let her remain a Territory, but we do ask not to be annexed to the pocket borough of Nevada.

Yours very respectfully,

ALFALES YOUNG.

SALT LAKE CITY, January 2, 1894.

[We cannot let our correspondent's historical inaccuracy pass uncorrected. So far from Kansas civilization being a product of New England, the original settlers from that district and New York together were outnumbered by those from Indiana alone, to say nothing of Illinois and Iowa (whence Kansas derived its some-time appellafion of the State of the three I's). The problem of civilizing Kansas is still a Western, not an Eastern one.—ED. NATION.]

OUR FOREFATHERS ON FOOTBALL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Apropos of your crusade against football and of what is said for this college pastime (is not a college, sir, a place where they play football—or is this the description of a university?), I send you some old comments on the sport, from which your readers may draw their own conclusions. In Sir Thomas Elyot's 'Boke named the Governour' (1531), after describing various games profitable for exercise, he says:

"Verily as for two the laste be to be utterly abjected of al noble men, in like wise foote balle wherin is no-thinge but beastly furie and extreme violence; wherof procedeth hurte, and consequently rancour and malice do remaine with them that be wounded; wherfore it is to be put in perpetuall silence" (I., p. 295).

In Croft's edition of the 'Governour,' from which the above is taken, occur some interesting notes on the same subject. For example, King James I., in commending athletic exercises to his son, says, in the 'Basilikon Doron':

"I debarre all rough and violent exercise, as the foot ball, meeter for laming than making able the users thereof."

Carew, in his 'Survey of Cornwall' (1602), describes "Hurling," which seems to be the modern football, as "a play verily both rude and rough." He adds:

"The ball in this play may be compared to an infernal spirit, for whosoever catcheth it, fareth straightways like a madman, struggling and fighting with those who go about to hold him. . . . I cannot well resolve whether I should more commend this game for the manhood and exercise, or condemn it for the boisterousness and harm which it begetteth; for as on the one side it makes their bodies strong, hard, nimble, and puts a courage into their hearts to meet an enemy in the face, so on the other part it is accompanied with many dangers, some of which do ever fall on the players' share; for proof whereof, when the Hurling is ended, you shall see them retiring home as from a pitched battle, with bloody pates, bones broken and out of joint, and such bruises as serve to shorten their days; yet all in good play, and never attorney nor coroner troubled for the matter." N. M.

NEW YORK.

TWO RARE EDITIONS OF GASS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: (1.) The catch-title of a certain German publication relating to the travels of Lewis and Clark has haunted bibliography for many years. I first noticed it in 1876, but have been until very recently unable to identify the book to which it refers. As given by Kayser, it reads: "(Lewis und Clarke.) Tagebuch e. Entdeckungsreise durch Nord. Amerika in d. Jahren 1804–6, Aus d. Engl. v. Weyland. Mit. 1 Karte." It is described as gr. 8vo, Weimar, 1815, and as forming Band I. of the "Neue Bibliothek der wichtigsten Beschreibungen," etc. I remarked in my edition of Lewis and Clark that this might be a Gass; and such appears to be the fact, for I have just received, through the attentions of Mr. Francis P. Harper of New York, a German Gass which enables me to lay the ghost in question. Following is the full title:

Tagebuch | einer | Entdeckungs - Reise | durch | Nord - America, | von | der Muendung des Missuri an bis zum Einfluss der | Columbia in den stillen Ocean, | gemacht | in den Jahren 1804, 1805 und 1806, | auf | Befehl der Regierung der Vereinigten Staaten, | von | den beiden Capitaens Lewis und Clarke. | — | Uebersetzt | von | Ph. Ch. Weyland. | — | Mit einer Charte. | — | Weimar, | im Verlage des H. S. privil. Landes-Industrie-Comptoirs. | 1814.

One vol. 8vo, pp. i–x, 1–362, with one map. Title, verso blank, pp. i, ii; Jefferson's message to Congress, pp. iii–v; translator's preface, pp. vi–viii; contents, pp. ix–x; bastard title, verso blank, pp. 1, 2; main text, pp. 3–345; two letters of Clark, pp. 346–362; map at end, 9⅜ inches high by 7⅝ wide.

This is a genuine Gass, with which I have compared it carefully. The translation is a very free one, and undoubtedly was made from the French version of Lallemant (8vo, Paris, 1810), though Weyland may easily have also had an edition in English before him. But that he followed Lallemant appears from the facts (1) that the Jefferson message is prefixed and Clark's two letters are suffixed, as in Lallemant; (2) the twenty-five chapters are each headed with the dates of the Journal which they respectively cover, as in Lallemant; (3) the French translator's notes are rendered in German; and (4) the map is lettered in French, and legended "Carte pour Servir au Voyage des Capᵉˢ Lewis et Clarke, à l'Océan Pacifique." I cannot see that the German editor has added anything at all, except the new "Vorbericht des Uebersetzers." In this preface Weyland calls the doughty sergeant "Sir Patrick Gass," and explains that inasmuch as the full history of the expedition had not yet appeared, or at any rate had not reached Europe, the Journal of Gass would answer a purpose for the time being, etc.

I have no doubt whatever that this book is the one Kayser cites. The difference in date (1815 instead of 1814) probably means no more than that the next year another issue, or some of the copies of 1814, were taken up into vol. i. of the "Neue Bibliothek der wichtigsten Beschreibungen." The unwarrantable omission of Gass's name from the title-page has caused the trouble and long delay in identifying the publication. It is to the last degree improbable that any German version of the genuine Lewis and Clark appeared in 1814 or 1815, as the original was not published till February 20, 1814 (see *Nation*, No. 1437). There is no question that the German editor did his work in good faith; this is a Gass complete, though the appearance of Jefferson's message and Clark's letters gives the book the air of one of the apocrypha, and though what Gass's geography, ethnology, and natural history became in passing through French into German is best left to the terrified imagination.

(2.) I lately handled in the library of Minneapolis a Gass which was quite new to me, though Sabin cites it in his Bibliography. It is entitled as follows:

Lewis and Clarke's | Journal | to the | Rocky Mountains | In the years 1804,–1805,–6: | as related by | Patrick Gass, | one of the officers in the Expedition. | — | New Edition with Numerous Engravings. | Dayton, | published by Ells, Claflin, & Co. | 1847.

One vol., sm. 8vo (size of a 12mo, but 8 leaves to a signature), pp. i.-viii., 9-238 + 1 leaf advts., with many full-page illust., all of which count for pagination—thus pp. i., ii. are frontisp., p. iii. is title, pp. iv.-viii. are preface (dated Mar. 26, 1807), pp. 9, 10 are portrait of Lewis, pp. 11, 12 are portrait of Clark, each verso blank; Journal begins p. 13, ends p. 238.

This is likewise a genuine Gass. It is a fair and full reprint of the original of 1807, without any extraneous text, though the illustrations are all interpolations. These are all, no doubt, the same as those which Ells got up for the spurious Lewis and Clark which he published at Dayton in 1840. I recognize the two portraits as being the same, but have not had an opportunity of comparing the rest. I am glad to find it an honest book—whether Ells wanted to make amends for his misdeed of 1840, or wanted to prescribe good medicine for disorders incident to the "Oregon fever" of 1842. ELLIOTT COUES.

SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION, December 31, 1893.

JUPITER'S SATELLITES IN 1664.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have brought to the notice of three astronomers an interesting letter of John Winthrop (the second of that name), written in 1664 to Sir Robert Moray, in which Winthrop declares that, "having looked upon Jupiter with a telescope," August 6, 1663 (old style), he "saw five satellites very distinctly about that planet." He reports the observation with natural distrust, lest it should be "a mistaken novelty." As the letter (which is printed in the Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society for June, 1878, p. 220) had never been noticed by the three astronomers above mentioned, I make the following extract from it for the entertainment of other scientific antiquaries among your readers. If any one knows what has become of Winthrop's astronomical "tube," perhaps he will inform you.—Yours respectfully, D. C. GILMAN.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY,
BALTIMORE, MD., December 22, 1893.

JOHN WINTHROP TO SIR ROBERT MORAY.

HARTFORD, Jan: 27: 1664.

In my former I gave your honor an account of the favor I had of your letter by the Hon. Colonell Richard Nicolls. I then omitted to acquaint your honor what now I will be bold to

add: that havinge looked upon Jupiter with a Telescope, upon the 6th of August last, I saw 5 (?) Satellites very distinctly about that Planet: I observed it with the best curiosity I could, taking very distinct notice of the number of them, by severall aspects with some convenient tyme of intermission; & though I was not with out some consideration whether that fifth might not be some fixt star with which Jupiter might at that tyme be in neare conjunction, yet that consideration made me the more carefully to take notice whether I could discerne any such difference of one of them from the other foure, that might by the more twinckling light of it or any other appearance give ground to believe that it might be a fixed starr, but I could discerne nothing of that nature: and I consider that the tube with which I looked upon them, though so good as to shew very clearely the Satellytes, yet was but of 3 foote and halfe with a concave ey-glasse; and I question whether by a farre better tube a fixt star can be discerned so near the body of that planet when in the ever bright activity of its light, for, if so, why are there not often if not alwayes seene with the best tubes the like or more. Is not Jupiter often in neere conjunction with them, especiallv *in via lactea?* I have been in much doubt whether I should mention this, which would possibly be taken from a single affirmation but a mistaken novelty: but I thought I would rather beare such sensure than omit the notice of it to such worthy friends as might from the hint of it take occasion to cause more frequent observations to be made upon that planet, & at least this will at length be cleared, whether the light of Jupiter doth not take away the appearance of fixed starrs so neere in conjunction with it, as that they should appear within the periphery of that single *intuitus* by a tube which taketh in the body of Jupiter and that at the same unmoved aspect: and I am bold the rather to mention this as an inquiry whether any such number of Satellites or moons hath beene seene by your honor or Mr. Rooke or any mathematitians or other gentlemen that have good tubes and often have the curiosity to view the planet, for possibly it may be new to me which hath beene more usually knowne by others, though the notion of such a thinge is not new to my selfe, for I remember I mett with the like narration many years since in a little booke intituled Philosophia Naturalis per Joh. Phociliden, though then I thought that was but a mistake of some fixed starrs."

TO SPELL FOR, 'TO INTIMATE A WISH FOR,' 'TO SCHEME TO OBTAIN.'

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: This expression, which I lately ventured in a letter, is one which has been very little investigated. So far as I have discovered, the only lexicographer that notices it is Mr. F. K. Robinson, in whose *Glossary of Words used in the Neighbourhood of Whitby* it is defined, 'to try to obtain by address.' This, substantially, is the sense which it bears in the following quotations:

"Was it not, to every intent and purpose but the technical form of words, a promise? Was it natural, in such a case, for the one party to superadd, or possible for the other to require, a formal promise; or, consistently with the smallest particle of gratitude or delicacy, to *spell for* such a thing in the most distant manner, or to conceive that it would superadd anything to his security?" Jeremy Bentham (1790), *Works* (1838-43), vol. x., p 230.

"Before I had given him anything, he began to *spell for* something." Cardinal Newman (1840), *Letters* (1891), vol. i., p. 429.

"It will be observed, too, in the foregoing letters, that he '*spelled*' *for* the curacy and suggested the idea to me." *Id.* (1860), *ibid.*, vol. ii., p. 105.

Besides that everybody hereabouts employs *to spell for* after the manner of Bentham and Cardinal Newman, I have long and often heard the phrase, alike from gentle and simple, in many parts of England. Is it known in the United States? As being terse, and at the same time free from all tang of vulgarity, why does it not deserve a higher rank than that of colloquialism? The guesses concerning its origin which have occurred to me, since they will readily occur to others, may go unmentioned.

That the *spell for* here considered is in any way connected with *spoil for*, seen in the Irishisms "*to spoil for* a fight," "*to spoil for* an argument," etc., phrases familiar to Americans, seems far from likely. F. H.

Marlesford, England, December 10, 1893.

Notes.

A work in twelve volumes, each distinct, is contemplated (and partly executed) by Mr. Charles S. Peirce, member of the National Academy of Sciences. Its full title reads: 'The Principles of Philosophy; or, Logic, Physics, and Psychics, considered as a Unity, in the light of the Nineteenth Century.' The first volume, which is ready for the press, will be 'A Review of the Leading Ideas of the Nineteenth Century.' Mr. Peirce also issues a prospectus of a limited edition, now in course of printing, in two colors on hand-made paper, at the De Vinne Press, of 'The Epistle of Pierre Pelerin de Maricourt to Sygur de Foucaucourt, Soldier, On the Lodestone.' The original treatise dates from 1269, and "occupies a unique position in the history of the human mind, being without exception the earliest work of experimental science that has come down to us." The transcript of Peter Peregrinus's text has been made afresh from a contemporary MS. in the Paris Library, and is reproduced in black-letter together with a translation and notes. Subscriptions for either work should be addressed to Mr. Peirce at Milford, Pa.

Joel Munsell's Sons, Albany, announce 'The Pioneers of New France in New England,' or the French incitement of the Indians against the English settlements, with documentary French evidence and illustrations. The author, Mr. James Phinney Baxter, is president of the Maine Historical Society.

Mr. A. D. Weld-French of Boston purposes issuing in an edition of 300 copies his 'Notes on the Surnames of Francus, Franceis, French, etc., in Scotland,' with an account of the Frenches of Thorndykes and a discussion of the family connection with the Stuart kings.

D. Appleton & Co. will publish shortly 'Germany and the Germans,' by William Harbutt Dawson, a writer on German socialism; and 'The Greater Glory,' a new novel by Maarten Maartens.

Prof. Boyesen's commentary on Ibsen's plays is nearly ready to be brought out by Macmillan & Co.

From the Scribners we may expect R. E. Prothero's 'Life and Correspondence of Dean Stanley,' in two volumes, 'Psychology, Descriptive and Explanatory,' by Prof. George T. Ladd of Yale, 'The Philosophy of Reality,' by Dr. James McCosh, 'Essays about Men, Women, and Books,' by Augustine Birrell, and a 'Chess Pocket-Manual,' by C. H. D. Gossip.

Thomas Whittaker issues this week 'The Ascent of Faith; or, Grounds of Certainty in Science and Religion,' by Alexander J. Harrison, and 'The Son of Man among the Sons of Men,' by the Bishop of Ripon.

Roberts Bros. will soon bring out 'The Aim of Life: Plain Talks to Young Men and Women,' by the Rev. Philip Stafford Moxom; 'Allegretto,' a volume of poems by Gertrude Hall; and Balzac's 'Memoirs of Two Young Married Women,' translated by Miss Wormeley.

Lee & Shepard have in press 'The Political Economy of Natural Law,' by Henry Wood.

The third volume of Mr. Wheatley's definitive edition of Pepys's Diary (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan) ends with the year 1663, and has for its two illustrations a photogravure after Sir Peter Lely's portrait of the diarist in the hall of Magdalene College, Cambridge, and a likeness of Sir Samuel Moreland, from a drawing in the Pepys collection.

We notice elsewhere at length the first volume in the collective edition of Huxley's works. Two other volumes of his essays are now at hand, 'Darwiniana' and 'Science and Education' (Appletons). The former contains the brief obituary of Darwin contributed to *Nature*, and the much longer one from the Proceedings of the Royal Society. The latter volume embalms the little skit "Emancipation —Black and White," published on the heels of our Federal triumph in the civil war, which, beginning with some patronizing and slightly contemptuous remarks about the freedmen racially considered, playfully tosses aside the woman suffragists in order to make a serious and just plea for the higher education of women—"Emancipate the girls."

In making designs for Macmillan's edition of Irving's 'Rip Van Winkle' and 'The Legend of Sleepy Hollow,' in one volume, Mr. George H. Boughton must have felt the pleasure of repatriation. His preface recalls his delight, in his cis-Atlantic days, in sketching and roaming along the shores of the Hudson, and his pencil must here have worked *con amore*. We do not find these pictures proof of a special aptitude for book-illustration, or superior to their predecessors. Some are out of scale with the size of the book, and the most successful are vignettes; invention and imagination are sparingly to be detected. Outwardly the book is very pretty.

'Hazell's Annual for 1894' (London: Hazell, Watson & Viney; New York: Scribners), though an alphabetical lexicon of current biography and history—"a cyclopædic record of men and topics of the day"—has much enlarged its classificatory "key to the contents," and furnishes at least one brand-new innovation of plain, uncolored maps of out-of-the-way countries, scenes of international contention. Some of the fresh topics are the African transcontinental telegraph now building from Cape Town northward, the cholera epidemic of last year, the Liberator frauds, the Bering Sea question, and the World's Fair. We wish the editor might distinguish his work above all others by giving lists of the members of the French, German, and Italian Parliaments in addition to that of the British. The value of this excellent compendium must not be judged by errors like these in the article on Grover Cleveland, all carried over from last year: "born *at* New Jersey," "Judge Foulger" (for Folger), "*Agnes* Folsom" (for Frances).

'The Year's Art for 1894' (London: J. S. Virtue & Co.) attains its fifteenth annual issue. The name of Marcus B. Huish is replaced by that of his former associate, A. C. R. Carter, as editor, but the scheme is unchanged and could hardly have been improved upon. There are the usual photographic memoranda of pictures exhibited, but, in lieu of the portraits of artists hitherto inserted in classes, we have a good number of faces of editors or art directors of periodicals devoted wholly to art, or eminent for their illustrations, as, for example, Mr. Hamerton of the *Portfolio* and Mr. Gilder of the *Century*. In

the rear comes the indispensable directory of artists.

The illustrated magazines bid us review them in their bound volumes—for the half year (*Century*), for a year (*Scribner's*). They have the World's Fair in common, together with papers on Florida, on art in Japan, etc. Two books have emerged from the *Century*, Janvier's 'Embassy to Provence' and Salvini's Autobiography, and two from *Scribner's*, Mrs. Burnett's 'The One I Knew the Best of All' and Robert Grant's 'Opinions of a Philosopher.' In point of illustrations, *Scribner's* is the innovator with its colored plates; and all signs point to the multiplication of these hereafter in all the magazines. The California Midwinter International Exposition connects with the foregoing, in a way, vol. xxii. of the *Overland Monthly*, but it also marks the predominant Pacific-Coast character of this magazine, in which we find examples of famous paintings owned on the coast, an account of the longest jetty in the world—viz., at the mouth of the Columbia River—with papers on camping-out in Mendocino, the Thlinkets of Alaska, the California fish patrol, the Chinese registering under the Geary act (with a profane photograph of General Grant actually seated at the same table with the heathen Li Hung Chang), a penological reform movement in California, etc. Without exception, perhaps, the cuts are process work, but they are aids to understanding. The illustrations of the *Green Bag* (Boston Book Co.) are wholly personal, and now that the series of this legal periodical has reached a fifth volume, the professional portrait gallery is probably the most extensive and valuable (at least for the American bench and bar) in existence. The character of this periodical, both in the serious and the lighter vein, has been well maintained, and such verse as Mr. Stafford's "A Contrast," on p. 523, does not often find its way into our literary magazines.

Babyhood is a magazine whose name explains its interests. Its medical editor, Dr. Leroy M. Yale, has extracted from the files several hundred letters and his replies, and these the Contemporary Publishing Company of Philadelphia have printed in convenient book form as 'Nursery Problems.' The problems are such as constantly confront young parents, and their solution by Dr. Yale shows competent knowledge and excellent judgment.

An admirable illustration of what is euphemistically termed British conservatism is the persistence with which the identity of typhus and typhoid fevers was held by their physicians. Louis and Gerhard, in the thirties, had satisfied all students in France and America that they were distinct diseases, and physicians at large in both countries accepted this as a matter of fact and acted accordingly. In the British Islands as well as elsewhere they had always been grouped as continued fever, and the suggested differentiation was a novelty not to be countenanced. In 1844 a leading medical quarterly, discussing this very question, held "there is but one kind of idiopathic fever," and it was not until 1849-'50 that the young Dr. (now Sir) William Jenner demonstrated by the closest scrutiny of the conditions before and after death that they were as distinct as measles and scarlet fever, another brace of formerly confused types. His argument was too convincing to be ignored, and inasmuch as British subjects (in both the legal and the anatomical sense) furnished the material, British medicine, about twenty years after its neighbors, fell into line with them in this respect. Notwithstanding the work had already been done abroad, Dr. Jenner's unanswerable essay, which is a masterpiece of scientific observation and analysis, is what gave light to his compatriots; and although the medical profession has long since moved past the epoch it created for his countrymen, it deserves study as a type of argument built entirely upon fact. For his countrymen he broke up continued fever into four varieties, of which those two are the principal. In 'Lectures and Essays on Fevers and Diphtheria, 1849 to 1879,' Macmillan & Co. have reproduced, in a well-indexed octavo that should become a classic, this and other papers on the same general topics, all marked by the same lucidity.

'The Vital Equation of the Colored Race, and its Future in the United States,' by Dr. E. R. Corson of Savannah, a reprint from the 'Wilder Quarter-Century Book,' is an essay whose conclusion is that the future of that race will be inability to maintain itself as a race, and that the world has reached a point where everything must give way to the Caucasian. This has been derived from contemplating the high infantile death-rate, the impaired vitality of the mixed strains, and the low scale of life of the Southern negro, especially in the larger towns. Vitality doubtless is influenced by race distinction, but the figures and the area are neither definite nor large enough to furnish positive deductions. The lesson that seems to us nearest the surface in this paper is the necessity for strong, kindly, persistent action in lifting the blacks by instruction, by sanitary injunction, and by organized charity. This last should stimulate, not pauperize.

We have received the completing section of the fifth edition of Kluge's 'Etymologisches Wörterbuch der Deutschen Sprache' (Strassburg: Trübner). The book has grown by 40 pages, 15 of which are taken up by valuable chronological groupings of the German wordstock, made by Dr. F. Mentz. The new articles contain mostly foreign and dialect words, such as *grassieren*, *Grippe*, *Grog*, *Grosz*, under G. Additions have been made in the chronology and in the geographical distribution of words. Such a dictionary is a growth, and is never made by one man alone, so Prof. Kluge enjoys and acknowledges the continued help of persons known and unknown to him who give valuable hints and make actual contributions. We are surprised that under *Geist* the new edition repeats the statement that Engl. *aghast* means *zornig*, *aufgeregt*. This word is not a cognate of *Geist*, 'ghost,' anyway. Under *Zettel*, *verzetteln*, English to *ted*, meaning to scatter, might have been mentioned. Compare the U. S. 'hay-tedder.' English *flintlock*, again, is overlooked under *Flinte*. Often the author gives only Anglo-Saxon cognates when the later English would be more welcome: *e. g.*, *dight*, *wont* are omitted under *dichten* and *wohnen* respectively.

The first part of the fourth volume of Prof. D'Ancona's 'Manuale della Letteratura Italiana' has recently appeared, bringing the work down to the end of the eighteenth century. It is pleasant to notice, in the general bibliography and in several of the special ones, repeated and laudatory references to an Italian translation of the well-known treatise of an Englishwoman, Miss Violet Paget ("Vernon Lee"), on the life and literature of a century of which the Italians themselves find it hard to give a satisfactory account.

Count Passerini, the editor of that rather dull periodical, the *Giornale Dantesco*, has undertaken, in connection with the printing-house of S. Lapi in Città di Castello, a series of small works concerning Dante hitherto inedited or rare. The volumes are to appear every month, at a price of less than a lira, and are to contain each more than a hundred pages. The first work published is a collection of notes to the 'Divine Comedy' ('Postille alla Divina Commedia') made by the late Salvatore Betti, and registered as number 666 in De Batines's list of inedited comments. The idea of the series is not a bad one, but there is little to commend in Betti's notes, which are for the most part exceedingly commonplace and fill three of the little volumes.

Early in the lists of 1894 of Successori Le Monnier (Florence) is a careful study of Cardinal Innocenzo Cybo by Dr. Luigi Staffetti. The book is rich in original documents, and gives in sharply defined if rather hard outlines an interesting picture of interesting times. Dr. Staffetti shows up Cybo as a man almost but not quite after Machiavelli's heart, fox and lion united; but in Cybo's case somewhat disproportionately fox. As grandson of a pope, as the most brilliant cardinal of his day, as three times aspirant and once by an accident only not elected to God's vicarship on earth, as long the practical ruler of the states of both Bologna and Florence, as the familiar and trusted friend of Charles V., Cybo appears on the other hand in strange contrast as probable poisoner of the poet Berni and persecutor of the patriot Filippo Strozzi, traitor to his friend Duke Cosimo, and open paramour of his own brother's wife, herself probably the most brilliant woman of her time—and the worst. Dr. Staffetti's work is neither ingeniously apologetic nor frankly indignant, but rather coldly impersonal.

"The Internal Work of the Wind," or the want of uniformity and consistency in the movement of the wind stream, its gusty and intermittent character, and its consequent utilization by birds in soaring to maintain themselves without exertion of the wings, was the subject of a paper by Prof. S. P. Langley, read at Chicago before the International Conference on Aerial Navigation in August last. It was perhaps as original and important as any delivered in all the series of congresses, and one may now read it in the January issue of *Aeronautics*, the "annex" of the *American Engineer and Railroad Journal* of this city. In connection with it should also be read the illustrated account of Mr. Maxim's air-ship in the current number of *McClure's Magazine*, and the (also illustrated) account of a German's experiments in man-flying (or, better, soaring) in *Nature* for December 14, 1893. As the last writer well says, here is promise of fine and tolerably safe sport.

Mr. Waters's "Genealogical Gleanings in England," in the January number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*, introduce wills of the Boylston and Sewall connections, the Blands of Virginia, of Sir John Davie, one of Sibley's 'Harvard Graduates,' and of William, son of Mary Dyer, the Quakeress who was hanged for her religion on Boston Common in 1660. These in especial; but a great many other families are illustrated in Mr. Waters's skilful groups of testaments.

We printed not long since a communication from a correspondent respecting La Salle's station of Starved Rock on the Illinois River. A slight article on this romantic spot and neighborhood by the Rev. Frank J. O'Reilly, in the *Catholic World* for January, deserves mention chiefly on account of the views which accompany it.

—The 'Biography of the English Language,' by Arthur MacArthur, LL.D. (Washington:

W. H. Lowdermilk & Co.), has for its object to popularize the investigations of scholars by giving a brief account of the progress of the language from its earliest forms to the present day; but the author overlooks the fact that a certain amount of knowledge at first hand, especially of the older periods, is necessary for this purpose. When we find in the table of contents 'Ancren Riwle' translated "Ancient Rule," and this repeated in the text, it arouses our suspicions, which are more than confirmed by the perusal of the first few chapters. The author has not the most remote conception of the structure of the Old English (Anglo-Saxon) language, speaking of it as "a compound of all the idioms spoken by the warlike invaders," and remarking: "There were four declensions for nouns, adjectives, and adverbs [*sic*], and even the article was declined with the strangest vagaries of inflection"—with much more of the same sort. King Alfred is placed 150 years after Cædmon, Egbert is given to him for a father, and the year of his birth is stated as that in which the Danes "drove him into concealment." The author has dipped into Sir Frederic Madden's edition of Layamon's 'Brut,' but without understanding its language, and there are numerous mistakes in the quotations from it. Errors of the press abound, and in fact there are more errors of all sorts to the square inch than in any work we have ever read. The brief account of the 'Beowulf' (pp. 16, 17) is a caricature, and Geoffrey (not Geoffroy) of Monmouth's Chronicle is spoken of more than once as a "poem." The 'Ormulum' is sandwiched between the "Genesis and Exodus" and "the Ayenbite of Inwit [Inwyt], which means *Again-bite of Conscience*, or Remorse," although the work is professedly historical. Orm is said to use "two consonants in the beginning and end of a word, and some writers have supposed they were placed at the end of a word to denote a short syllable or a long one, but it is not very clear which" (!). His work "is very singularly composed in a Northern dialect," and "of all his contemporaries he is the least regarded as an authority upon the state of the tongue at the time he wrote." After a summary of pronominal forms in the 'Ayenbite' (p. 90): "It will be observed from this summary," the author remarks, "that the adverbs are declined like nouns, and that the numbers and genders of pronouns in the oblique cases cannot be determined by their form, but must be traced back to their substantives." A short course in Old and Middle English would have prevented all this.

—The 'Choephori of Æschylus,' by Dr. A. W. Verrall (Macmillan), is a continuation of that series, the earlier volumes of which by the same editor, the 'Seven against Thebes' and the 'Agamemnon,' have already been noticed in these columns. In completeness of apparatus and in literary ability this edition is almost a counterpart of Prof. Jebb's 'Sophocles,' while in scholarship and in sobriety of judgment it suggests contrasts as well as comparisons with that great work. Dr. Verrall takes his own view of every question, and writes with an ingenuity and *élan* which are interesting even where they do not carry conviction. The chief novelty of the present volume is Dr. Verrall's explanation of the recognition scene, wherein *Electra*, visiting her father's tomb for the purpose of offering oblations, discovers there *Orestes's* dedicatory lock of hair, and recognizes the owner by some magic process of inference which was ridiculed by the rising generation of Athenian critics, apparently, and which has been something of a stumbling-block to classical scholars ever since. A maiden who was separated from her brother in early childhood divines his presence, after many years, on the evidence of a lock of hair and the conformation of footprints which bear some resemblance to her own. Euripides makes much of this apparent absurdity, and ridicules it expressly in a passage of his "Electra," which has been berated by the anti-Euripideans from Schlegel down. Euripides hints that it is a slip of old age; yet this same old age begat the "Agamemnon." The lovers of Æschylus have regarded it as a trivial or pardonable lapse; to our mind it seems that the emotion of the situation—and a good actor—would carry it off successfully before an audience which was not hypercritical.

—Dr. Verrall will not listen to this. He maintains ingeniously, at great length, that the recognition is based on a fact known to Æschylus, viz., that Pelops and his immediate descendants, being from Asia Minor, had some racial peculiarity in the shape of the foot and the skull, something marked in the color and texture of the hair, which distinguished them from the Achaian race among whom they had settled. This is felicitous if true, but for its truth Dr. Verrall produces no sort of warrant. This peculiarity, he next assumes, was a well-known tradition to the audience before whom the play was acted. Lastly, he assumes that this tradition, perfectly familiar to the theatre goers in A. C. 458, had vanished temporarily forty years later—vanished so completely that Euripides, a professional playwright, and tolerably conversant with the stock-in-trade of his craft, had no notion of its existence. This is a large assumption with reference to a poet who gives us those quaint survivals of naïve tradition that are embedded in the "Bacchae" and the "Iphigeneia among the Taurians"; but the assumption becomes comic when we reflect that, at the representation of the "Choephori," Euripides was, in all probability, himself an alert and interested spectator, a young man of about twenty-two, and was therefore, *ex-hypothesi*, one of the audience on whose perfect familiarity with the peculiarities of the Pelopid family Æschylus had implicitly relied. In short, Dr. Verrall's flight of imagination reminds one of the bird of paradise: it is fascinatingly brilliant to look at, but it does not condescend to touch the vulgar ground of facts, and it does not appear to have a leg to stand on.

—The current number of the *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique* is occupied chiefly with the raw material of archæology—a collection of Phrygian inscriptions, partly anticipated by Mr. Ramsay, which are settling by degrees moot points in the geography of Asia Minor; and a descriptive list of hitherto inedited vases in the museum of the Louvre, which M. E. Pottier contributes towards a complete catalogue. The paper of most general interest is M. Kambanis's research as to the construction and period of the great works which drained Lake Copais in Bœotia. The system consisted of two parts, a network of canals and embankments connected with the natural outlets, or rock-tunnels, called "Katavothræ"; secondly, a supplementary subterranean tunnel, descending Mount Kephalári, and following its water-courses, connecting and discharging a series of sixteen shafts or wells, sunk at such intervals as to secure drainage of the mountain streams. The depth of the shafts varies from 18 to 63 metres; the length of the artificial tunnel is not less than 2,400 metres. The former system makes use of the natural outlets, is carried out with more boldness than science, and displays in the stone-work of supporting walls a primitive style which resembles that of Mycenæ and of the island of Gha close by. Hence M. Kambanis refers this workmanship, grandiose yet naïve, to the Minyans, with whom Greek tradition associated it. But the tunnel with its shafts, so precisely arranged and so accurately executed, is the calculated conception of a man of science and the work of experienced hands. It may be compared with a subterranean aqueduct about a mile long, pierced by Eupalinus through a mountain in Samos about the sixth century B. C.—a piece of work not less astonishing than the pyramids of Egypt; here, again, however, we find less science and accuracy than in the work at Kephalári. For these reasons, M. Kambanis assigns this latter undertaking to Crates, an engineer contemporary with Aristotle and Alexander the Great, who in fact is mentioned by Strabo as a "mining-engineer," a native of Chalcis, engaged by the Bœotians to clean out and repair the channels which had become choked and exposed the neighborhood to inundation. M. Kambanis expresses the highest admiration for the science, the workmanlike skill, energy, and perseverance which could pierce a tunnel so extensive through the hard rock of this region, with the primitive means which the ancients had at their disposal.

—Criticism of missionaries and missionary methods on foreign soil is not usually received with gratitude or frequently acted upon, however rational, when the strictures are from "men of the world." In the *Japan Evangelist*, the first number of which is just issued at Yokohama, we find some uncommonly good sense, and severe but needed criticism, by a veteran American missionary. The facts he states are eloquent in showing that of the six hundred missionaries, male and female, now in Japan, a good many of the older ones—"perhaps a majority of cases"—have made "a mistake that has narrowed the missionary's field of usefulness, and has marred his life-work." This mistake has been in not thoroughly learning the Japanese language, or in acquiring a vocabulary fitted for conversation and public discourse on religious subjects only. In a country where universal politeness is the national characteristic and the slow growth of a millennium, but few, comparatively, of the missionaries are able to talk in private or make a public address on subjects most vital and timely to the Japanese. Unfortunately, this neglect of mastery of the language extends to pen and ink also, for even when Japanese is written it is transliterated into Roman characters. The causes of this radically wrong procedure lay in the visionary hopes, held out by no less a personage than the late Arinori Mori, that the vernacular would be either almost Anglicised or wholly abolished, and also in the eagerness of the natives to learn English. So far from its being a sin to spend time in study of Japanese, so immensely enriched in vocabulary during the past quarter of a century as to be almost a new language, Dr. De Forest recommends the newer missionaries—one-half of the total having come to Japan during the last five years—to spend three years in the exclusive study of this profoundly interesting tongue, using both script and speech. "A nation of 40,000,000, with a history and traditions that inspire deepest reverence for the past, cannot be made to break from its language." Dr. De Forest claims that

only those able to master the vernacular should be sent out as missionaries. He deplores the fact that there are too many in the field "who, though they stay here a century, will not be able to use the language with accuracy or grace." The *Romaji Zasshi* (Roman-Letter Magazine), though once enjoying a circulation of over 6,000 copies, "has died a lingering death." The *Japan Evangelist* also contains a translation of a powerful article on "The Good and Evil Effects of Buddhism on [Japanese] History," from the *Kokumin no Tomo* (The Nation's Friend), the Liberal daily newspaper of Tokio.

ADAMS'S MASSACHUSETTS AND ITS HISTORIANS.

Massachusetts, Its Historians and Its History: An Object-Lesson. By Charles Francis Adams. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1893. Pp. iv, 110.

THOUGH easily read through at a sitting, this little brochure of Mr. Adams's is likely to cause more discussion than many a volume of more bulky dimensions. In the form of lectures, the substance of which was delivered before the students of Harvard University in April, 1893, Mr. Adams has elaborated views of the history of Massachusetts in regard to religious liberty, and of the treatment of that theme by Massachusetts historians, already indicated in his 'Three Episodes,' published in 1892, and in the spirit of Mr. Brooks Adams's 'Emancipation of Massachusetts.' It is needless to say that Mr. Adams has put his thoughts in a form that is telling and brilliant, and that holds the interest of the reader as it must have held the attention of the Harvard undergraduates.

To the author's thinking, the value of the history of Massachusetts, as of any other land, is in its relation to the great human drama, "The Emancipation of Man from Superstition and Caste." In regard to the latter of the two phases of this world-wide struggle, Mr. Adams declares: "The record of no community seems to me to be more creditable, more consistent, nor, indeed, more important," than that of Massachusetts. But "as respects Religious Toleration, . . . her record as a whole, and until a comparatively recent period, has been scarcely even creditable."

That this story has been defended in its essential features by a great school of writers whom Mr. Adams designates as the "filio-pietistic," and of whom Palfrey may serve as a type, is due, in the author's estimate, to a provincial neglect of the principle that, "in the study of history, there should be but one law for all. Patriotism, piety, and filial duty have nothing to do with it; they are, indeed, mere snares and sources of delusion." In reality, Mr. Adams holds, Massachusetts, in the person of her ministers and magistrates, "missed a great destiny" by rejecting Roger Williams, and Sir Harry Vane, and the Antinomians; and gave herself up to an intolerance as unworthy as that of Philip II. or Louis XIV., and even more indefensible, since the Puritans, unlike the sovereigns of Spain and France, sinned against better knowledge, refusing "to see a light which they had seen clearly enough in England."

This wilful and inexcusable intolerance, becoming the fixed policy of the commonwealth by the time of the Antinomian synod of 1637, led to a "theologico-glacial" period, lasting till 1761, during which, under the chilling influence of enforced uniformity, mental activity dwindled, and which has left as its typical products the works of Cotton Mather and Jonathan Edwards—"huge literary boulders deposited by the receding ice." The religious system of Edwards—of which the only feature, apparently, which impresses Mr. Adams is his overwrought picturings of future suffering—is the characteristic "outcome of his environment." The system of reasoning on which the theology of this glacial period was built up, "by putting a final stop to any intellectual movement, created a universal paralysis—this system had to be slowly outgrown." These "Calvinistic, orthodox tenets of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries constituted nothing more nor less than an outrage on human nature productive in all probability of no beneficial results whatever." On the contrary, they led to "phases of acute mania," of which the witchcraft delusion of 1691-92 and the "Great Awakening" of 1734-44 were the natural manifestation.

In all this period, Mr. Adams holds, the redeeming feature was "that political activity which in Massachusetts had from the very beginning flowed as a stream of living water beneath the thick ice-crust of theology." It was the dominance of this characteristic that gave distinction to the next period, 1761-1787, of which Mr. Adams conceives Benjamin Franklin and Samuel and John Adams to have been "more than any other typical of the environment." And this epoch passed over, after the suppression of Shays's rebellion, into the "scientific, or florescent," period, extending from 1788 to 1865. To this latter age alone Massachusetts letters belong, for

> "From Cotton Mather to Nathaniel Hawthorne is a long stride, but in Massachusetts literature there is no intermediate stepping-stone. The *Magnalia* was published in 1702; *Twice-Told Tales* in 1837, that year of profuse germination: and, between the two, so different and yet both distinct and unmistakable products of the Massachusetts mind, the one a boulder and the other a flower—between them there is—nothing."

This sweeping statement Mr. Adams qualifies with a reference to Franklin's autobiography as a "possible exception," and a recognition, in a note, that "Thanatopsis" appeared in 1817.

Now there can be no doubt that Mr. Adams's principle that history should be written without "filio-pietistic" bias is correct, and has been often sinned against by American historians. It is true, also, that effort has been made by the school which Mr. Adams in many ways justly criticises to gloss over and defend that which is not always defensible. Mr. Adams has spoken justly in saying elsewhere ('Three Episodes,' p. 575) that, in this matter of religious tolerance, "the Puritan exiles to New England showed that they were not in advance of their times. That they were not, was again an element of their strength; for they were essentially practical men, and not idealists." Nevertheless it seems clear that in his eagerness to make what is largely a valid criticism, Mr. Adams has gone to an extreme almost as excessive as that which he opposes.

The repressive policy of New England was one partly of political defence, partly of religious persecution, at least in its earlier manifestations. Massachusetts historians have usually made one phase or the other of this two-fold motive exclusively prominent. They have either, like Palfrey, largely ignored the conspicuous element of intolerance based on purely religious considerations, and excused almost everything on the plea of political necessity, or, like Mr. Adams, they have fixed attention only on the element of religious persecution, and have practically counted as nothing the exigencies of the political situation. But the repressive measures adopted against Roger Williams, the so-called Antinomians, and Robert Child with his associates, had a two-fold aim. In part they were designed to prevent any interference with the established religious system, and, as such, were religious persecutions worthy of Mr. Adams's condemnation; but in part, also, they were the product of a sincere political dread lest turmoil in the colony, or appeals to a hostile government at home, should cause the loss of Massachusetts independence. New England was not in the position of the Spain of Philip II. or the France of Louis XIV., where no real ground for political fear existed in the presence of a few dissenters from the national faith; it was not in the position of Holland, where actual war led to the toleration of all who would aid in the national defence (though the story of the Arminians shows how even Hollanders could persecute); it was a little land, sturdily trying to maintain its own conception of life and government in the face of a power able to crush it should disturbances at home or appeals to King or Parliament provoke English interference. And, in so far as its actions were based on political considerations, they do not deserve to be placed quite on a level with Spanish intolerance.

Nor is Mr. Adams's description of the character and effects of the "theologico-glacial epoch" without serious exaggeration. Compared with what has succeeded, it was undoubtedly narrow, repressive, one-sided. But, as compared with what had gone before in England, it was, when the people as a whole are taken into consideration, a period of intellectual training. Of all bodies of clergymen, Protestant or Catholic, the New England ministry was that most identified with the people and least jealous of lay interference. By the call of laymen the minister had his title to office, by the votes of laymen the affairs of the church were conducted, and early New England synods had as a rule a majority of laymen in their membership. New England was often majority-ridden, but priest-ridden it was never. And of all bodies of clergymen of the seventeenth century that of New England was the most rationalistic. It believed implicitly in the authoritative character of a divine revelation; but the interpretation of that revelation was entirely the work of the ordinary processes of the human mind. Reason, not tradition, or former councils, or established creeds, was from the first the only New England test. It was largely because Mrs. Hutchinson and the Quakers claimed another source of certainty on religious matters that they were so obnoxious to the Puritan. Now not only was this principle one which led inevitably, if slowly, to an intelligent religious freedom; it made the New England pulpit intellectual and argumentative, and it taught every Puritan congregation to think—for there was no insight into religious truth claimed by the ministry which was not held to be attainable through precisely the same processes by the unclerical man. As Mr. Adams has elsewhere pointed out ('Three Episodes,' p. 574), the Antinomian movement had nothing better to offer. One may venture further and hold that if this movement, from the repression of which Mr. Adams dates the Massachusetts ice age, had triumphed, it would, by substituting mysticism for reason, have substituted a worse principle for a better.

Mr. Adams fails also to make due allowance

for the practical teachings of the New England ministry and for the value of their work as a moral force. One feature of that instruction, certainly open to severe criticism, has attracted his notice; but picturings of future woe, however prevalent, formed only a fragment of New England religious teaching. An examination of the sermons of Edwards, for example, shows that the large majority were on themes recognized by religious teachers of all ages as of the highest practical importance. The excesses of the "Great Awakening" were, what one finds no hint of in Mr. Adams's pages, local and exceptional; the more fanatic aspects of the movement were combated by the faculties of Harvard and Yale and by leading ministers of Massachusetts and Connecticut. The preaching of the Rev. James Davenport, which he quotes, was no more typical of the pulpit of the colony of Connecticut, whose General Court sent him home, than that of William Miller of the New England of 1843.

Mr. Adams has designated the last of his periods as "florescent." The epithet is apt, for it describes its relationship to the epoch which he far less happily characterizes as "glacial." Flowers do not come from boulders. Florescence implies a period of unflowering growth, which is none the less true life. Nor is a comparison of the literary unproductivity of a country of scanty resources and cramped material life, like the New England of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, with the productivity of the mother country in the same period, quite adequate. Rather it should be judged by the standards of other English colonies, and, when tested thus, it had a general diffusion of intellectual vigor which they have not equalled, and its fruitage, when it came at last, was richer than any they have borne. It is not entirely, as Mr. Adams would have it, an illustration of "the *post ergo propter* fallacy" to hold that, where training has been followed by such results, the training cannot have been wholly an evil.

Massachusetts persecution was bad enough; but it was largely the working of the intolerance of a thinking community, engaged in an enterprise characterized by intensity of belief and threatened by considerable perils from without. It was not marked, in general, by personal vindictiveness. It was free from popular blood-thirstiness. It never took the deep hold on the people that it did in Spain or France. Detrimental it undoubtedly was; but that it, or the period of intense conviction of which it was one of the characteristics, did the full amount of harm that Mr. Adams holds it did, seems far from proved.

HUXLEY'S ESSAYS.

Method and Results: Essays. By Thomas H. Huxley. D. Appleton & Co. 1893.

HUXLEY'S collected essays are to appear in nine volumes, of which this is the first. It is well-printed and agreeable to read. An introductory autobiography will serve to remind readers what Huxley's real profession is. He has, to use his own language, "subordinated" his "ambition for scientific fame" to the "popularisation of science" (in his separate treatises) and (in his essays) to an "endless series of battles and skirmishes" with ecclesiasticism and other powers. Intellectual nettles are these essays, suggestive and stimulating to the point of painfulness. Though Huxley is not a physiologist, his branch of science lies near to physiology, and physiology borders close upon metaphysics; and a remarkably well-read man in philosophy (for an outsider) Huxley is. This goes to feed and strengthen his originality, and gives it breadth. At the same time, it greatly heightens the literary interest and animation of his essays. Not that he does not sometimes show that his reading has been hasty, and that the tedious operation of rumination, which is so necessary in philosophical thought, has been a little abridged. Thus, he adheres to the sect of English nominalism—the school of Ockham, Hobbes, Locke, Hartley, Berkeley, Hume, Bentham, and the Mills—without perceiving how antagonistic they are, upon the whole, to the spirit of science. One of the prime doctrines of these men, for instance, a doctrine inherited from the pre-scientific ages, is that all generalization is a *mere matter of convenience*. The scientific man, on the other hand, without theorizing about generals, implicitly holds that laws are really operative in nature, and that the classification he is so painfully trying to find out is *expressive of real facts*. In short, the two classes of thinkers take the *con* and the *pro* of the question concerning universals. As the printer's devil would have it, Huxley's opinion is expressed on the bottom of a right-hand page and the top of the following left-hand one. We read (p. 117): "Classification . . . is *merely a convenient* [turn over] *expression of . . . facts*"; which sounds like a patch-work of two sentences. He follows the Mills in speaking of Hobbes with an extravagance of laudation which is amazing, as coming from a scientific man. What! will you call that man a great reasoner who could write treatises to uphold a circle-squaring fallacy, and whom John Wallis, hardly a mathematician of the first class, could so utterly demolish as he did? What! will you speak of him as an exponent of the spirit of science who is known in physics only by his peculiarly virulent opposition to Boyle's method and its results, and whom Boyle, a weakish sort of disputant, laid out so handsomely? Huxley praises Hobbes's "vigorous English"; but Hobbes's style, both of writing and of thinking, as well as the chief substance of his doctrines, is borrowed, or closely imitated, from William of Ockham. Now Ockham was a brilliant thinker, and some people fancy there was something modern-like about his thought. Not a bit of it; another mind so completely steeped in scholasticism of the most intensely wordy kind can hardly be instanced. Hobbes was an original thinker, even if not a very great one, but his method of thinking is scholastic, wooden, what Huxley calls "*à priori*," and anti-scientific in the extreme. Two extraordinary ideas have come to the modern consciousness from Hobbes. One is the association of ideas, which he undoubtedly stole from Aristotle; and the other is the theory of Motives, which, though it has imposed upon the world, is, in the view of many modern psychologists, a mere logical jugglery, a circle-squarer's style of thought.

Two of the most impressive essays in this volume, making a fifth of its bulk, are devoted to the praise of Descartes as the great scientific philosopher of his age. In fact, when Huxley entitles this volume 'Method and Results,' he means thereby to declare that the 'Discours de la méthode' is the true exposition of the method of science. More profitable reading than these two essays of Huxley on Descartes the literature of our time has not afforded. Nevertheless, it is impossible that the judgment of history upon Descartes should be reversed. That judgment is that while his geometry was simply the making of modern mathematics, all his other ideas proved utterly unprofitable and unscientific. Prof. Huxley may persuade us to dock the last epithet, but, about the other, history cannot be wrong.

"There are some men," says Huxley, "who are counted great because they represent the actuality of their own age, and mirror it as it is. Such an one was Voltaire, of whom it was epigrammatically said, 'he expressed everybody's thoughts better than anybody.' But there are other men who attain greatness because they embody the potentiality of their own day, and magically reflect the future. They express the thoughts which will be everybody's two or three centuries after them. Such an one was Descartes."

What a thing that to say of a man! And Huxley fairly makes it out. How can it be that, for all that, Cartesianism was scientifically barren, except in geometry, while there so richly fertile? It was a pretty complete theory of logic, nature, and the soul—the three categories under which Hegel has well summed up philosophy. But systematic completeness, as Hegel's own system well shows, is about the idlest decoration that can be attached to a philosophy. The great desideratum for a philosophy, its indispensable condition, was first stated by a thinker whom Huxley treats with uncalled-for *hauteur*—Auguste Comte; that is to say, a philosophy, to be fruitful, must be "positive"—it must lead to unmistakable consequences comparable in great detail with observation. If it does that, and if those consequences are verified to any considerable extent, it will aid the advance of knowledge. It is that which has made evolution, in the definite form given to it by Darwin, a great agent of discovery. But was not this character possessed by the theories of Descartes? Perhaps; but if they were "positive" theories, they were not theories which there was any prospect of being able to put to the test to any considerable extent, then and there, in the state of mathematics and of observational means which were at command. Hence, though Huxley can show us *now* that the Cartesian ideas had a scientific character, yet, for practical purposes, they had not that character for the men of that time. But this was not their only defect. It has been repeatedly pointed out by students of the history of mechanics that Descartes's theories really grievously offended the very rule of philosophizing upon which he had himself so much insisted. They were not *clear and distinct*. Worse than that—for that, in itself, would not have been fatal—they were not capable of being made clear and distinct. Like the works of many other philosophers, at first glance they seemed beautifully sharp-outlined, but, when closely studied, they were found to be a composite of nebulæ which no scrutiny could resolve. They wanted that fundamental perspicuity to which so few writers except mathematicians attain, which consists in this, that, unintelligible as they may seem at first reading, yet when they are closely studied they are seen to be based upon the distinctions which were pertinent to the problem.

In his long and deeply interesting discussion of Descartes's theory that animals are automatons, Huxley manifests the great disadvantage under which a comparative anatomist must labor who is not an engineer, or who has not a practical acquaintance with analytical mechanics. He thinks he makes out very clearly that animals (man included) act like machines. But he uses neither the language nor conceptions of dynamics. Far from convincing a student of mechanics, he leaves him profoundly convinced of the disparity between machines and animals. He talks about "causes," but the student of dynamics has nothing to do with

"causes." That a machine could possibly act as a frog deprived of his front brain is described as acting is what Huxley does not make at all clear to a man whose business has lain with machines and with mechanical systems.

Another fifth of the volume is taken up with a review of the Progress of Science in the first fifty years of the reign of Victoria, 1837–1887. Among its many suggestions, we have only space to notice the following:

"The doctrine of evolution, so far as the present physical cosmos is concerned, postulates the fixity of the rules of operation of the causes of motion in the material universe. . . . But it is possible to raise the question whether this universe . . . may not itself be a product of evolution from a universe of such matter, in which the manifestations of energy were not definite—in which, for example, our laws of motion held good for some units and not for others, or for the same units at one time and not at another—and which would therefore be a real epicurean chance-world? For myself, I must confess that I find the air of this region of speculation too rarified for my constitution, and I am disposed to take refuge in ignoramus et ignorabimus."

It is always unphilosophical to say *ignorabimus*, and the shores of science are strewn with the wrecks of such predictions. It is particularly rash to base such a prediction on the circumstance that the author of it would be perplexed to see how the problem is to be made amenable to exact reasoning.

One-third of the volume is taken up with recent essays concerning the general theory of politics. They are very far below the level of Huxley's work of twenty years ago, and, in comparison, seem almost mediocre, although they contain a good deal of interesting information concerning the history of some of the theories. The pretence that one can see no meaning in the statement that all men are born free and equal, would hardly have been patiently tolerated by our Revolutionary forefathers. Huxley reviles Rousseau as a mere sentimentalist. Of course, Rousseau was a sentimentalist by conviction, and it is quite true that, since he wrote, the world has received terrible proof of the evil of exaggerated sentimentalism. Still, civilization rests, and must rest, mainly upon sentiment. Prof. Huxley seems to pass a sweeping condemnation upon the application of what he calls "*à priori* reasoning" to questions of justice. By "*à priori* reasoning" he means deduction from general principles, such as Rousseau practised; but Huxley's general condemnation of this mode of argumentation makes it incumbent upon him to explain how he would have a court of justice reason. He even goes so far as to sneer at the principle of toleration. Where would Huxley, or any other evolutionist who lived in the sixties, have been without that principle? The principle of toleration is intimately connected with the fundamental principle of science, for it can have no rational basis except the acknowledgment that nothing is absolutely certain. In those branches of physics where knowledge is the most perfect, in metrology, geodesy, and astronomy, no self-respecting man would consent to put forward an assertion without coupling with it his estimate of its *probable error*. What scientific men mean by "science" is not knowledge, but *investigation*. Now the scientific man will not shut off any question whatever as too sacred or too well known for further investigation, and therefore he must tolerate every opinion. But, further, in regard to questions of politics and the like, the scientific man must admit that not only can the true alternative not be certainly named, but also that no formula can be framed all whose possible consequences shall be just; and for that reason it is most desirable that, alongside of the formula which is less erroneous, the opposite formula which is more erroneous should constantly have its advocates, so that it may not be forgotten when the moment comes at which it is to be preferred to the other. In this point of view, what Huxley calls "the pet doctrine of modern liberalism, that the toleration of error is a good thing in itself," appears to be not, after all, out of harmony with the ideas of science.

In the last essay Huxley discusses, in an ever-interesting manner, the opposing claims of Individualism, or *laissez-faire*, and Socialism, or, as he chooses to call it Reglementation, and reaches the easy conclusion that neither can be admitted as an absolute principle. There, rather lamely, he leaves the matter, without making the obvious remark that evolutionism supplies a third political maxim, perhaps superior to either of the others. For, the moment we admit that man was developed from an ape, whether suddenly or by insensible degrees, we are led to surmise that the rudiments of government antedated humanity. At any rate, government must be considered as one of those adaptive characters of the *genus homo* which result from development. This is true not only of government generally, but of each special form of it, such as the United States Constitution. Now, since the characters of races are generally highly adaptive, and are also unchangeable, except under the operation of those almost cosmical causes which gradually bring about changes in races, the evolutionary philosopher will not attempt to do more than deflect very slightly the actions of these forces; whence will result a maxim of political conduct something like this: Aid only such changes as are either inevitable or else both natural and beneficial; and so act that those changes may be brought about with the least total harm. If we were to write *integral* in place of *total*, it would make the formula sound more mathematical; and sound is almost everything in matters like this.

Huxley himself has clearly put his finger upon that one of his qualities by virtue of which he has for so long commanded the respect and admiration of the public. It lies "in the conviction which has grown with my growth and strengthened with my strength, that there is no alleviation for the sufferings of mankind except veracity of thought and of action, and the resolute facing of the world as it is when the garment of make-believe by which pious hands have hidden its uglier features is stripped off." The hopes and consolations of religion will, we believe, never be reinstated in their position of authority (if at all) until this lesson of intellectual integrity has been thoroughly learned and accepted with humility.

A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles. Edited by James A. H. Murray. Part VIII., Sect. 1. Crouchmas–Czech. Completing Vol. II. (C). Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1893.

Dr. Murray's Christmas gift to the impatient waiters on his great enterprise was this thin instalment, most welcome as enabling them to bind up the second volume of the Dictionary. It now appears (1) that we have in hand the whole of vol. i. (A and B, pp. 1,240); (2) the whole of vol. ii. (C, pp. 1,308); (3) part of vol. iii. (D and E); (4) that, C being co-extensive with J, K, N, Q, V, X, Y, Z, and three-quarters of O, another volume is thus accounted for; (5) that still another will be required for S, which is somewhat in excess of C. The remaining ten letters of the alphabet will, we estimate, fill six volumes more, making a grand total of eleven. Just about one-fifth of the work, therefore, has been accomplished in print.

With all this fulness, much remains to be discovered. Thus, to choose an example from the section before us, the origin of the word *cub* is quite unknown: "it has been compared with a rare Old Irish word *cuib*, dog, but no historical connection has been traced." The etymology of *cuddle* is uncertain; that of *culvert* obscure, though the word goes no further back than 1770; that of *curse* untraceable beyond late Old English *curs* ("no word of similar form and sense is known in Teutonic, Romanic, or Celtic"); that of *cut*, in the sense of lot, is not surely to be found in the Welsh *cwt*, and the word is not to be identified, as in most dictionaries, with *cut*, 'the act or result of cutting,' for this occurs only in "modern English, known from the sixteenth century, while *cut*, 'lot,' goes back before 1300, standing quite alone," without the sense just cited to explain or support it, and without the associated spellings *kyt*, *kit*, *ket*, of the past participle of the verb to *cut*.

"The latter circumstance," adds Dr. Murray, "opposes any such suggestion as that *cut*, 'lot,' is an absolute use of the past participle, meaning 'the cut stick or straw,' 'the cut or marked thing drawn,' a use which would, besides, be very difficult to admit at so early a date. There is no cognate word, and no derivative from any word meaning 'cutting,' used in the other Teutonic languages; in these the word *lot*, with its cognates, is the native term. It is evident that *drawing cuts* has been from the thirteenth century a more popular form of sortilege, or a more popular and colloquial expression for it, than 'casting lots.'"

That this expression is almost as obsolescent in England as it is in this country may be inferred from the fact that Dr. Murray, after Swift in 1745, quotes only Kingsley in 'Westward Ho' (1855), "We three will draw cuts for the honor of going with him."

Curse, to return for a moment to this independent formation, is not related to *cross*, as some have suggested without supplying a particle of evidence; but the latter enormously fruitful word has still some representatives in the closing part of the letter C—as, *cruise*, *crusade*, and *crux*, a 'difficulty which it torments or troubles one greatly to interpret or explain, a thing which puzzles the ingenuity.' In the case of *crux* we seem to discern the utility of the little circulars emanating from time to time from the Scriptorium, with lists of "special quotations wanted." In list X an earlier quotation than 1859 was desired for *crux*, and we now have Sheridan, 1718, and Sir William Hamilton, 1830, anticipating Maurice, 1859.

Popular etymology is well illustrated in three instances: (1) *curtail*, "originally *curtal(l)* . . . and still stressed on the first syllable by Johnson, 1773; but already in the sixteenth century the second syllable began to be associated with the word *tail* . . . and perhaps by some in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries with French *tailler*, to cut, whence the spelling *curtail*, *curt-tail*, *curtail*, and the current pronunciation, given without qualification by Walker, 1791"; (2) *curtal-ax*, "a much perverted form of the word *cutlass* (in the sixteenth-century *coutelas*, *coutelase*, *cutlass*, etc.), through the intermediate perversions, *cutt(le-ax*, and *curtelas*, *curtelace*, *curtelace*, the peculiarities of which it combines. The form *curtal ax*, with its variants, was so distinct from *cutlass* that it acquired a kind of

permanent standing, the identification of the final part with *ax* being favored by the use of the weapon in delivering slashing blows"; (3) *court-lodge* for *curtilage* (*i. e.*, *cortil*, *courtil*, little court or garth, plus the Romanic suffix *-age*, which plain folks, however, took for a compound of *court* with *lodge*, *ledge*, etc.).

The literate are responsible for the "merely graphic *b*" in *crumb* (*crum*), which began to be added in the sixteenth century," and "probably appeared first in the derivative *crumble* (where it has also invaded the pronunciation), after words of French origin like *humble;* there was also the apparent analogy of Old English words like *dumb*, where *b* was retained in the spelling, though no longer pronounced: cf. *thumb*." *Culprit*, which is "known (as a word) only from 1678," is an abbreviation by the legal profession. An abundance of evidence is cited by Dr. Murray in confirmation of the legal tradition "that when the prisoner had pleaded 'Not guilty,' the Clerk of the Crown replied with, '*Culpable: prest d'averrer nostre bille*,' i. e., '*Guilty;* [and I am] *ready* to aver our indictment'; that this reply was noted on the roll in the form *cul. prist*, etc.; and that, at a later time, after the disuse of law French, this formula was mistaken for an appellation addressed to the accused" instead of a negation of his plea, etc. Among the educated, again, *cult*, 'worship,' was used in the seventeenth century, perhaps direct from the Latin, then went out of fashion, and is rarely met with till the middle of the nineteenth, "when often spelt *culte* as in French." Indebtedness to the French has been masked, on the other hand, in the locution *curry favor* (1510), which is the older *curry favel* (1400), from "Old French *estriller fauvel*, . . . to curry the chestnut horse, hence, to employ deceit or hypocrisy, to gloze." Deliberate inventions are exemplified in *cyclone*, "a name introduced in 1848 by H. Piddington, as a general name for all storms or atmospheric disturbances in which the wind has a circular or whirling course." Carlyle alone has found *culottic* a handy synonym for respectable, and its noun *culottism* for respectability; nor do the French appear to have been tempted to appropriate them. Herman Melville is first cited as having given literary currency to the form *curio*, for curiosity (1851).

The historical function of the Dictionary is well displayed under *curfew*, beginning with the definition :

"(1.) a. A regulation in force in mediæval Europe by which, at a fixed hour in the evening, indicated by the ringing of a bell, fires were to be covered over or extinguished; also, the hour of evening when this signal was given, and the bell rung for the purpose. b. Hence, the practice of ringing a bell at a fixed hour in the evening, usually eight or nine o'clock, continued after the original purpose was obsolete, and often used as a signal in connection with various municipal or communal regulations; the practice of ringing the evening bell still survives in many towns."

Here we will introduce the illustration borrowed from Lyell's 'Second Visit to the United States' (1850): "Every evening at nine o'clock, a great bell, or curfew, tolls in the marketplace of Montgomery, after which no colored man is permitted to be abroad without a pass." Then Dr. Murray takes up the parable :

"The primary purpose of the curfew appears to have been the prevention of conflagrations arising from domestic fires left unextinguished at night. The earliest English quotations make no reference to the original sense of the word; the *curfew* being already in the thirteenth century merely a name for the ringing of the evening bell, and the time so marked. . . . The statement that the curfew was introduced into England by William the Conqueror as a measure of political repression has been current since the sixteenth century, but rests on no early historical evidence. See Freeman's 'Norman Conquest' (1875), iii., 185, as to what 'seems to be the origin of the famous and misrepresented curfew.'"

We conclude our already too extended remarks by observing that the true, and only, English use of *cui bono?* is, as appears from the earliest to the latest quotations, "what good?" "to what end?" "the ultimate purpose?" The classic sense "who profits?" in other words, is not good English, and it is impertinent to hold us to it.

The Letters of Lady Burghersh, afterwards Countess of Westmoreland, from Germany and France during the Campaign of 1813–14. Edited by her daughter, Lady Rose Weigall. London: John Murray. 1893.

PRISCILLA, the daughter of William Wellesley Pole, afterwards Lord Maryborough, granddaughter of the musical Earl of Mornington, and niece of the great Duke of Wellington, married, in 1811, Lord Burghersh, eldest son of the Earl of Westmoreland. Lady Burghersh was then only eighteen. Lord Burghersh had been aide-de-camp to the Duke of Wellington in the Peninsula, and two years after his marriage he was appointed military attaché at the headquarters of the allied sovereigns in Germany, and was ordered to Berlin. But all French and Dutch ports were closed to English vessels, and Hamburg had again been seized by Bonaparte, so that the journey had to be made from Yarmouth to the south of Sweden, and thence across the Baltic to Stralsund, on the coast of Prussia. Lady Burghersh had hitherto been so delicate that her family urged her not to attempt such a journey, but as she had no children to leave behind, she determined to accompany her husband. After being driven back to Yarmouth and delayed there by contrary winds for nearly a fortnight, Lord and Lady Burghersh landed in Sweden after an eleven days' passage across the North Sea. From the landing-place they had to walk most of the way to Gothenburg, with nothing to eat but Swedish cakes, baked only twice in the year and as hard as stone, and nothing to drink but a little rum and water. From Gothenburg they drove in their own carriage to Ystad, the port in the south of Sweden at which they were to embark for Prussia. This drive of 250 English miles occupied four days from eight in the morning till midnight; horses could be hired, but the rope harness had to be bought. Lady Burghersh had everything to arrange, for her husband was much occupied, and her French maid (afterwards most efficient) had not recovered from the voyage, and would only say, "J'ai tant souffert que ma mémoire ne me sert plus." Beds had to be carried, for the inns provided only an empty room of a few feet square in which to eat and sleep. Lady Burghersh writes: "We do very well. I have never seen a carpet or curtain, basin or jug, but we send the servants into the yard to snatch up the pans the chickens feed out of, or the pails from the stable, and make use of them."

The passage of seventy miles from Ystad to Stralsund took three days, and the latter part had to be made in a galliot, "a small thing with one mast and no cabin," so that Lady Burghersh and her maid sat in a boat on deck. Just as the galliot entered the harbor at Stralsund, an English brig, laden with nine thousand barrels of ball cartridges, blew up. "The balls and splinters of the ship came rattling down like a thick shower of hail. Every man fell flat on his face except B, who threw himself over me." On looking up, the whole sky was covered with black smoke, and not a single vestige of the ship was left; the effect on the sea was exactly as if it boiled. Lady Burghersh was so wholly intent on the magnificence of the sight that, as she says, she neither jumped nor trembled, but said to her terrified maid, "Mais regardez donc; comme c'est beau." Nobody was hurt on board the galliot, but houses were wrecked two miles off.

The journey south from Stralsund to Berlin occupied nearly a week, although Lord and Lady Burghersh were in their carriage nineteen hours out of the twenty-four. They reached Berlin just after the great battle of Leipzig: prisoners were arriving in large numbers, including several French marshals, and nearly forty thousand wounded were in the city. The ladies of Berlin had sold their jewels, and had sent their horses to the army; and at the daily receptions of Princess Radziwill everybody was busied in scraping lint. Before long, Lord Burghersh had to follow the allied forces to Frankfort, and his young wife, after enduring three weeks of suspense as to his fate, determined to make her own way thither. Accompanied by her maid, and attended by an English officer, who was an old friend of her husband's, Lady Burghersh undertook this journey of nine days, travelling in the depths of a German winter from two hours before daylight till ten o'clock at night. She writes:

"We have come all along the line of the French retreat, and, as it is not a month since they passed, the roads are covered with dead horses and the remains of dead men. . . . Every bridge blown up, every village burnt or pulled down, fields completely devastated, orchards all turned up. None of the country people will bury the French or their horses, so there they remain lying all over the fields and roads, with millions of crows feeding: the river Saale full of dead bodies."

One night Lady Burghersh had to pass in a wretched cottage crowded with soldiers; she lay on the carriage cushions spread on the floor of a windowless, fireless room, and in that bitter November night her only rug was a great coat. Yet, she says, "I slept well, and set off merrily next morning." Frankfort, where Lady Burghersh at last rejoined her husband, was full of sovereigns and ambassadors, the only women besides herself being two Russian grand-duchesses, sisters of the Emperor, and the Princess of Thurn and Taxis, sister of the late Queen Louise of Prussia. The squabbling and indecision among all the different powers was incredible, and Lady Burghersh often longed for her firm and decided uncle Wellington to be the one head to whom all should look up. The Emperor Alexander, in speaking to her of the recent campaign in Russia, regretted that he had not had such a commander as Wellington. As it was, he added, "c'est que le bon Dieux nous a servi de capitaine, et que l'exemple des Anglais nous a donné du courage." A month later Lady Burghersh writes: "We are just as far from any decision. The Emperor Francis and all his people are bent on one plan; the Emperor Alexander is directly against it; and the King of Prussia disapproves of both. They are all equally positive and obstinate." At length the Austrians prevailed, and a move was made to Lörrach, a village close to Basle. Lord and Lady Burghersh had here only one small room, and the aide-de-camp slept on straw in the kitchen, but Lady Burghersh made English tea every evening, and all the

generals and their respective staffs met in her room to discuss the position and to receive reports. The bombardment of Huningue near Basle was going on, and Prince Schwarzenberg, the Austrian general, had a hut built from which Lady Burghersh could watch the progress of the siege by day. At night she saw from her bed the shells bursting, but, after a short time, the noise ceased to disturb her sleep. Household troubles did, however, annoy her. The German landlady threatened to drive Lady Burghersh's chasseur out of the house, and the English footman declared with tears that he should lose his senses because his country was insulted.

Early in 1814 Lady Burghersh followed her husband to the headquarters of the allied forces at Langres in France; her first stage was thirty-one hours, during which time she never left her carriage. At that period the allies were everywhere received with open arms, and Lady Burghersh, while rejoicing as a wife in the probable termination of the war, adds: "As a soldier I must think it a pity to have had the power and not to have crushed that wretch [Bonaparte]." She accompanied or followed the allied forces from place to place, mourning over the misery and destitution around her. The troops had been insulted at Langres, and from that time no efforts of the commanders could either maintain discipline or prevent pillage throughout the greater part of the armies; the Cossacks knew no law, and robbed friends and foes alike; the streets of the towns were crowded with women and children begging for food, and Lady Burghersh acknowledges herself to be sick of war and all its horrors. A congress, consisting of six members, was opened at Châtillon, but they did little but give great dinners to each other, and the uncertainty and indecision continued. Lady Burghersh wrote from Châtillon: "I don't know what they mean to do, but I know that Bonaparte is employing all his energy, all his activity, and all his power, and that we are dilatory, uncertain, and (*entre nous*) frightened."

Lord Burghersh was again separated from his wife, and for a fortnight they had no news of each other. At last, quite at the end of March, Schwartzenberg gained a decisive victory over Bonaparte, and a few days later the allies entered Paris. Lady Burghersh missed this magnificent sight, as she had had to retire to Dijon, in order to avoid Bonaparte and his troops. Her advisers, Lord Aberdeen, Lord Castlereagh, and Prince Metternich, entreated her to wait before attempting the journey to Paris, but without consulting them further she set out with only her maid and footman. She was once arrested on the way, but was detained only for a few hours, and, after a journey of three days and nights, she joined Lord Burghersh in Paris. Lord Aberdeen and Lord Castlereagh never forgave her for having reached Paris before them.

On the conclusion of the war, Lord Burghersh entered the diplomatic service, and was British minister at Florence for sixteen years, at Berlin for nine years, and at Vienna for six years. Lady Burghersh had twelve children, and although she thoroughly enjoyed the cultivated and brilliant society with which she and Lord Burghersh were everywhere surrounded, her heart was always in her home. She survived her husband for twenty years, and died early in 1879, at the age of eighty-six.

The Paris Law Courts: Sketches of Men and Manners. Translated from the French by Gerald P. Moriarty. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1894.

THE illustrations with which this work is adorned will be a sufficient warning to the grave student of legal institutions that it is not intended for him. Were this warning not sufficient, the fact that the translation here presented is based upon a French original, 'Le Palais de Justice de Paris,' which was produced by members of the "Association de la Presse Judiciare," would stamp the character of the work unmistakably. The point of view taken by the journalist engaged in gathering at the courts such items as the public are supposed to delight in, is altogether different from that of the jurist or legal antiquary. But it must be conceded that the art of graphic writing is not one in which the authors of works upon comparative jurisprudence have excelled, and that the idea we get of the English courts from Dickens's stories, although somewhat distorted, is more vivid than that obtainable from other sources. Dickens's pictures, however, were generally caricatures and were always exaggerated, while the aim of the French reporters in this enterprise is a serious one, and is carried out with as much sobriety as the nature of this class of writers admits of. We have accordingly an unquestionably accurate description of whatever is to be seen by the eyes and heard by the ears at the Palais de Justice in Paris—so much so that a careful reader would feel quite at home were he to visit these halls, and would be able to understand the general movement of business with sufficient clearness. Further than this we cannot go, for we know little more of the nature of the law that is administered in France after reading this book than we did before; and, although we are constantly reminded of the differences in the procedure, we are not able to form any consistent idea of them. In fact, as the authors probably have no acquaintance with other systems of practice, and had no intention of writing for readers outside of their own country, we could hardly expect to get more than a superficial view of the subject.

Yet if we bear in mind that our jurisprudence is distinguished from that of France by two fundamental peculiarities—the use of the jury in civil actions, and the limitation of the functions of the judge in criminal proceedings to the application and exposition of the law—it is easy to see that we are upon familiar ground. We listen to the same complaints of the delays of the law, of excessive costs, of numberless fees, of absurd technicalities, of judicial arrogance, of the hardship of litigation for the poor, etc. The accounts of the different courts, it is true, show that the methodical French mind has carried the division of judicial labor much farther than we have; but, human nature being pretty much the same everywhere, the character of the grievances that are brought before the courts is not very different. Nor is the aspect of French litigants and lawyers and criminals anything peculiar, as we may learn from both the text and the illustrations. Of these, by the way, we may speak strongly. They are as a rule spirited and suggestive, evidently taken from life; and though with a touch of caricature, yet true and good character-drawing. Perhaps we should not say that they were cleverer work than the text, which is as clear as a guide-book and as sprightly as a column of gossip; but they so forcibly suggest the familiar types of our own court-houses that we appreciate them more readily.

Although trial by jury takes place in criminal cases in France, it has its peculiarities. The number of jurymen is very small, thirty-six being expected to try all the cases of a term, and the number of challenges is limited to twelve to each party. Hence the constitution of the jury, which of course is frequently of the utmost consequence, becomes a matter upon which the highest talents are exercised by the advocates. The antecedents of these three dozen men are carefully studied by counsel, both for the prosecution and the defence; their political opinions, the religious views of their wives, their family connections are all minutely investigated. In a case tried a few years ago in Corsica the selection of the jury was so carefully attended to that when the number was at last complete, the procureur-général leaned toward the counsel for the defendant and said, with a smile, "Your man is acquitted by ten votes to two." "So he is," answered the other when he looked over the list, and so it proved to be when the verdict was given. Neither evidence nor eloquence had affected the foreordained result. But we fear that stories as bad as this could be told of English juries.

Upon the whole we may say that those who want a good guide-book to the Paris courts, an intelligible account of the manner in which business is there transacted, and some French moralizing of a more or less edifying character, will find their requirement satisfactorily met by this book.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbotsford: The Personal Relics and Antiquarian Treasures of Sir Walter Scott. Illustrated. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $25.

Adams, Prof. G. B. Civilization during the Middle Ages. Scribners. $2.50.

Anti-Higher Criticism; or, Testimony to the Infallibility of the Bible. Hunt & Eaton. $1.50.

Arnold, Ethel M. Platonics: A Study. London: Osgood, McIlvaine & Co.

Arnold, Matthew. Sohrab and Rustum. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 12 cents.

Atkinson, Philip. The Electric Transformation of Power. London: Crosby, Lockwood & Son; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co.

Bayne, Thomas. Scott's Lord of the Isles. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

Benson, E. F. Six Common Things. London: Osgood, McIlvaine & Co.

Bercy, Paul. French Reader for Advanced Classes. W. R. Jenkins. $1.25.

Bryce, James. Legal Studies in the University. Macmillan. 35 cents.

Buckingham, Rev. S. G. The Life of William A. Buckingham, the War Governor of Connecticut. Springfield, Mass.: W. F. Adams Co.

Carter, A. C. R. The Year's Art. 1894. London: J. S. Virtue & Co.

Castle, Egerton. English Book Plates, Ancient and Modern. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $3.75

Chauncey, Shelton. The Greek Madonna. G. W. Dillingham.

Cherbuliez, Victor. A Phidian Horse: Art and Archæology on the Acropolis. Philadelphia: John Wanamaker.

Coxe, Brinton. An Essay on Judicial Power and Unconstitutional Legislation. Philadelphia: Kay & Bro.

Croquet, C. P. du. College Preparatory French Grammar. W. R. Jenkins.

Cunningham, Robert. The Negro as He Is: A Story. Independence, Mo.: *Sentinel* Print. 50 cents.

Dickson, H. N. Meteorology: The Elements of Weather and Climate. London: Methuen & Co.

Dupuis, Prof. N. F. Elements of Synthetic Solid Geometry. Macmillan. $1.60.

Flint, Prof. Robert. History of the Philosophy of History. Scribners. $4.

Freshfield, D. W., and Wharton, Capt. W. J. L. Hints to Travellers, Scientific and General. 7th ed. London: Royal Geographical Society.

Gamgee, Prof. Arthur. A Text-Book of the Physiological Chemistry of the Animal Body. Vol. II. The Physiological Chemistry of Digestion. Macmillan. $4.50.

Garland, Hamlin. Prairie Songs. Illustrated. Stone & Kimball. $1.25.

Grannis, Anna J. Skipped Stitches: Verses. Keene, N. H.: Darling & Co.

Greenwood, Frederick. The Lover's Lexicon. Macmillan. $1.50.

Grosart, A. B. A Bower of Delights from the Works of Nicholas Breton. [Elizabethan Library.] Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.

Gunnison, Almon. Wayside and Fireside Rambles. Boston: Universalist Publishing House.

Harrington, W. B. Our Dick. San Francisco: C. A. Murdock & Co. 50 cents.

Harrison, J. P. Archæologia Oxoniensis. English Architecture before the Conquest. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

Hazell's Annual for 1894. London: Hazell, Watson & Viney; New York: Scribners. $1.50.

Hektoen, Dr. Ludvig. The Technique of Post-Mortem Examinations. Chicago: W. T. Keener Co. $1.75.

Heller, Prof. Otto. Meyer's Gustav Adolf's Page. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30 cents.

Herbert, George. The Temple: Sacred Poems and Private Ejaculations. Illustrated. Macmillan. $2.

Hinsdale, Prof. B. A. How to Study and Teach History, with Particular Reference to the History of the United States. Appletons. $1.50.
Holyoake, G. J. The History of the Rochdale Pioneers. 3d ed., revised and enlarged. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.
Irving, W. Rip van Winkle, and the Legend of Sleepy Hollow. Illustrated. Macmillan. $2.
Jenks, Edward. Walpole: A Study in Politics. London: Methuen & Co.
Jerrold, Walter. Bon Mots of Charles Lamb and Douglas Jerrold. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 75 cents.
Johnes, Winifred. Miss Gwynne, Bachelor. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Lang, Andrew. Prince Ricardo of Pantouflia. London; Simpkin, Marshall & Co.; New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Laveleye, Emile de. Essais et Etudes. Première Série. 1861—1875. Paris: Félix Alcan.
Lethaby, W. R. Leadwork, Old and Ornamental and for the most part English. Macmillan. $1.25.
Lee, Vernon. Althea: A Second Book of Dialogues on Aspirations and Duties. London: Osgood, McIlvaine & Co.
Long, Miss Lily A. Apprentices to Destiny. Merrill & Baker. $1.
Mallory, Sir Thomas. Le Morte Darthur. Macmillan. $7.
Marcotte, Charles. Governments and Politicians, Ancient and Modern. Chicago: The Author.
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Murray, J. A. H. A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles. Part VIII. Sect. I. Crouchmas—Czech. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.00.
O'Grady, Standish. The Story of Ireland. London: Methuen & Co.
Perkins, C. C., and Dwight, J. S. History of the Handel and Haydn Society of Boston. Vol. I. Boston: Alfred Mudge & Son.
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Phillips, Claude. Sir Joshua Reynolds. Scribners. $2.50.
Piatt, J. J. Little New-World Idyls, and Other Poems. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Polk, Dr. W. M. Leonidas Polk, Bishop and General. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.
Rand, Katharine E. The Childhood of an Affinity. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Robinson, Edward. Catalogue of Greek, Etruscan and Roman Vases in the Boston Museum of Fine Arts. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
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Rossetti, Christina. Sing-Song: A Nursery Rhyme-Book. Macmillan. $1.50.
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Scherer, Georg. Gedichte. Berlin: Deutsche Verlags-Anstalt.
Schönbach, Anton G. Uber Lesen und Bildung. Graz: Leuchner & Lubensky.
Schopenhauer, Arthur. Essays. Selected and Translated by T. B. Saunders. A. L. Burt. $1.
Schulze-Gaevernitz, G. von. Social Peace: A Study of the Trade Union Movement in England. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Scott, Sir W. Kenilworth. International ed. 2 vols. Boston: Estes, Lauriat & Co.; New York: Bryan, Taylor & Co.
Scott, Sir W. Peveril of the Peak. Edinburgh: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
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Some Minor Arts as Practised in England. Illustrated. Macmillan. $7.50.
The *Green Bag*. Vol. V. 1893. Boston: Boston Book Co.
The Secret Harmony of the Spheres. Boston: American Printing and Engraving Co. $1.
Ussèle, L. A Travers le Japon. Paris: J. Rothschild.
Waliszewski, R. The Romance of an Empress, Catherine II. of Russia. Appletons. $2.
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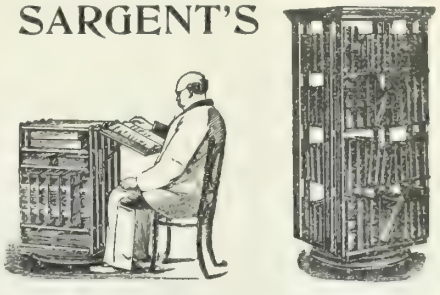

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 18, 1894.

The Week.

THE letter written by Secretary Carlisle to Senator Voorhees at the latter's request, concerning the state of the Treasury and the means of meeting the existing and impending deficit, has been delayed as long as possible. It shows that the shortage of revenue at the end of the fiscal year, June 30, will probably be $78,000,000, and that the gold balance is down to $74,000,000 at the present time. As the amount of greenbacks in the Treasury at the present time is only $5,000,000, it is evident that $21,000,000 of the greenback-redemption fund has been used for other purposes than those for which it was accumulated. Looking a little further, we find that the amount of Treasury notes (of 1890) in the Treasury is about $2,500,000. Subtract this from the last-mentioned sum, and we discover that $18,500,000 of the greenback-redemption fund has been used to meet the current expenses of the Government. It follows that until other resources are available this process must go on. The secretary must either stop payments in some quarter or continue to take money out of this fund. If he should stop payments, he ought to begin with the salaries of Congressmen in order to teach them a lesson in national finance. It is said that these statesmen think that the secretary has no right to use the greenback-redemption fund for any other purpose than that for which it was accumulated, but that he is required to pay all moneys regularly appropriated by Congress, including the salaries of Senators and Representatives. The only element wanting in this programme is some Wilkins Micawber to show him how to do it.

During the past few weeks there has been a general feeling in financial circles that a bond issue would be a material aid to the revival of business, and some popular misconceptions have grown out of it. A bond issue without any reason for it would not only not promote a revival, but would decisively damage all business interests, since it would imply socialism of the worst kind. There is a plethora of money in the banks, and they would like to lend it on the undoubted security of the Government at a very low rate of interest, but to issue bonds merely for that purpose would be an outrage wholly without justification, and which could not be committed in a country of intelligent people without producing a profound reaction and the most dismal consequences. The benefits to arise from a bond issue are like those which come to a railroad company from funding its floating debt. We are all of us part and parcel of a great corporation, which is temporarily embarrassed. It has liabilities that it cannot meet, and the reserve of former years is gradually disappearing. One of these liabilities, the most important of all, is that of keeping all kinds of money at par with gold, since all confidence and all credit depend upon this. The way to fund the floating debt and to insure the parity of all kinds of money with gold is to issue bonds temporarily. In other words, a bond issue is useful only to avert greater evils. In this light it would prove very useful, and there is no doubt that it will come, either with or without new authority from Congress.

Mr. Hornblower's nomination has been rejected in the Senate by a combination of the worst Republicans and worst Democrats. Twelve Democrats and fifteen Republicans and three Populists voted for rejection, and eighteen Democrats and six Republicans for confirmation. The thirty opposing Senators are a curious lot, containing nearly everybody who of late years has dragged the Senate down from its former high position. In the first place there are the three half-crazy Populists, Allen of Nebraska, Kyle of South Dakota, and Peffer of Kansas, and Irby of South Carolina, who is a half-Populist. Then there are our own Hill and Murphy, and there is Call of Florida, and Pugh of Alabama, and Gorman of Maryland, and Jones of Arkansas, and Coke of Texas. Among the Republicans there are "Bill" Chandler, and Quay of Pennsylvania, and Carey of Wyoming, and Dolph of Oregon, and Stewart of Nevada, and Shoup of Montana, and Teller of Colorado, and Pettigrew of North Dakota, and Hansbrough of North Dakota, and Perkins of Kansas. In fact, it may be said that there are not among the whole thirty more than two names of men whom any one that cared for the character and dignity of the Senate would put there. The Senators who would naturally have sat in the old Senate all voted for confirmation. It came out in the course of the debate that the President had not consulted the New York Senators before making the nomination, which was probably an error of tactics, but then there is no likelihood that Hill and Murphy would have agreed to it if they had been consulted. Mr. Hornblower had committed an offence against them which they could not afford to forgive. At the same time it must be said that if the President expected to fight them, Mr. Hornblower was an unfortunate candidate. They had a strong motive for opposing him, and he was not well enough known out of New York to rally the other Senators to his support. If he had been a judge already, like Judge Lacombe for instance, it would have been much more difficult to defeat him.

Mr. Bourke Cockran made on Saturday one of the best speeches on the tariff that were ever made in the House. It was not only sound in argument but extremely enlivening in the way of humor and repartee. Several of the McKinleyites were sent to grass in the course of the debate, and, among others, Mr. Walker of Massachusetts, who wanted to know whether it would not be a curse to this country if foreign nations would give us all the cotton and woollen goods we need for nothing. Mr. Cockran thought that if it were a curse, the people of Massachusetts would easily reconcile themselves to it. Mr. Walker's idea is that if all the goods we require were sent to us, like manna to the children of Israel, so that we need do nothing but pick them up, that method of supplying our wants would be disadvantageous in an economical sense. By the same reasoning it would be an advantage to us to have short crops of every kind in order that we might work harder for a living. Entertaining such views, it is no wonder that Mr. Walker refused the other day to present to Congress a petition from the Central Labor Union of Worcester, Mass., praying for the passage of the Wilson bill. His breath was nearly taken away when he received the petition, and he has been in a gasping state ever since.

Congressman Payne of this State made a noble attempt the other day to scurry rapidly over one of the rocky bits in the protectionist road. Chairman Wilson had asked how it could be, as long as only about 5 per cent. of the workingmen of this country are in protected industries, that the tariff could be alleged to be the cause of high wages. Why, said Mr. Payne with a superior air, it is obvious that the employers of the 95 per cent. of unprotected labor must pay wages as high as those earned by protected workmen, or else their employees would leave them in the lurch and go into the protected industries. In other words, all the bricklayers would turn machinists on the spot, and the farm-hands would begin to beat their ploughshares into steel rails. This has a lurking air of absurdity, but that there is a great principle lying perdu in it is clear from the fact that it has already begun to operate. The "Willing Workers" of Cincinnati, an organiza-

tion of the unemployed, have declined to accept an offer of work at $1 a day. They base this entirely on the unselfish ground that they cannot take any action which would tend to "lower laboring men's wages." They remain willing to work, of course, as their very name implies, but no offers below fifteen cents an hour can be entertained. Evidently they have been reading Congressman Payne's argument.

A national conference on good city government is to be held in Philadelphia on the 25th and 26th of this month, when various gentlemen connected in one way or another with the work of municipal reform will read papers or make addresses. These movements are all excellent because they keep up the interest in the subject, which is so apt to die out between elections. But we hope that the speakers will bear in mind that the charters of various cities, both of New York and Brooklyn for instance, are about as good now as they can be made in the present state of human nature in these parts. If we had the municipal elections separated in time from the State and national elections, and had a single head for the police, instead of a board, and if the terms of the heads of departments were conterminous with the Mayor's, we should in this city be probably as well off as any charter could make us. What we suffer from is the determination of the Republicans to treat every municipal election as a federal election, and vote in it, not on city affairs, but on the tariff or some other federal affair. The result of this is invariably that the bad and dangerous class is able to put its man in the mayoralty, and he fills the subordinate offices with his "pals." In other words, our trouble is, that the respectable classes are always divided, while the others are always united. What is the remedy for this? is the municipal problem.

There is something very refreshing about the manner in which Mr. Alfred T. White, the new commissioner of city works in Brooklyn, begins the discharge of his duties. He has announced a number of the most important appointments which he has to make, and at the same time has given the public a statement as to the changes which he has made, the reasons for making them, the offices which he has still to fill, and the principles which govern his course. In the chief engineer's place he retains the efficient man who has served the city in that position since 1877, and as water purveyor he selects a man who filled the office most acceptably during Mayor Low's two administrations. The new superintendent of streets is a well-known builder, "who," says Mr. White, "was not an applicant for the place, but who gives up his business and takes this position at my request and in the same spirit in which I take mine." There are twenty-one places in the department above the grade where the civil-service rules apply, and Mr. White announces that he proposes, in the interest of economy, to reduce the number to sixteen by abolishing some and consolidating others. As regards the laborers, he will soon have printed and ready for distribution rules and information concerning appointments somewhat similar to the regulations now in force at the United States navy-yards and in the Boston municipal service, and "framed with the intent of giving a fair chance to all who desire this occupation and of securing to the city the best service when laborers are needed."

The organization of the new Legislature of this State, as revealed in the committee lists of the two houses, leaves no room for doubt as to the governing forces of that body. The ostensible selecting authorities are Senator Saxton and Speaker Malby, but we doubt if there is a person of intelligence in Albany who believes that either of these two men acted as a free agent in his work. Both first came to this city to "consult the authorities," and it is made plain by the outcome that "the authorities" decided that the Legislature should be organized, not on an anti-Tammany or reform basis, but on a Tammany-Republican "deal" basis. The authorities in control of the Republican organization are now working in the interest of party harmony. They are seeking to "build up the organization" by bringing all factions together. They have decided that the old county machine here, with "Jake" Patterson at its head, shall not be overthrown but reorganized, with Patterson and his Boys safe and snug on the inside. They have decided that Tammany shall be not antagonized, but brought to terms, in order that the Republican organization may be nourished with a share in the local offices. The authorities who have reached these conclusions are not Platt and his men alone, but Mr. Depew, and the Hon. Whitelaw Reid, and the Hon. "Jim" Belden, who, in the language of the late Jacob Sharp, "does not stir around for nothing."

Gov. Stone of Mississippi deserves national recognition for the stand which he takes against lawlessness, in his recent message to the Legislature. He tells the law-makers that "nothing calls so loudly for correction as the present miscarriage of justice in trials for homicide," which breeds mob and lynch law, and encourages crime by begetting hope of escape from punishment; and he confesses that "the reproach that a man of means may slay his fellow-man with impunity is, alas! too true, as often exemplified" This is the most hopeful sign for the future of Mississippi that could be imagined—the admission by her executive that the alleged lawlessness really exists, and that a reform in this matter is the most important question for the Legislature to consider. The great difficulty about this subject has been the unwillingness of the South to confess the discreditable truth. No evil is ever overthrown until its existence is admitted.

It is unfortunate that the Republican National Committee has endorsed the proposition to admit as States Utah, Arizona, New Mexico, and Oklahoma. The Democrats in the House generally favor this policy, with the possible exception of Oklahoma, but it was hoped that the Republicans in the Senate might stand out against it, and that the scheme might thus fail in the pressure of more important matters, even if a majority of the upper branch were favorable. But apparently the Republican managers have concluded that they stand as good a chance as the Democrats of controlling half or more of the proposed new States, encouraged to this view regarding Utah doubtless by their party's recent victory for the first time in a municipal election at Salt Lake City. But it is begging the question to say, as the resolutions adopted by the committee declare, that such Territories as Arizona and New Mexico are "possessed of sufficient population and material resources to support State governments." That might be true, and yet it would still remain true that the rights of statehood ought not to be conferred upon a Territory like New Mexico, whose population is largely composed of ignorant Mexicans and Indians, or like Arizona, which had only 59,620 people (thousands of Indians included) when the last census was taken.

The *Investor's Review* of London, of which Mr. A. J. Wilson is the editor, has a leading article entitled "A Paralytic Bank of England." When a telegraphic notice of this article was published some two weeks ago, very little attention was given to it on this side of the water. The full text of the article, however, is apt to lead to rather sober thinking. The article is not in the nature of a raid on the bank. It is very far from having the appearance of vindictiveness. On the contrary, it has every appearance of respectability and fairness, and the motive of the writer appears to be merely to arrest bad practices, and thus to prevent an ultimate catastrophe of far greater magnitude than collapse of the Barings would have been if the bank had not virtually shouldered that sink-

ing concern. One of the points made by Mr. Wilson is that the bank's published statements are not intelligible. Take, for example, the item "other securities, £24,458,173," which appears in the list of assets. Here is an item exceeding by £10,000,000 sterling the bank's capital, about which the public knows nothing whatever. It may consist of discounted bills of exchange, in which case it would probably be good down to the last sovereign, or nearly so. It may consist of the Baring assets, or the unsalable portion thereof, the Murietta assets, the Leopold Salomon assets, etc., etc. Mr. Wilson offers the opinion that bills of exchange constitute the smallest part of this collection of "other securities," and that the outturn of the heap, while undoubtedly sufficient to satisfy every creditor of the bank, will not be sufficient to warrant the present quotation of the bank's shares in the market. The capital of the bank at par is £14,553,000, but it is bought and sold in the market as though it were £47,000,000, or at more than 300 per cent.

Another point made by Mr. Wilson is that the Bank directors as a body have no better knowledge of the character of the assets than the public generally. In the first place, they are not bankers. In this respect the Bank of England is peculiar. Its directors are all City merchants. This is a tradition. "The new director is never a banker, and rarely a man trained in the hard school of competitive business." The annual meeting of a joint-stock company never becomes interesting as long as good dividends are paid. The Bank's meetings are not exceptional in this regard. This is the way they go, says Mr. Wilson:

> "The governor utters a few platitudes about average rates of money, or the duty of other banks to keep larger balances with the bank or to publish better accounts, and, latterly, has added a sanguine prophecy about the excellent prospects of the Baring liquidation. All this is wound up with the motion for declaring a dividend. Then two or three shareholders, generally for years back a Mr. Jones and a Mr. Botlev, rise in succession and pour forth, with a touching virginity of mind, some of the most grotesquely inept observations it is possible to imagine. They know nothing about either the bank itself or about banking business, but the bank is their god, and they worship it with the utmost sincerity and heartiness."

All this has a familiar sound. It reads like an echo from the report of the Banca Romana. But the Bank of England is not to be classed with that concern. Nor are there any real grounds for uneasiness if steps are taken to liquidate the Baring and other rubbish that the Bank describes in the wide-embracing phrase "other securities." It would seem, however, that the Government ought to have independent knowledge of the nature of the Bank's bill-book by an examination once each year.

The British Parliament has before it a bill to prohibit advertisements in public places in rural districts, with elaborate provision for the protection of pillars, posts, gates, fences, walls, hoardings, trees, "or any other thing whatsoever" that is visible to any person on any "highway, main road, footpath, bridle-path, railroad, canal, navigable river, or any place open to the public." That this particular bill has small chance of success at the tag end of a momentous session does not detract from its interest as a sign of the times. It is one of many proofs that the slow-moving Briton has passed beyond the letter-to-the-*Times* stage of protest. Among the amendatory clauses, now under consideration, to the act regulating the powers of the Thames embankment commissioners, is one which authorizes the conservators to "prohibit and regulate the exhibition of advertisements and placards . . . or advertising . . . in any form, on the river . . . or on its banks." The year 1893 also saw the formation of a "national society for checking the abuses of public advertising," with 600 enthusiastic members. Branches of this society in the provincial towns are the next announced step on the programme. The association aims so to arouse and crystallize public opinion that 1894 may not pass without the accomplishment of an act of Parliament that will give the deathblow to present advertising abuses.

The initial step towards such legislation, for town and country, has been already taken. Mr. Edmund Boulnois, M.P., acting in concert with the National Society, has ready the draft of a general bill, to be called the "advertisements regulation act," which will empower all "local authorities" throughout Great Britain and Ireland to regulate advertising, to charge a public fee for the privilege, with a fine (not more than $25 for each offence, and $10 a day for every day during which the offence is continued after conviction) for disregard of the law, and with absolute exclusion of any kind or sort of advertisement, or of "advertisement stations," from any "arable land or pasture land, woodland, garden, public park, common, inland or tidal water, foreshore, or any part of the same, . . . or upon any tree, rock (or any part of the soil) . . . or at any railroad station distant more than 200 yards(!) from the nearest booking-office." Provision is also to be made for the *removal* of advertisements and "sky-signs"—beyond the reasonable and necessary professional or business signs attached to buildings—from streets, commons, and other public places. In a word, the British public proposes to control and reform a very potent and insidious phase of public education.

An instructive light is thrown upon the working of our tariff laws by a report of the silk-manufacturers of Saint-Étienne lately presented to the French Government. In it they took up specifically the question of their exports to the United States, Russia, and Switzerland, and the bearing on their business of tariff laws, foreign and domestic. A study of the table setting forth their sales to the United States reveals some curious relations of their exports to our customs legislation. For a time after the passage of one of our tariff bills the exports invariably fall off, only to rise again as invariably in a year or two. Thus, in 1885 the exports of ribbons and velvets from Saint-Étienne fell to $480,000, though they had amounted to as much as $1,800,000 before the tariff of 1883 was passed. However, they slowly mounted again till, in 1890, the figures were upwards of $2,600,000. This was frightful, and McKinley hurried to double the rates. Down fell the Saint-Étienne exports, of course, but equally of course they began to rise again, and in 1892 amounted to $1,260,000, or more than twice what they were in 1885, before McKinley began his holy war against foreigners. Now, to what do the manufacturers attribute their ability thus to encounter hostile legislation? Incredible as it may seem, to their ingenuity in inventing new processes and products and to their energy and enterprise in building up a foreign trade. Against these arms of precision, what can our barbarous tariff bows and arrows and blunderbusses hope to do?

The prompt trial and conviction of Vaillant, the Parisian bomb-thrower, reflect credit on the French judicial system and show a distinct toning-up of the courage of French juries on the subject of anarchist crimes. Two years ago, when Ravachol, even more of a human monster than Vaillant, was tried, the jury were forced to find him guilty, but put "extenuating circumstances" into their verdict, so that his sentence was only imprisonment for life, although he was afterwards tried and executed for another crime. This was generally believed to have been due to the terrorism in which the jury was held by anarchists; but though the same tactics were resorted to in Vaillant's case, the result was different. Doubtless every sane man in France is convinced at last that self-preservation, if no other motive, calls for the speediest possible throttling of the anarchists, and thus judges and juries have now assured them the indispensable backing of a strong public opinion. Our common-law ideas of the impartiality of presiding judges leave us somewhat bewildered at the active share in the prosecution taken by the French judges, but, after all, there can be no doubt that substantial justice has been done.

WHAT TO DO WITH HAWAII.

MR. TURPIE of the Senate committee on foreign relations has submitted the following resolution:

"Resolved, That from the facts and papers laid before us by the Executive and other sources, it is unwise, inexpedient, and not in accordance with the character and dignity of the United States to consider further at this time either the treaty or project of annexation of the Hawaiian territory to this country; that the provisional government therein having been du y recognized, the highest international interests require that it shall pursue its own line of polity. Foreign intervention in the political affairs of these islands will be regarded as an act unfriendly to the Government of the United States."

Mr. Frye has a somewhat similar one hanging over since the 3d of January, which condemns interference by our Government, "either by moral influence or physical force, for the restoration of the Queen or the maintenance of the provisional government," and asks that our naval forces should be used only for the protection of the lives and property of American citizens.

Now, the passage of Mr. Turpie's resolution at this time is the very best disposition that can be made of the Hawaiian question. Mr. Dole was perfectly right when he told Mr. Willis that our Government had now no right to interfere with him. This is quite true. Mr. Dole is the head of probably the most rascally and illegitimate little state in the world, but a state it is. His Government has been recognized by us and all other foreign governments which have any dealings with him. It is the only Government of Hawaii. It has the army and navy and the forts, and can kill any of its subjects who disobey it. Mr. Cleveland's request that it should let the Queen come back has been refused. When she rejected the conditions on which our assistance in getting back was first offered to her, Mr. Willis ought not to have meddled further in the business. In transactions of this kind there is no room for change of mind. The refusal of a throne is always final.

The provisional government and "the missionary element" being now masters of the situation, there is no reason why they should not go on and govern the Islands in their own way, and show the wicked natives what a Christian government is. We are responsible to them for nothing except protection from any other foreign power. Meanwhile we have nothing to do but see that American life and property in the Islands are safe. The President has referred the whole business to Congress, but Congress can do nothing except pass an act for the annexation of the Islands, and to do this there seems to be no disposition anywhere. The continuance of the inquiry into the Hawaiian matter and the debating about it can, therefore, have no object but to harass President Cleveland and discredit his administration, but as he is not a candidate for reëlection, this seems hardly worth while.

We say hardly worth while, because there are two very serious domestic questions before the country about which Congress can do something, and which imperatively demand its attention. One is the tariff and the other is the deficit in the revenue. The Treasury is on the verge of bankruptcy, and nothing has yet been done to help it out of its fix. Mr. Carlisle asks for authority to make a small temporary loan, and he does not get it. The whole country is waiting for the Wilson bill to be either passed or defeated, and though it is now nearly a year and a half since the people pronounced positively against Republican finance, nothing has been provided to take its place. The debate drags slowly on, and the arguments pro and con which have been doing duty for twenty and, for that matter, for a hundred years, still darken the air of the House. We have reached the middle of January, and the spring trade will open in six weeks more in absolute uncertainty, unless Congress settles down to business.

But it is impossible to dismiss the Hawaiian trouble without remarking on the illustration it affords of the value of a trained diplomatic service. Had we had it, had Mr. Stevens been a man who had learned his trade under competent instructors, his meddling in the conspiracy of "the missionary element" would have been impossible. To an old Blaineite preacher and editor, however, it seemed the most natural thing in the world. So also we may say that a trained man in Mr. Willis's place would have paid no attention to the Queen's second resolution, but would have washed his hands of the matter after receiving the first. This defect in our diplomacy—the absence of men who know the business—is not usually brought out in Europe, because our interference there is exceedingly rare. We have had no serious trouble with any European power since 1812 except the *Alabama* affair with England, and that wrecked two of our ministers, Mr. Motley and Mr. Reverdy Johnson. Our ministers in Europe are usually simple observers. But when we begin to meddle, as in Hawaii, and our agent goes beyond the reach of the telegraph, he is very apt to get out of his depth promptly. A more absurd person than old Mr. Stevens to represent a great nation could hardly be imagined, and yet if "the missionary element" had not asked him to a share in their enterprise, we should never have known it. Unhappily nothing, or very little, is done by our press at home to correct this weakness of our system or enlighten public opinion about it, for no matter of what folly or excess our minister may be guilty abroad, the majority of the editors, on some queer theory of patriotism, proceed to back him with the wildest yells and contortions.

NO STEPS BACKWARD.

MR. TOM JOHNSON of Ohio made a rattling speech on the tariff question last week. Mr. Johnson is a manufacturer of steel rails at Johnstown. He says that no duty on rails is needed, and that it serves only to keep up the "steel-rail combine," enabling them to subsidize a portion of their plant and pay certain members for discharging their hands and standing idle. Mr. Dalzell of Pennsylvania did not believe there was any such pool in existence now, although he admitted that there had been heretofore. Mr. Johnson thereupon gave a narrative of facts within his own knowledge. He said that a new pool was formed last November which agreed to give the manufacturers at Sparrow's Point, Md., $1,000 a day to close their works and discharge their men. It was a part of the bargain that the others should maintain the price of rails at $29 per ton. One of the members secretly undersold the pool. Carnegie made war on him, put the price down to $19, closed him up, and then formed another pool. This explains the mysterious fluctuations in rails a month or two ago. Nobody could get a quotation that could be depended upon. The price was $29, $25, $22, and $19, all within a very short period, but nobody could quote prices six months ahead. This violent fluctuation was due to the internal spasms of the steel-rail combine. Mr. Dalzell, the representative of Pittsburgh in the House, said that he could not controvert Mr. Johnson's facts, but that if such a pool had been formed, he deprecated it as much as anybody.

Mr. Johnson, in the course of his remarks, spoke of the Carnegie works as the finest mill in the world. This gave Mr. Walker of Massachusetts the opportunity to say that "protection made it." Mr. Johnson denied this. He said that "Bill Jones made it." He and Bill Jones were old friends. He knew exactly what Jones had done, and what Carnegie had done, and what the tariff had done. He considered the tariff a damage to all concerned, and especially to the workingmen. He did not go into the history of the iron trade in this country. If he had done so, he might have told Mr. Walker that the superiority of the United States to Great Britain as a producer of iron was at one time so great that the English manufacturers besought Parliament to prohibit the importation of American iron into the United Kingdom, and pro phesied the ruin of their own industries if such importation were allowed; and that this superiority lasted until the policy of protection was adopted by us. Mr. Johnson is right.

The conclusion of Mr. Johnson's speech was weighted with words of wisdom. "I know," he said, "that there are many Democrats here who are not in sympathy with the Democratic platform, and are at heart protectionists. The

part of political wisdom for them is to go over to the Republican party, where, in the struggle now beginning over economic issues, they really belong. But while they remain with the Democracy they must share its fate, and whether they may deem it politically wise or foolish for the Democracy to have begun this fight against protection, they must certainly see that the only safety now is in going forward." These remarks apply to all the Democratic members of both House and Senate. The protected classes are holding meetings everywhere to intimidate Democratic Congressmen. The woollen manufacturers held such a meeting in this city last week. It had no other purpose. Does any Democrat suppose that these woollen men will take him up and reëlect him to Congress if he votes against the Wilson bill? Will they rally around any Democratic flag in any part of the country? No; they will give every vote and every dollar they can raise to the election of the Republican nominee of the district, whoever he may be. The Democratic member who allows himself to be intimidated by these protected classes will fall between two stools.

No, there can be no steps backward so far as the Democratic party or individual Democrats are concerned. The only safety is in going forward, and in dragging the decrepit woollen men along. So long as these people are leaning on a tariff of 50, 60, 70, and so on up to 303 per cent. as Mr. Wilson showed the other day, they will never learn to do without it. They will always be under terror of the Ohio political shepherds to such an extent that they will never have time or opportunity to learn their own trade properly. That terror was the reason for last week's meeting. It is not fear of the Wilson bill, but of what the Ohio shepherds may do hereafter if the Wilson bill passes, that brings them together. The shepherds have held the manufacturers responsible for a good stiff duty on wool. There was some show of logic in their position as long as the Republicans were in power. There is no logic in it now, because the woollen manufacturers cannot control the Democratic party as they did control the Republican. Yet the inexorable wool-growers continue to threaten the manufacturers with awful consequences if they allow any bill to pass which contains the item of free wool, even though they may be as innocent as spring lambs of any intention to bring about that result.

THE SOCIALIST'S "OPPORTUNITY."

We have received a letter in defence of socialism which suggests several questions. It maintains that the State is bound to give every man an "opportunity" to work, "to provide for his wants himself." But who is to judge whether "the opportunity to provide for his wants himself" is a proper and sufficient one—"the State" or the man? You may offer him work, but suppose it is work which he dislikes and for which he says he is not fit—what then? Who shall decide between you? Are you bound to provide every man with work in his own trade—the builder with building, the tailor with clothing-making, and so on? If so, what about the market for his products? Who is to see to the sale of the houses or the clothing? At present the employer looks after the market, and if he sees signs that it is overstocked, he cuts down his production. But the State could not do this if it owed every man an "opportunity."

Then, again, how is the question of the reasonableness of a man's "wants" to be settled? If left to himself, he would naturally surround himself with every comfort, including, of course, a modicum of wholesome amusement, such as a night per week at the theatre or opera. If left to the trades unions, they would pay five dollars a day for street-cleaning, and other occupations in proportion. If left to "the State," the question would be passed on by gentlemen anxious to make themselves "solid" with the working classes, and they would undoubtedly make the opportunity as "golden" as possible. And then who is to manage this business of distributing opportunities? The demand for them would be enormous, and it is safe to say that it would take all the business talent of the community, and twice as much more, to meet it with any approach to justice and regularity. Where is this talent to come from? What salaries would you pay for it? And, above all, how would private employers keep these men, or get any work out of them, when the men knew that they had only to go to the Government office to claim an "opportunity" to work in their own way? It is difficult to conceive of any business calling for manual labor continuing very long in operation under a system in which the State competed with the individual capitalist by offering employment on what might be called the laborer's own terms.

Not less important than any of these questions is the question what, under this system, is to become of the large body of industrious, thrifty, and self-controlled people by whom all modern governments are now maintained, who make their own "opportunities," and seek nothing from the State but security. To this class the great body of the people in every modern State belongs. Travel in any direction you will, and you find the country full of them, in farmhouses and in workshops. They are not as a general rule rich. It is as much as they can do to earn a livelihood, pay their taxes, and lay up something for their old age. When they begin life, they try one thing or another till they find their proper place, and ask no favors from any one. Besides supporting themselves they have to support all the ne'er-do-weels and incompetents and paupers in the country. It is a great mistake to suppose that the lazy fellows and the "dead beats" live on air. They are maintained, in some sort of fashion—by gifts, loans, or poor rates—by the industrious and thrifty. It is a great mistake, too, to suppose that the "dead-beats" have no opportunities offered them. There is probably no broken man or failure in the country who has not had, if his health was good, many opportunities offered him when beginning life. He has probably missed them through stupidity, or drunkenness, or unsteadiness, or dishonesty, and he then comes for subsistence on the steady and prosperous. Is not this burden enough for the steady and prosperous?

In case the State offered opportunities to workingmen in bad times, it would, of course, find itself with immense quantities of goods on hand for which there was no market, for the demand for opportunities would be greatest when the demand for goods was slackest. These goods, like all goods made by men who have neither pride in their work nor fear of dismissal before their eyes, would probably be of poor quality, and, in default of purchasers, they would have to be stored, and being stored would depreciate. The outgo for wages and material would, however, continue, and would have to come out of the taxes, and the worse the times were, of course, the heavier the taxes would be, and it is the industrious men who find their own opportunities who would have to pay them. How long would they stand this system? How long would it be before they withdrew the opportunities and drove the opportunity men to the workhouse or the waste lands?

One of the most curious things about socialists is that they never work out their system in detail. We believe there is not in the whole body of socialistic literature, now very large, a single attempt to give us a particular, and minute, and serious account of the machinery of a socialist state. There have been *jeux d'esprit*, like Bellamy's book, and there have been burlesques by writers hostile to the system; but there is not a single book or brochure which tells exactly how the scheme of State provision for everybody would be carried out. In all the socialist writings, the source from which "the State" is to get its income is passed over without mention, and so is the market in which the socialist goods are to be sold. There are, in fact, two great assumptions at the bottom of the whole theory: one is, that the resources of the State are mysterious and inexhaustible; and the other is, that the present well-to-do class would under socialism continue in existence, and not only pay workingmen whatever wages they asked, but joyfully meet all demands made on it in the shape of property and income taxes, and buy all

the State goods, while the laborers had short hours, steady employment, and a fair share of the luxuries. That any such state of things is probable or possible, no proof is ever offered. All our experience of human nature makes it improbable. Every man's experience of his own nature makes it impossible. No sober-minded and industrious man would stay in any such community any more than in a madhouse. The lucubrations of the young professors of political economy about it are as valuable as Bellamy's book, and yet the professors are all possessed with the idea that they are pushing forward the boundaries of a new "science" with wonderful rapidity.

REGULATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION.

BOTH a starting-point and a goal for the reform of secondary instruction and college-admission examinations in this country have been furnished by the movement begun by a few members of the National Educational Association during the summer of 1892, and guided to a successful issue by a committee of ten, of which President Eliot of Harvard was chairman. The report of this committee has just been printed by the Bureau of Education as a public document, and it is well within the mark to say that no more carefully prepared and comprehensive publication on an educational subject has appeared in this country. In form it resembles the "Lehrpläne und Lehraufgaben" issued from time to time by the Prussian minister of education, but in scope it far surpasses any such document.

The need of such an investigation and report as the committee of ten have made was urged by the colleges and secondary schools in every part of the country. Except in those Western States where a State university stands at the head of the State school system and binds the high schools to itself—as in Michigan, Minnesota, or Nebraska—there is great uncertainty and diversity in the relations of the secondary schools to the colleges, and in the work of the secondary schools themselves. This very investigation, indeed, brought to light the fact that more than forty separate subjects of instruction were to be found on the programmes of prominent secondary schools. It is well known, also, that many of the larger colleges often throw preparatory school work into the greatest confusion by arbitrary changes in their admission examinations.

To secure relief from what was rapidly becoming an intolerable condition of confusion and diversity was not easy. Every important educational interest had to be consulted and brought into co-operation, and the broadest possible basis laid for the reform movement. This was done, in a measure, by having the appointment of the committee emanate from a thoroughly representative body like the National Educational Association. It was made more certain by the composition of the committee and its admirable mode of procedure. The committee represented in its membership universities and colleges of every type, public high schools and endowed academies, and the special students of educational institutions and administration. Its mode of procedure consisted (1) in putting into specific form the problems to be solved, (2) in determining just what subjects ought to appear on a secondary-school programme, (3) in calling conferences of experts in each of these subjects, and (4) in framing a general report on the conclusions reached by these special conferences.

Nine conferences were appointed, each consisting of ten members, and the list contains the names of many leading American scholars and teachers. Hale and Collar, for example, were members of the Latin conference; D'Ooge, Keep, and Wheeler of that on Greek; Kittredge, Maxwell, and Thurber of that on English; Van Daell and Grandgent of that on other modern languages; Byerly, Fine, Newcomb, and Safford of that on mathematics; Remsen of that on physics and chemistry; Coulter of that on natural history; C. K. Adams, Hart, Macy, and Woodrow Wilson of that on history; and Chamberlin, Davis, and Harrington of that on geography. Fortunately the reports of the special conferences are appended to the report of the committee of ten, and these in themselves are well worth the trouble and expense involved in their preparation.

Five main topics were considered by the several conferences, and the discussion of these was the main business of the committee of ten. These topics were, the proper limits of the several subjects of instruction in secondary schools, the best methods of instruction, the best methods of testing pupils' attainments, the most desirable allotment of time for each subject, and the requirements in it for admission to college. On four of these points the conferences are so unanimous in recommending what progressive teachers agree in considering wisest and best that the committee of ten find little to do beyond enumerating and enforcing their recommendations. The remaining point, however, that of time-allotment among the several subjects, is a more difficult one. It involves the very troublesome task of programme-making.

Yet even here the committee did not find that the conferences were unreasonable. Each group of specialists was naturally desirous of securing time for the proper study of its own subject, but on adding together the demands as to time made by the nine groups, the result is seen to be within the possibilities of a large and well-equipped school, though far too much for any single pupil to attempt. Several programmes of study, not one alone, must therefore be made. The committee of ten provide in tabular form the material of which a thousand programmes may be made, and then give four sample programmes of their own. As these last represent the mature conclusions of the committee, reached after a prolonged study of the recommendations of the conferences, they will naturally attract a great deal of attention, and it is to them that the average principal of a secondary school will first turn. The four sample programmes are called, respectively, the classical, the Latin-scientific, the modern-language, and the English. The first makes provision for three foreign languages, one of which is modern. The second finds room for Latin and one modern language. The third embraces both French and German, but no ancient language; while the fourth provides for one foreign language, which may be either Latin, French, or German. No one of the programmes excludes the study of natural science, and the same is true as to history and geography. The time-allotment among the several subjects affords opportunity to win from each the kind of mental training it is fitted to supply. The different principal subjects are put on an approximately equal footing. All short information courses are omitted, and the instruction in each of the main lines—namely, language, science, history, and mathematics—is substantially continuous. These are all sound principles for the making of school programmes.

The committee are of opinion that under existing conditions in the United States as to the training of teachers and the provision of necessary means of instruction, the classical and Latin-scientific programmes must in practice be distinctly superior to the other two. In other words, we have not yet reduced the teaching of natural science and the modern languages to the same precision that is found in the case of the classics and mathematics; nor are competent teachers of the former subjects yet at hand in sufficient number to make it possible for the secondary schools to treat them on an equality with the latter.

On the subject of the relations between the colleges and the secondary schools, the committee speak with no uncertain sound. "It is obviously desirable," says the report, "that the colleges and scientific schools should be accessible to all boys or girls who have completed creditably the secondary course, . . . no matter to what group of subjects they may have mainly devoted themselves in the secondary school." It is, of course, recognized that, as secondary-school courses are now organized, with many feeble and scrappy

bits of instruction on a large variety of subjects, this is not a reasonable request to prefer to the colleges. But if the recommendations of the conferences and the committee were carried out, all the main subjects would take equal rank in the school. All would be taught consecutively and thoroughly. All would be used for training the powers and observation, memory, expression, and reasoning, though differing among themselves in quality and substance.

The latest published statistics show that there are in the United States more than 2,700 public high schools, with about 210,000 pupils. Of these, 25,000 are being prepared for college. There were at the same time more than 1,700 private secondary schools, with 98,000 pupils. Of these, 20,000 were being prepared for college. If the recommendations of the committee of ten be followed in spirit as well as in letter, both the 45,000 pupils who look forward to a college education and the 163,000 who expect to end their systematic study with the high school, will be given an immensely improved opportunity for sound training. The secondary schools will work in harmony, while retaining each its own individuality. And admission to college will be an incident in secondary-school work instead of the sole *terminus ad quem*.

THE FINANCIAL CRISIS IN GREECE.

ATHENS, December 20, 1893.

THIS small corner of Europe, which has played such an important and glorious part in the world's history, is laboring at present under the worst crisis that it has known since the recognition of its independence in 1830. Greece has run so heavily into debt that she can no longer meet her engagements. On December 15 the Greek Chamber of Deputies accepted the Government's proposal to pay a provisional instalment of 30 per cent. on the January coupon of the public debt, and to open negotiations with the bondholders with a view to a reduction of the capital of the debt; and yet, in 1867, the treasury balance of the Greek Finance Department closed with a surplus of 4,000,000 drachmas,* on a total revenue of 32,000,000.

What has created such a sad transition from abundance to bankruptcy? The answer is not easily put into a few words; Greek finance is a difficult problem even for professional financiers. The present situation is the result of many concurrent causes, which I shall merely attempt to outline. The sum total of the Greek public debt amounts to about 820,000,000 francs ($164,000,000), including the floating debt. The annual interest and sinking fund required on this capital is 35,329,500 francs ($7,066,000), more than five-sixths of which must be remitted abroad to foreign bondholders. As the total revenues of the state have just reached 100,000,000 dr. per annum, it is quite evident that the exportation of half of the same is a drain that a country like Greece cannot endure. The beginnings of the Greek public debt go back to the war of Liberation, before the establishment of an independent state. In 1824 the provisional government raised a loan of $4,000,000, which was entirely paid off three years ago; and in 1832 Greece borrowed 60,000,000 francs (afterward increased to 100,000,000, but reduced since then to 73,000,000). But up to 1861 no more loans were contracted. Between 1861 and 1871 the public debt was increased by 31,000,000 francs, and in 1871–1880 some 100,000,000 francs more were borrowed, thus bringing up the nominal total of the public debt to 256,000,000 francs. With the year 1881 begins a period of large loans, great internal development, and territorial extension. Thus, Greece borrowed 129,000,000 francs in 1881, 100,000,000 francs in 1884, 30,000,000 francs in 1885, 135,000,000 in 1887, 15,000,000 in 1888, some 155,000,000 in 1889, 60,000,000 in 1890–91, and 36,500,000 in 1892. Besides this there is a floating debt of 130,000,000 francs. This gives a grand total of 1,065,000,000 francs that Greece has borrowed since her political regeneration. Of this nominal capital (Greece has actually received only some 825,000,000 francs in cash), about 245,000,000 francs have been already paid off, leaving the outstanding capital of the public debt, as I said above, at 820,000,000 francs, or a burden of 372.72 francs ($74.54) per head of population.

The question naturally arises, How has all this money been spent? And in answering I shall not deal with the period prior to 1881, as that would carry me too far. Suffice it to say that a country which had been laid waste by a nine years' war, after four centuries of Asiatic oppression, was naturally destitute of everything that goes to make up civilization. Roads, harbors, public works, posts and telegraphs, national defence—all had to be created, as it were, out of nothing. If, therefore, the internal condition of Greece in 1877 was not all that could be desired, it was certainly all that could be expected for an outlay of 256,000,000 fr. Then came the war scare of 1877–1881, causing an increase of the public debt by some 140,000,000 and bringing about the forced circulation of bank-notes. However, the policy of those years had a happy issue in the acquisition of Thessaly, a fertile wheat-growing province of 13,000 square kilometres.

Since 1881 the public debt has been swelled by a nominal capital of 810,000,000 fr. (including the floating debt), the actual yield of which was 595,000,000 fr. Of this latter sum, 83,000,000 went to cover the 1877–1881 deficits, 170,000,000 to convert or consolidate older loans at a lower rate of interest, 67,000,000 to abolish the forced circulation, 66,000,000 as state subventions toward the construction of railways that are eventually to become state property; 26,000,000 for road-making; and 27,000,000 for three ironclads. The remainder, a sum of 156,000,000 fr., was employed solely in covering the deficits of the administrative years 1882–1892. In 1871 the annual interest and sinking-fund percentage on the debt amounted to 7,793,000 dr., most of which did not leave the country. Even as late as 1878 the annual amount paid out to foreign bondholders was only about 1,500,000 fr. But in 1883 it rose to 14,000,000 fr., and three years later to 22,000,000 fr., while to-day it has reached about 32,000,000 fr.

During the past eleven years, Mr. Tricoupis, the present prime minister, has been in power for an aggregate of eight years, and it has been his policy, by raising foreign loans in rapid succession, to attract foreign capital to Greece, to convert and consolidate older loans at a lower rate of interest, and to execute needed public works. An excellent programme, no doubt, but it is evident to-day that it has been carried out with too much precipitation, burdening the country with heavy obligations ere it was sufficiently developed to meet them. Another detail of Mr. Tricoupis's policy was the payment of the interest on the public debt each time out of the proceeds of a new foreign loan, in order to avoid exporting gold from the country; meanwhile a proportionate amount in bank-notes was placed to the credit of the public debt in Athens. Thus for several years no gold was exported for payments on coupons, and the country had a breathing-spell. But this, too, has proved a dangerous, one may say disastrous, course for Greece, as it practically resulted in borrowing to pay ordinary expenses.

It must be said, in Mr. Tricoupis's justification, that his policy has twice been rudely interrupted and seriously put back by a change of administration, and by the creation of financial burdens which he was in no wise responsible for, and yet had to provide for upon returning to power. Thus, in 1882, he had to pay off 83,000,000 fr. of debts of his predecessors for the war troubles of 1877-1881. In December, 1884, he abolished the forced circulation of bank-notes by paying back 67,000,000 fr. to the National Bank; but shortly afterward he was hurled from power by the elections of 1885, and his successor, Mr. Delyannis, had hardly ruled the country two months before the revolt in Eastern Rumelia broke out, causing the Servo-Bulgarian war and the foolish armaments in Greece. This of course necessitated a loan, and as foreign capitalists would have nothing to do with him, Mr. Delyannis laid hands upon the gold reserve of the banks; thus the forced circulation was again revived, to the amount of 75,000,000 fr. (since then raised to 90,000,000). Besides this, Mr. Delyannis contracted debts, about 55,000,000 fr. in all, which Mr. Tricoupis had to pay off, on returning to power in 1887. Thus the burden of forced circulation has been made a double one.

In spite of all these interruptions and obstacles, however, Mr. Tricoupis's policy has had sufficient trial to prove it to be not the one best adapted to the country's needs and resources. It has already been mentioned that 170,000,000 fr. were employed in converting or consolidating older loans, and it is true that an annual economy of 6,000,000 fr. has thereby been effected in the interest on the loans converted. But unfortunately many of these represented native capital and have all been converted into foreign loans; and thus the interest, being now paid out of the country, is a direct drain upon the country's gold reserve. Public works and railways since 1881 have cost Greece about 100,000,000 fr. This is an item no one can reasonably take exception to, nor is it this that has ruined Greece. On the contrary, travel is now much easier, and its great increase is a distinct source of revenue. Far heavier is the item of war-like preparations during the war-scares of 1877 and 1885, representing a total of 270,000,000 fr. Unfortunately for her finances, Greece has several millions of Greeks under Turkish rule to think of; this is the inheritance forced upon the Greeks by the London Convention of 1830, which refused to grant independence to more than one-fourth of the Greek lands that had fought nine long years for their freedom. Free Greece cannot, therefore, be indifferent to the fate of the Greeks in Turkey, nor cease to regard their present condition as transient; and it is ever the professed aim of Greek statesmen to build up resources which

*The Greek drachma at par is equivalent to the French franc. At present, owing to the forced circulation of paper currency, the exchange on gold is quite high—65 per cent above par. It has not been below 20 per cent. for several years, and recently was as high as 88 per cent. In this letter *dr.* stands for paper drachmas, *fr.* for francs or drachmas in gold.

shall enable Greece, at a happy juncture, to strike an effective blow for their liberation. But this naturally entails patient and systematic work, such as unfortunately has never yet been understood in Greece; and the only efforts made have been hasty armaments upon sudden excitement, which have resulted in nothing else than an increase of the public burdens. An exception must be made in favor of the three ironclads built in 1890, whereby the permanent strength of the Greek navy has been raised to a very respectable degree.

There is another item in the public debt since 1881, which, though not the largest, is yet the most discouraging. As already stated, 156,000,000 fr. effective (equivalent to a nominal capital of about 220,000,000 fr.) has been used to cover the deficits of the administrative years 1882–1892. Since 1882 only the year 1887 shows a balance of revenue and expenditure. In fact, the curse of annual deficits dates back to 1871; the budget of 1861 balanced at 25,000,000 dr., and that of 1867 shows a surplus of 4,000,000. Since 1882 the arrears of revenue have run up to a total of 75,000,000 dr. Here we have it, then, in a nutshell—Greece has become bankrupt within fifteen years, first, through injudicious borrowing and conversions, secondly, through heavy expenditure, caused by two war-scares, thirdly, through laxity of administration. The first two evils may be attributed to errors of judgment, partly justified by legitimate considerations. Greece needed railways and public works, and it seemed best to borrow 100,000,000 fr. for this purpose. It seemed very advantageous, too, to convert 5 or 6 per cents into 4½ per cents. It seemed to be the duty of the Greek Government to stand by the Greeks in Turkey; and no friend of liberty can condemn the Panhellenic "idea"—it is the foolish methods adopted in furthering that idea that must be condemned. But the charge of laxity in the administration, extending over a long period of years, cannot be palliated by any such considerations. No country can hope to have the respect and confidence of the world until it learns to live within its income, and the present misfortunes of Greece are due chiefly to the fact that her statesmen, with all their intelligence, have committed the unpardonable error of imagining that two and two could ever make more than four.

Two causes may be assigned for this unfortunate administration. First is the defective system of taxation, which is most iniquitous in Greece and weakens the country more and more every year. Instead of a land tax (in the absence of a proper survey), there is a heavy tax on ploughing-animals that greatly depresses agriculture. The tax on wine is levied at the grape-press, no matter whether the grape-juice, after several months, turns out good wine or not; thus the wine trade is kept in a state of sickly infancy. The duties on petroleum, sugar, coffee, and imported cereals are oppressively high for such articles of prime necessity. The tax on tobacco is levied in a very wasteful manner. These are only a few of the more glaring defects of the present system.

The second and most potent cause of maladministration is—*parliamentarism*. The utter dependence of the Cabinet upon the good-will of the majority in the Chamber of Deputies (there is no Senate) entails unlimited interference of the legislature in the details of administration. A deputy of the Government party can secure anything fair or foul, from a snug little public office for a constituent (regardless of the latter's fitness for it) to the pardon of a convicted murderer. Even the army and navy have been invaded by this pestilential meddling, to the utter confusion of all discipline and *esprit de corps*. And the finances have been thoroughly demoralized, on the one hand by the exemption of Government protégés from taxation, on the other by wasteful expenditure for party interests. Greece was given a full-rigged parliamentary form of government without having undergone any preparatory political training, and this régime, like a razor in the hands of a child, has not failed to produce disastrous results.

The reduction of the debt will entail great direct loss to the Greeks themselves, for many millions of Greek bonds are owned by Greeks and Greek institutions throughout the East. It is therefore unfair to impute any underhand motives to this proposal of the Greek Government, and no doubt the approaching negotiations with the bondholders will be carried on in a spirit of equity and sincerity. It lies in the creditors' interest to ask no more than the country can pay without crippling its productive resources. Let us hope their present plight will teach the Greeks a salutary lesson. Equilibrium of the budget must hereafter be the cornerstone of their financial policy, at all costs. The burdens of the public revenue must be more equitably distributed and impartially collected, and serious effort be made to encourage native industry and agriculture. Greece is by no means an exhausted land, in spite of her checkered career in the past. She could easily produce enough grain for home consumption; while her olives, oil, wine, currants, figs, and tobacco could, with proper enterprise, bring in dozens of millions of francs more a year than they do at present. The silk trade could be made a mine of gold. The country further abounds in beautiful stone and marble of every variety and color, and is rich in minerals and metallic springs. In fact, even a superficial observer sees unworked sources of wealth in every direction, which need only capital and enterprise to enrich both the individual and the country at large. D. K.

THE ROYAL ACADEMY'S WINTER EXHIBITION.

London, December 30, 1893.

At the Royal Academy's winter show, interest does not always centre about the old men. Sometimes the more recent of the "deceased masters of the British School," as they are called in the catalogue, give the collection its chief importance, and, this, fortunately, is the case in the exhibition just opened. I say fortunately, since if it is not possible to include a series as fine as the Velasquez masterpieces of some four winters ago, or the incomparable Rembrandts and Halses, Titians and Veroneses, which have often dwarfed all the canvases hung with them, in the absence of pictures of supreme value one turns gladly to examples of British painters whose names are excellently well known, but whose work can be seen only on rare occasions. It may disappoint, but there are times when even disappointment has its good uses.

In the present show there is scarce a master, Italian, Dutch, or Flemish (there are no Spaniards to be considered), who cannot be studied to better advantage in the National Gallery. The Primitives (Titian and Veronese, Van Dyck and Rubens, Hals and Rembrandt) are but indifferently represented. Indeed, in their respective sections there is little of special note, save canvases that compel attention because either the name of the painter, or else the subject chosen by a well-known man, has in it something in the nature of a surprise, something unfamiliar. Thus, in the gallery devoted to the Primitives, though there are Virgins by Bellini and Botticelli, by Mabuse and Van Eyck, the one painting which, owing to its rich color scheme and vigorous presentment of strong faces, stands out with distinction, is a portrait of the first Dukes of Urbino by Melozzo da Forli, surely a master who seldom proves so conspicuous. In another gallery, though surrounded by Bordones and Veroneses and Bonifazios, it is a "Flute-Player," by the little-known Savoldo, which charms by the austere dignity in the arrangement, the character in the face and pose of the youth who figures as a musician. Again, in a third room, the eye is arrested by a garden scene—a beautiful old garden, with clipped trees, prim flowerbeds, and a flying cupid in stone—attributed to De Hooghe; a rare contrast, truly, to the interiors which supplied him with his usual motive. I do not mean to say that there are no other good canvases; not many can be passed with entire indifference. But, as a rule, few are notable examples of the masters in question.

And so it is with the pictures of the most distinguished British painters—the portraits by Sir Joshua, Gainsborough, and Romney, the landscapes by Constable, Turner, and Cotman. These are men who, whatever their faults at times, never can be reproached as commonplace or mediocre in their work. But they have been seen before at the Academy—can be seen now elsewhere—in far greater perfection; all, except perhaps Cotman, who certainly never produced anything lovelier or more impressive than a little "Landscape" (it has no other title to identify it) which is classical almost as a Claude in its serenity of composition and dignity of line, "romantic" almost as a Corot or a Rousseau in its beauty and originality of color. It is extraordinary that, with Constable and Cotman to show the right way, the English landscape-painter should so quickly have fallen into an abyss of dulness and vulgarity.

In the British department, however, it is Stothard, a man of very different style and methods, who has been given chief prominence. Many of his paintings and drawings have been brought together to form, as it were, a separate show by themselves. As an illustrator Stothard was most popular during his lifetime, and has been best remembered since his death. Even in these days of innumerable magazines and illustrated daily papers, few black-and-white men produce drawings with such astounding facility and in such incredible numbers; even in our age of cheap and nasty reproduction, few are so careless of their reputation as he often seemed. He would illustrate any and everything, from Rogers's Poems to ordinary fashion journals. Book after book came out, decorated—or otherwise—by his drawings; now, it was 'Clarissa Harlowe' or the 'Spectator,' and now the 'Pilgrim's Progress' or Shakspere. The Bible and the *Novelist's Magazine* he undertook with equal readiness. Stothard, for a time, was very poor, and, by way of increasing his expenses, married early. For a while he had to live by hook or by crook; afterwards the habit of doing whatever fell in his way was not easily to be shaken off. Sometimes he made those charming, graceful little drawings, done either for the steel-engraver or else the wood-engravers trained by Bewick, which are really his masterpieces; sometimes he turned out the veriest hack work,

which it is kinder to forget. But, probably, even when producing his best drawings, he looked upon painting as the serious business of his life, and this winter, for the first time in many years, an opportunity presents itself to study him as a painter. The study results, it must be confessed, in some slight disappointment. After looking at the fifty or more of his canvases, it is realized that he was a man of no marked originality, though he had genuine artistic instinct and was intelligent in his appreciation of the art of Italy, Flanders, and France. He was a careful student, with a talent for imitation. Evidently, Rubens, the Venetians, Raphael, Watteau were by turns his masters. With such sympathy could he copy Titian or Veronese in the blue of the sky or the richness of the foliage that serves as background for many of his nymphs, that one would be inclined to rank him very high as a colorist were it not for those other canvases in which, foolishly, he allowed his own undistinguished individuality full play. Here his color is as crude and glaring as, in his frank imitations of the great Venetians or Flemings, it is rich and glowing. In his pretty pastorals he could paint you a landscape so beautiful in its fine conventions, with so graceful a group of dancers in the foreground, that Watteau might have envied him the cunning of his brush; and yet he could stoop to trivial sentiment and feeble story-telling worthier of the modern Academican or member of the Institute. Now, as in "The Canterbury Pilgrims," the most famous of his pictures, he could design a decoration, striking enough in arrangement to atone for hardness and spottiness of color; but again, as in that unspeakable "Children of Tippoo Sahib given up to Lord Cornwallis," the baldness of his realism, when he attempted to paint the Eastern beauties whom he never saw, becomes absolutely comic. So long as he remained faithful to the painters whom, for the time, he accepted as his masters, his work had merit of no mean order; when once he endeavored to depend upon himself, his work sank hopelessly to the commonplace. Had he been less catholic in his tastes, had he continued constant ever to Raphael or to Watteau, to Rubens or to the Venetians, it matters not whom, he might eventually have developed a style of his own. But the many masters were his undoing. His pictures, as a rule, are but imitations. For a personal note in his work, for an expression of his own artistic temperament, one looks in vain. His great virtue was his intelligence as a student—a virtue that need not, however, be valued lightly.

The same exhibition contains two Ettys, as if to prove that hard study and considerable industry alone will not make the artist. Etty, like Stothard, from whom indeed he may have derived his first incentive, went to Venice and Flanders for inspiration. He was always a conscientious student; so much so that his regular attendance at the life school, even after he had been made a member of the Academy, was resented by his fellow-academicians, who feared thereby a loss of dignity for the whole institution. And few painters have been more industrious, Etty having no life or interest outside of his studio in the old house near Charing Cross, that overlooked the river. But he lacked, in a measure, the intelligence of Stothard; the latter could produce a worthy imitation, but Etty, as one sees in the "Pluto and Proserpine" and the "Sleeping Nymph and Satyrs," was less successful, though far more ambitious. He painted flesh all his life, and yet his women have none of the voluptuous or refined beauty of the nudes by Titian and Rubens, but are mere shapeless bags of fat, their demure Victorian coiffure giving the prurient touch to which Etty would have been the first to object, could he have seen his work with the eyes of the present generation. Still, in the "Nymph" there are certain qualities—a genuine feeling for decoration and color, and a vigor in the drawing of the Satyrs—that show Etty to have been almost a great painter, an artist who just did not come off.

Fred Walker is another of the "deceased British masters" one is glad to study at first hand. He enjoys a great reputation, since many men who looked up to him as their leader are still living to sing his praise. But he was greater in intention than in accomplishment. There is no denying the beauty and glory of his own impression of a sunset which he sought to record in "The Plough," the picture most often cited in testimony of his powers; but the canvas only suggests what he wanted to do; it gives a mass of pink paint, and not the glowing roseate light of the sunset falling on cliffside and on the great clouds towering above; while, in the stilted, affected, exaggerated pose of the ploughman, one sees the beginning of much of the maudlin sentiment that now prevails among English painters. By the same trick his "Wayfarers" challenges sympathy, and so leaves one cold and indifferent. It was by simple means, by the absence of such meretricious aids for emotion, that Millet's sowers and gleaners triumphed. It may be that Fred Walker's shortcomings are the more obvious because of the undoubted talent he displayed even in his failures. Had he lived to finish his life's work, there is small doubt that he would have established on a firmer basis his reputation, which, the chances are, will grow less as time goes on. But between him and a man like the late Mr. Pettie, whose productions are now honored in a room apart, there is a wide gulf, and the contrast emphasizes the good points in Fred Walker's work. For Pettie not only failed in achievement, his standard was low, his aims trivial. Academicians would have shown greater tenderness for his memory had they not collected and hung again so many proofs of his feebleness as painter.

Still another room has been reserved for Blake's illustrations to the Book of Job. But of these so much has been said, so many times, that it would be useless to add more than a word to the mass of literature and criticism on the subject. Again one is struck with the grandeur and impressiveness of his conceptions, the naïveté of his execution, and the grotesque excesses to which his undisciplined imagination could lead him. N. N.

Correspondence.

INDUSTRIAL DEPRESSION AND COLLEGE ATTENDANCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The impression has taken root in the minds of many people that higher education is so essentially a luxury that it may be classed with jewels, paintings, and wines; in other words, that upon the advent of hard times the first cut in expenses is made by setting the boys at work instead of sending them to college. That this is not a true statement of fact has been my conviction for some time, and I am pleased to observe that Prof. James of the University of Pennsylvania has taken exception to it in the *Educational Review* for November. His theory, in common with that of Prof. Amringe of Columbia College and Prof. Conrad of Halle, is that times of industrial depression tend to increase, rather than to diminish, the attendance at the higher institutions of learning. And this theory is remarkably borne out by the figures given in the recent report of President Francis A. Walker of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. I am, therefore, tempted to submit an analysis of it to your readers in the hope of evoking criticism, if not justification, for the interpretation I would put upon the figures as they appear.

There is at present a total of 1,158 students whose names are on the rolls, making an increase of 98 above the number last year. It is conceivable that a panic might affect the attendance in either one of two ways: it might diminish the size of the entering class; or, secondly, it might induce men to continue their studies for another year rather than to risk an enforced idleness if they sought employment in hard times. As might have been expected, this latter course has been generally adopted. There is an increase of 83 in the number of students remaining over from last year; so that in so far as the attendance is concerned, the panic has had a beneficial influence. Does this mean, then, that so large a number of students of this institution have been unable to secure employment upon graduation? By no means, for a further analysis of the figures shows that only 11 are graduates of the Institute.

This increase in the number of students might have been neutralized in large part had there been a marked decrease in the number of students registering for the first time. But here again there is an increase of 15 over last year's registration. Combining both entering and continuing students, we perceive an increase of 98, which is exactly double the increase of last year. It surely does not appear, therefore, that the crisis of 1893 has resulted in marked economies in the line of higher technical education.

The next point will be to show that, while gains may be expected, especially in the larger institutions, they will be most likely to occur in the purely professional or technical schools, which prepare men to enter at once upon a self-supporting existence. That the comparisons may be unaffected by local circumstances, it will be best to confine our observations to those technical schools which form part of the great universities, and to compare the growth in them with the coincident development of the academic departments. At Harvard, for instance, nearly one-half of the total gain in attendance is found in the Lawrence Scientific School, which contains less than one-tenth of the whole number of students in the university. Out of a total of 1,656 students in the academic department the increase is but 58, or about 4 per cent.; the number attending the technical school is increased by 98, although there were only 181 students on its rolls a year ago, showing an increase of 54 per cent. The most marked feature, however, is the great increase of special students in these technical courses as compared with the number in the academic department. In other words, it appears that while the size of the first-year class in both academic and technical departments is about the same as in 1892–93, there has been an increase of 70 per cent. in the number of special students in the Scientific School as compared with an increase of 9 per cent. in the college proper. Are we not justified in assuming that this represents a number of men who are biding their time by taking professional courses, and who will enter active life on the outbreak of prosperity?

The figures presented for the School of Mines of Columbia College are somewhat peculiar. In the undergraduate courses there is a normal increase of 10 per cent.; taking the school as a whole there is a lessened increment for the current year, the rate of increase being cut down from 10 per cent. in 1892–3 to 4 per cent. for the present year. This is due to a decrease in the number of graduate and special students. At all events the effects of the current depression are much less marked than in the academic department of the college, which suffers an absolute decrease of 9 per cent. But if we turn to the departments which attract special students, we see one reason for this apparently unfavorable showing, I believe, for in those courses which are most likely to attract graduate students and those holding over, we observe a great increase. The School of Political Science has an augmented attendance of 32 per cent., while the Schools of Philosophy and Political Science combined show a growth of upwards of 26 per cent. There is normally a very rapid growth; but are we not also justified in assuming that some of these men are waiting for prosperous times? In this way we are able to account for the great increases in these semi-technical courses; and our thesis seems to be amply upheld by the returns.

In Yale University, the increase of the academic department for 1891–2 was 78 on a total of 888, or about 8.8 per cent.; for this year it was 120 on a total of 966, or about 12 per cent. This certainly corroborates our theory that hard times do not necessarily endanger the cause of higher education. The peculiar significance for us lies in a comparison of these figures for the academic department with those of the technological courses. The increase in the Sheffield Scientific School was 68 on a total of 461 in 1892-3, or about 14 per cent.; in this year of depression it was 72 on a total of 529, or 14 per cent. again. There is no abnormal gain, but a constant percentage of augmentation on an increased base implies no retardation of growth at least.

The figures of the total attendance at Cornell University show an increase over last year of 5 per cent. This is somewhat below the average, which has ranged about 10 per cent. during the last few years. The entering class seems to be augmented by about 5 per cent.; the figures for the graduate departments show a very large increase, namely, 43 per cent. The average yearly increment, excluding Fellows, in these graduate courses for the last five years has apparently been about 25 per cent. If we are justified in the assumption that Cornell draws a smaller proportion of her students from the large cities than either Yale or Columbia, the inference would apparently be unfavorable to Prof. James's theory that the country boy will find less difficulty in being absorbed into active life than his confrère from the city during a time of industrial depression, for the increase in the number of graduate students is more marked here than in either of the two "city-student" colleges. I feel, however, that it would be unsafe to generalize further from such inadequate data.

Another factor which would weaken the force of comparisons in this direction is the fact that women form so large a part of the student body at Cornell. I believe that the increase in attendance will be found in general to be more affected among women than among the men, although space forbids any further consideration of the matter in this place. I shall content myself with mentioning the fact that the treasurers of two College-Women's Aid Societies have noted a marked falling-off in the demand for assistance this year. They ascribe it to the fact that parents have withdrawn their support absolutely in many cases, and that consequently fewer women are tempted to run the risk of the experiment. The communication from Vassar College in the *Educational Review* tends also to give color to this view.

One word in conclusion as to the geographical distribution of the gains and losses, as shown in attendance at the Institute of Technology. The steady increase in the number of students characterized by the last ten years has continued in the New England, Middle, and Central States as a whole. The States which show a marked decrease in the number of students at the Institute are mainly in the South and West, or, as one might expect, in Alabama, Arkansas, Colorado, Washington, etc., although New Jersey, Michigan, and Minnesota appear to be affected somewhat. Among the latter we can readily find an explanation in the growth of technical schools within their borders which would account for the decrease. The other losses are almost exclusively found in those regions where bank suspensions have been most frequent and the intensity of the depression has been most keen. It may be of interest to state that I have since discovered a very close correspondence between these figures and those which have been kindly furnished from the proof-sheets for the catalogue of Cornell University.

A point of some interest in this discussion is the opportunity afforded in technical training for utilizing the vacations in remunerative employment. Inquiries among the third and fourth-year students in our civil and sanitary-engineering courses have shown a very favorable condition of affairs. Out of a class of twenty-nine seniors in these departments twenty-one devoted the summer months of 1893 to practical work, at an average pay of $55 per month. Among thirty-one third-year students 61 per cent. obtained work, despite the depression in business, at an average wage of $51 a month. In view of the fact that a considerable portion of these classes did not even seek work, preferring to rest during the vacation, the success obtained is remarkable. When undergraduates can earn their tuition fees so easily, it is not strange that hard times should have so little effect upon the number of those who seek the professional training.

William Z. Ripley.

Massachusetts Institute of Technology,
Boston, Mass., January 4, 1894.

AN AMERICANISM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The following notes on the word "co-education" will perhaps be of general interest:

(1.) It does not appear in the 'Century Dictionary.'

(2.) It is given by the 'International Dictionary' without comment or citation, and defined as "an educating together, as of persons of different sexes or races."

(3.) It appears in the new 'Standard Dictionary' as a term used in the United States. The two meanings which are put together in the definition of the 'International Dictionary' are here given separately. For the meaning 'education of the *sexes* together' there is a citation from Bryce's 'American Commonwealth' dated 1889. Of the other meaning no example is given.

(4.) The article in Murray's 'New English Dictionary' reads as follows:

"Co-education (of U. S. origin). Education of the two sexes together in school or college.
"1874. E. H. Clarke, *Sex in Educ.* 123. In these pages, co-education of the sexes is used in its common acceptation of identical co-education. 1874. S. [*sic*] W. Higginson, *ibid.*, 37. Any physiologist opposed to co-education."

It will be noticed that, of the two meanings given by the 'International' and the 'Standard,' but one is recognized by Murray.

(5.) Although the earliest date given in Murray's Dictionary is 1874, the word was in use many years previously to that time. The oldest document that I know of in which the word occurs bears date of December 28, 1857. It is a circular letter of inquiry sent out from Lansing, Mich., to the Union Schools of the State by Dr. Ira Mayhew, who was then superintendent of public instruction. In this circular the word "co-education" occurs but once, as follows:

"Question 10. Do advantages or disadvantages result, in your experience, from the co-education of the sexes?"

Regarding his use of the word at that time, Dr. Mayhew writes:

"In some sixteen Union Schools replying to the circular above referred to, all but four reported in favor of co-education. These four made no reference to it. All of these reports used the word as now employed. It was so used by myself and others in reports, addresses, and discussions on the subject. . . . I cannot now say whether the term originated with me."

But I find no trace of these "reports, addresses, and discussions" in which the word was employed. Dr. Mayhew did not use it in any other of his official writings of that time.

(6.) I have discovered no other instance of the use of the word before 1870. It does not appear in the places in which one would naturally expect to find it—in the speeches and reports of Edward Everett, for example, in the writings and addresses of Horace Mann (as many of them as I have consulted), or in the papers on the "education of females" published in the *American Journal of Education* and the *American Institute of Instruction*. In 1859 it was unknown even to Dr. Murray's "S. W. Higginson"; at any rate it does not appear in Col. Higginson's article, "Ought Women to Learn the Alphabet?" which came out in the *Atlantic Monthly* in that year.

(7.) In 1870 the word, contemporaneously (or nearly so) with the thing, appeared at the University of Michigan. It may be found in the *University Chronicle* of January 15, 1870. From that time on, instances in papers and magazines are numerous. An example of its use occurs in the *Nation* for March, 1870.

(8.) At Oberlin, where college co-education is said to have begun, the term was not used, I believe, until it had come into general use elsewhere. President Fairchild, in his 'Oberlin, the Colony and the College,' published in 1883, remarks that the word "co-education" "seems to have come into use in the last twenty years"; but it is not to be found in any of the college documents prior to 1870 that I have been able to consult. "Joint education" is used instead.

(9.) The slang term "co-ed," meaning 'woman student in a co-educational institution,' made its first appearance in print, so far as my knowledge goes, at this university in the History of the class of '78, published in the *University Chronicle* of June 15, 1878

It would be interesting to learn on what

grounds the word "co-education" was excluded from the 'Century Dictionary.'

FRED N. SCOTT.

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN, January 4, 1894.

Notes.

WE are glad to learn that Mr. James Schouler has decided to extend his 'History of the United States under the Constitution' by one more volume, the sixth, embracing the civil war and Lincoln's administration.

S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago, issue next month 'The Union Pacific Railway: A Study in Railway Politics, History, and Economics,' by John P. Davis, A.M. (Mich.).

A combination of Lewis Carroll's 'Sylvie and Bruno' and Diana Clifford Kimber's text-book on 'Anatomy and Physiology for Nurses,' will speedily be published by Macmillan & Co., who have also nearly ready 'The King of Schnorrers: Grotesques and Fantasies,' by Isaac Zangwill, with numerous illustrations.

The publication of a cook-book by subscription is new to us, but Delmonico's veteran chef, Mr. Charles Ranhofer, will essay it, at his own risk, promising an octavo volume of 1,200 pages, embracing 3,700 recipes, and embellished with 800 engravings.

'Great Educational Exhibits,' sketches from the Liberal Arts collection at Chicago, is announced by Wm. Geo. Bruce, Milwaukee.

Mr. W. J. Harvey has undertaken the enormous labor of transcribing the Cambridge (Eng.) records of university alumni for the four centuries 1483–1893 in twenty-one volumes, including an index volume, one for each of fifteen colleges, three for Trinity, and two for St. John's. The work will be entitled 'Alumni Cantabrigienses,' and will record admissions, matriculations, and graduations, giving Christian name and surname, particulars as to parentage, birth, education, college, rank, age at admission, tutors, degrees, dignities, etc., etc.—say 150,000 separate entries. Each college record will be purchasable by itself at a guinea a volume. Mr. Harvey's address is Heathell, Melbourne Grove, Champion Hill, London, S. E.

Publication has been begun in Germany of Dr. Muret's 'Encyklopädisches Wörterbuch der Englischen und Deutschen Sprache,' based on the 'Century Dictionary,' and not neglecting Dr. Murray's so far as it is at present available (Berlin: Langenscheidt: New York: Christern).

The second volume of Hooker and Jackson's 'Index Kewensis' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan), extends from *Dendrobium* to *Justicia*. Among the genera which occupy many columns are *Eupatorium*, *Erica*, *Euphorbia* and *Hieracium*, the latter filling no less than thirty-five columns, chiefly through the great multiplication of synonyms. Of the Linnæan genus *Halesia* there are given five species, so that those botanists who would replace this name with something of their own coinage, have an opportunity of adding a few more useless synonyms to a list which is already far too long.

The popular little 'Ariel Shakspere' devised by G. P. Putnam's Sons, shapely for the pocket and clear of print, each with its outline vignette from a series of designs sixty years old, receives just now an addition of seven volumes, viz., "Julius Cæsar," "Antony and Cleopatra," "Hamlet," "Macbeth," "Othello," "King Lear," and "Romeo and Juliet." This constitutes the third group, and two remain; but each play is to be had separately. The same publishers have added to their "Knickerbocker Nuggets" 'Essays Selected from the Spirit of the Age, or Contemporary Portraits, by William Hazlitt.' Hazlitt's judgment of Crabbe may here curiously be read in contrast with Edward FitzGerald's admiration of this poet.

'Kenilworth' makes two volumes of the International Limited Edition of the Waverley Novels (Bryan, Taylor & Co.), and 'Peveril of the Peak' one in the Dryburgh Edition (Macmillan). The etchings and designs for the former are furnished by Ad. Lalauze, the drawings on wood for the latter by Stanley Berkeley; and not much can be said for either series.

The first volume of "an illustrated and popular story" of 'The World's Parliament of Religions' has appeared (Chicago: Parliament Publishing Co.). It is a stout octavo of 800 pages in small type. The editor, the Rev. John Henry Barrows, D.D., admits that greater condensation might have been employed, and promises to sift more rigorously the material for the next volume. There is a great variety of portrait illustrations; and other pictures are of scenes, priests, temples, etc., mainly Oriental. The frontispiece shows the delegates assembled on the platform of the Chicago Art Institute.

Volume vii. of the Transactions of the Royal Historical Society (1893) contains several interesting papers. More than half the volume is devoted to part ii. of "The Inquisition of 1517," edited by I. S. Leadham. This part gives an account of the enclosures and evictions which took place in Norfolk, Yorkshire, Herefordshire, Staffordshire, and Hampshire. In his preface Mr. Leadham breaks a lance with Prof. Ashley on the subject of the legal security of copyholders or customary tenants. The volume also contains a translation of Prof. Pflugk-Harttung's "Druids of Ireland," a brief history of "The Magyar County," "Notes on the Family of Betoun," "The Laws of the Mercers Company of Lichfield," and Dr. F. Liebermann's "Instituta Cnuti." The title "Instituta Cnuti" is here applied to a private compilation written presumably in 1110. It contains a Latin translation of Cnut's laws and of various other legal enactments of which no Anglo-Saxon original is now in existence. Dr. Liebermann carefully analyzes the treatise, and, with his usual critical acumen, throws much new light on its origin and contents. We understand that he will print the first instalment of his edition of the Anglo-Saxon laws next year. He has devoted several years of laborious research to this edition, and it promises to be an epoch-making work.

The fifty-seventh bound volume of the *Commercial and Financial Chronicle*, comprising the weekly issues of this journal from July 1, 1893, to the year's close, has reached our table. The *Chronicle's* merits as a standard authority on financial events, market quotations, and monetary statistics generally, have long since received their proper recognition. The period covered by the volume just issued possesses extraordinary interest, and the record of it comprised in the *Chronicle* is for fulness and accuracy quite unrivalled.

A year ago we gave our readers some account of R. Waliszewski's 'The Romance of an Empress' (Catherine II. of Russia). This readable work now comes to us in an English translation from D. Appleton & Co. The English is fairly fluent; the transliteration of Russian proper names exhibits a queer mixture of English and French phonetics—*Ch*tcherbatof, Zou*b*of, Nikiti*ch*na, Bestou*j*ef; with inconsistencies like Goudo*w*itch, Miro*v*itch, Galitzine, Roumian*t*sof.

Under the title of 'À travers le Japon' the office of the French Minister of Agriculture has printed, on Japanese paper, five hundred copies of an octavo of 172 pages relating to the forests and forest-productions of Japan (Paris: J. Rothschild). It is interesting to know that a large portion of that Eastern empire is under the management of a well-organized forest administration, and that in the year 1882 a college of agriculture and forestry was established near Tokio, where there are now three hundred students, nearly half of whom are in training for office in the forestry departments. The course of study covers five years; three and a half are spent at the college, and the rest of the time is devoted to practical work in the field and forest. An interesting chapter of the book is that which relates to the *ourouchi*, the varnish-tree of Japan (*Rhus vernicifera*). The tree is figured, apparently by Japanese artists, its cultivation treated of, and the peculiar mode of collecting the varnish well described. The average yearly rainfall of Japan is stated to be 1430 mm. (56.3 in.), much more than in our Atlantic States, and with the peculiarity that two-thirds of it falls during the warm season, when the forests have the most need of moisture. Japan is naturally a land of forests, having nearly as great a variety of trees as Eastern North America, and nearly twice as great a variety as Europe. When will our nation learn to have the same care for our forests that is seen even among these people whom we consider far less civilized than ourselves?

The Transactions of the Asiatic Society of Japan form a literary storehouse of unique value. The papers are by special students, almost all of whom reside in Japan. Though in some instances too technical to be of general interest, they are usually popular and enjoyable. Vol. xxi., besides the revised constitution and reports of meetings from June, 1892, to October, 1893 (pp. 36), contains 289 pages of matter of unusual interest. Mr. C. Meriwether contributes a Life of Daté Masamuné, the northern daimio who, in 1613, despatched an embassy to Europe which travelled via Mexico. Much new matter from European and Japanese sources is here sifted. Like the normal inhabitant of Japan, "Masamuné valued the secondary benefits of Christianity at a higher price than its primary." "Esoteric Shinto" is treated of by Percival Lowell in that writer's brilliant style. The phenomena of god-possession, the miracle of walking on fire, and the details of life in the pilgrim clubs are described with more rhetoric and punning than is usual in the serious journal of a learned society. Mr. E. H. Parker, the eminent sinologue, gives proofs that Burmese, Japanese, Korean, and Chinese have come from one common stock. In "Ainu Economic Plants" we have the vegetable dietary and pharmacopœia of the wild savages of Yezo. No more thoroughly informing article on the Loo Chooans has ever been written than the paper by Professor (and President) Basil Hall Chamberlain, who handsomely supplements the work of his grandfather, the British captain of H. B. M. S. *Lyra* in 1816.

One of the important art works of the current year will undoubtedly be the two large volumes by Prof. Giuseppe Merzario, entitled 'I Maestri comacini; Storia artistica di mille duecento anni (600-1800).' Hardly a city or town in Tuscany but carries in some part of its historic buildings the characteristic stamp

of these anonymous workers-in-stone of Coma; the great cathedrals of Milan, of Como, of Pavia, of Pisa, even of Rome show their presence. They realize the Middle Ages for the south no less distinctly, if more locally, than the Gothic masters do for the north. With the Renaissance their characteristic qualities, the hieratical nature of their constructions, pass away; they live on and work on, but as individuals, no longer as exponents of their gild notion.

Edoardo Perino of Rome has published a new "Biblioteca Diamante," which stopped at number 100. The print and paper are fair, each little volume containing about 130 pages, and selling for 20 cen. Besides the more famous classics, this series contains a number of works scarcely accessible in modern reprints. The 'Fioretti di S. Francesco' in this edition is the prettiest reprint that exists of this matchless anthology of anecdotes and fables. The story-tellers from the Novellino down to Firenzuola, including Sermini and Pius II. (in old translation), are well represented. Boccaccio's 'Ninfale Fiesolano,' L. B. Alberti's 'Amore,' the almost contemporary life of Rienzi, Bibboni's account of his murder of Lorenzino de' Medici, and the latter's defence of his assassinating Alessandro, Campanella's 'Città del Sole,' L. Dolce's 'Della Pittura,' Buonaparte's 'Sacco di Roma'—texts of the utmost importance to the student of Italian civilization—are all reprinted in this "Biblioteca."

Braun & Cie. of Paris and Dornach have just published in perfect facsimile the splendid series of heads at Weimar that go under the name of Leonardo da Vinci. These drawings are not by Leonardo, but are excellent contemporary copies of the apostles' heads in the "Last Supper," and, considering the state the original is in, the drawings are indispensable for an understanding of Leonardo and his masterpiece.

The Johns Hopkins imprint always inspires a certain amount of respect, but we fail to find it confirmed in Scaife's 'Florentine Life during the Renaissance.' This is a somewhat chatty and desultory aggregation of material concerning Florence during the later portion of the Middle Ages. The author does not seem to be particularly select as to his authorities. Roscoe appears to be cited more frequently than Villari or Perrens, and the 'Biographie Universelle' and 'Encyclopædia Britannica' figure among the references. The phrase (p. 64) "which valued the fraction of one cent," is a somewhat unexpected resurrection of an obsolete expression.

M. Henri Gaidoz's plausible attempt in *Mélusine* to derive the Virgin of the Seven Swords from the Assyrian war-goddess Istar did not quite meet the approval of the Belgian Jesuit fathers who edit (not uncritically) the *Analecta Bollandiana*. They deny the Italian origin of the worship and the symbolism of this Virgin (which M. Gaidoz was far from inventing), and claim it for Belgium and a comparatively recent date. M. Gaidoz defends himself with much humor and erudition in *Mélusine* for November-December, 1893 (Paris: E. Rolland), and brings to the interesting discussion a number of fresh engravings, ancient and modern, including the Chartres cameo of Jupiter, taken for St. John on account of the eagle, and Charles V.'s cameo of Athena and Poseidon, taken for Adam and Eve.

In our recent account of the New York meeting of the American Psychological Association we virtually gave the contents of No. 1 of the new *Psychological Review*, edited by Profs. J. McKeen Cattell of Columbia and J. Mark Baldwin of Princeton. We must now mention the address of the President, Prof. Ladd, and the book reviews and notes. There is one illustration, representing the contrivance by which Prof. Münsterberg attains stereoscopic effects with revolving disks. The magazine is handsomely printed, and bears the imprint of Macmillan & Co.

The second number of *Around the World* (Philadelphia: Contemporary Publishing Co.) shows an advance upon the first, and has some capital illustrations.

A note in the latest issue of the *Virginia Magazine of History and Biography* is concerned with Nicholas Hayward, a merchant of London and a land-owner in Virginia towards the end of the seventeenth century. Two of his brothers settled in Stafford County, Virginia, and one of them, Samuel, became justice, clerk of the county, and a member of the House of Burgesses. The editor of the *Magazine* conjectures this was the husband of Martha Hayward, sister of the emigrants John and Lawrence Washington, whose will was printed in the *Nation* in November, 1892. Mr. Ford conjectured that Nicholas was the husband; but as there is no direct evidence of Nicholas ever visiting Virginia, the probability is in favor of Samuel. Another point is suggested by the note. Martha Hayward left to "her kinsman, Richard ffoote," some tobacco. A power of attorney from Nicholas Spencer, dated October 18, 1655, and recorded in Northumberland, authorizes his "servant," Richard Foote, to manage his affairs in Virginia. George Fitzhugh states in *De Bow's Review* that Foote was Hayward's nephew. In 1689 Foote was associated with Nicholas Hayward, George Brent, and Robert Bristow in the purchase of a tract of 30,000 acres in Prince William County (around the present village of Brentsville), and was then described as a merchant of London.

The meeting of the Geological Society of America, recently held in Boston, with one day's session in Cambridge, was characterized by large attendance, in which the more advanced students of geology from Harvard and the Institute of Technology made a good showing; and by the large numbers of papers presented. Little time was left for discussion and conference, even though a number of the essays sent in by absent authors were read by title only. Sir William Dawson of Montreal presided. Perhaps the two most notable papers were by Prof. G. H. Williams of Johns Hopkins University, on ancient volcanic rocks in eastern North America, attractive from its admirable presentation as well as from its high quality; and by Prof. T. C. Chamberlin of Chicago University, and his assistant, Mr. F. Leverett, on the past drainage systems of the upper Ohio basin, presented by the senior author, and impressive from the careful consideration of the various alternative conditions of its problems. The social part of the meeting was a pronounced success.

—The letter M still engages the editors of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan), in volumes xxxvi. and xxxvii., which are the third and fourth of M, and end at Millyng. The literary interest of the work is still chiefly measured by Mr. Leslie Stephen's part in it, and his incomparable hand is seen in the notices of Malthus, Harriet Martineau, F. D. Maurice, James and John Stuart Mill; with one exception, a closely related group. The exception, of course, is Maurice, and Mr. Stephen's skilful exposition of this "Platonist" is a delightful example of veiled criticism. In compact narration all these articles exhibit the mastery to which we are accustomed in the case of this writer. The investigation of Sir John Mandeville is noteworthy, and if he remains as mythical as ever, most readers will be surprised to find "Joe Miller" a substantial historical humorist, though not the father of the stale jokes imputed to him. The American gallery embraces John Mason, the founder of New Hampshire, and Capt. John Mason, the exterminator of the Pequots, Richard Mather and his sons Increase, Nathanael, and Samuel, Paul Mascarene, and, to make a great descent, the actress Adah Isaacs Menken. As to Richard Mather, we read: "William Gellibrand, the Puritan minister of Warrington, on hearing him preach, said, 'Call him Matter; for, believe it, this man hath substance in him.' This pun shows that the first vowel in Mather was short." We will end our selections with Capt. Marryat, for the sake of recalling his 'Diary in America' (1839), and with Father Mathew and T. F. Meagher, in order to remark that their casting in their lot with the pro-slavery party in this country has been overlooked by their biographers.

—A committee of the Association of Collegiate Alumnæ has made out a table showing the sums given by women during the last thirteen years to colleges for men only, for women only, and for men and women together. In spite of the fact that in 1880, with which year the report begins, Vassar College was already fifteen years old, and that the desirableness of the higher education for women was therefore already patent, it appears that the generous zeal with which women, ever since the days of Lady Anne Radcliffe Moulton, have contributed to the education of men has in no wise abated. During this time, women have given five times as much for the education of men alone as for the education of women alone, and they have given nearly twice as much for men's colleges as for women's colleges and mixed colleges put together. During only two of these thirteen years has Harvard College failed to receive considerable gifts from women, and the total amount received by Harvard alone exceeds the amount received by all the women's colleges together. If all the men whose education has been facilitated by the self-denial of women were to emulate this extraordinary openhandedness on the part of the more generous sex, then indeed the women's colleges would be amply supplied with the funds they so much need. Perhaps the most extraordinary gift this generation has seen is the legacy just made to Harvard College by the widow of the late Lewis Hayden of Boston, both born into slavery and ransomed by flight. Mrs. Hayden's will devotes a considerable sum to the founding of a scholarship for needy colored students at Harvard, preferably in the Medical School.

—Last week there was presented to the Board of Overseers of Harvard College a forcibly drawn petition, numerously and weightily signed by residents of this city, in opposition to the newly proposed relation between the Annex (alias "Radcliffe College") and the University. This relation, in a word, involves a countersigning by Harvard's President of the diplomas issued by the new college, on condition that the instructors employed meet the approval of the Harvard Corporation. The petition points out the difference in value between such a diploma and Harvard's own for men, first because the former would not (and could not) bear on its face an

explicit affirmation of equivalence, and secondly because "*the identity of examiners and of examinations* for the students of Radcliffe College and for those of Harvard College is in no way guaranteed by Harvard University" in the arrangement contemplated. If there were a real equivalence, the petitioners "are unable to see why the identical degree and diploma of Harvard College should not be conferred upon such students of Radcliffe College as are certified by their college to have pursued a course of study equivalent in amount and quality to that for which the degree of Bachelor of Arts is conferred in Harvard College, and to have passed in a satisfactory manner the examinations prescribed by Harvard College on that course." In default of this, a "degree-certificate" like that issued by the English Universities of Cambridge and Oxford would be far preferable to the countersigned diploma of a woman's college. The Overseers have appointed a committee to consider this argument, which, we believe, will be found irrefragable. That there are many sentimental, physical, and pecuniary obstacles to the immediate fulfilment of the wishes of the New York petitioners, is obvious; but it seems equally plain that the Radcliffe College scheme would postpone instead of hasten the day when "the humanities" will be taught at Harvard to human beings without regard to sex.

—The death at Cambridge, Mass., on January 10, of Frank Bolles, cut short a remarkable career. As secretary of Harvard University since 1886 he had made that office, which had previously been one of red-tape and formality, thoroughly human, to the great gain of both students and faculty. He had, moreover, by a series of judicious and clear pamphlets, set forth the actual working of Harvard, its methods of instruction, and the scope of its departments. Only last year, in a pamphlet on Students' Expenses, he helped to correct the impression that Harvard is a rich man's college. He was, in the truest sense, the student's friend, and there are scores of young men in all parts of the country who owe their start to his solicitude and sympathy. In this respect Mr. Bolles's usefulness at Harvard complemented that of Phillips Brooks; as the latter ministered to the spiritual needs of several generations of students, so the former ministered to their practical needs, finding work, temporary or permanent as the case might require, and fitting the right men into the right places with rare perspicacity. As our readers know, Mr. Bolles left behind him literary works of exceptional merit. His 'Land of the Lingering Snow' and 'At the North of Bearcamp Water' have suggested comparison with Thoreau and Richard Jefferies, though to our thinking he is distinguished from them and their followers by his absolute impersonality. He describes a walk through a wood or a stroll by a river with the impartiality of a scientist, and carefully abstains from indulging in what Ruskin calls the "pathetic fallacy"; he does not moralize nor sentimentalize. That he could have worked the other vein successfully, such a passage as that at the close of the sketch "A Night Alone on Chocorua" bears sufficient witness. His early sketches, printed in a newspaper, at once received Lowell's commendation; his two books, though so recently published, have already been cordially received in this country and in England. Still, we must think his loss to the University more irreparable than to letters.

A literary event which throws a curious side light upon the drift of contemporary politics, has just taken place in Germany. For several years past, signs have been accumulating which indicate that the German drama is at present undergoing a revolution that bears a striking resemblance to the "Storm and Stress" movement of the eighteenth century, and which, under favorable conditions, will make dramatic art once more what it was in the times of Goethe and Schiller, a leading factor in the higher national life. Even what has been accomplished thus far is worthy of most serious consideration. Works like Gerhart Hauptmann's "Weber," or Hermann Sudermann's "Ehre," cannot fail to impress one as remarkable productions, if for no other reason, on account of the fervent republicanism and the burning hatred of social injustice pervading them. One of the most recent manifestations of this same spirit is Ludwig Fulda's "Der Talisman." Fulda is, perhaps, the most refined and graceful of the younger German writers. He has published lyrics of rare melodiousness and power; he has contributed several volumes to Kürschner's "Nationallitteratur," showing his tact and good sense as a literary historian; he has translated Molière with remarkable elegance and delicacy. Even in the "Talisman" the political invective appears under the disguise of exquisite art. It is a dramatization of the familiar old fairy tale of the imaginary garment which, it is supposed, can be seen only by the good and the wise. The alleged owner of this garment, and the chief character of the play, is King Astolf of Cyprus, a man whose haughty self-assertion and implicit belief in the divineness of his royal office would commend themselves strongly to the present ruler of Germany. Although he cannot fail to have seen through the false play of the impostor who has spread the fame of the wonderful garment abroad, yet, seeing that the whole court submits to the humbug, he finally makes up his mind to submit to it himself. A grand procession is arranged at which the credulity of the people is to be tried. The King appears, surrounded by his courtiers, under a gorgeous canopy. The people throng about, each, for obvious reasons, vying with the other in boundless admiration of the wonderful robe of his Majesty, when of a sudden there is heard a child's voice: "Why, the King hasn't got anything on!" Of course, a great uproar follows, and a wild unloosening of popular passion so long repressed. In the midst of the tumult, the King rises for a moment to a certain fictitious greatness. He *will* have the people believe in his imaginary splendor, he *will* believe in it himself, he actually feels the flutter of the royal mantle on his shoulders; crazed with rage he commands his subjects to kneel down and adore him—until the frenzy overpowers him and he sinks down, shivering and shaking.

—It is not surprising that this play should have been largely interpreted in Germany as a poet's answer to the extravagant vagaries of the present Emperor. Ever since its first production at the Deutsches Theater in Berlin last February, it has drawn crowded houses. A few weeks ago, the Schiller prize—a national prize which is awarded every three years, by a commission composed of the most distinguished scholars and literary critics of Germany, to the best poetic work which has appeared within that time—was assigned to its author. And now comes the news that the Emperor has vetoed the vote of the commission, thereby giving Ludwig Fulda a good chance to become a German classic. The next step for his Majesty to take would be to promulgate an edict to the effect that until further notice no German subject shall be allowed to arrogate to himself the title of poet, with the exception of the Geheime Legationsrat Ernst von Wildenbruch, whose earnest and effective efforts to present the history of the glorious Hohenzollern dynasty in a becoming and not too realistically truthful light should commend themselves to every patriotic citizen.

LIDDON'S PUSEY.

Life of Edward Bouverie Pusey, D.D., Canon of Christ Church; Regius Professor of Hebrew in the University of Oxford. By Henry Parry Liddon, D.D., D.C.L., LL.D., late Canon and Chancellor of St. Paul's. Edited and prepared by the Rev. J. O. Johnston, M.A., and the Rev. Robert J. Wilson, M.A. In four volumes: Vol. I. (1800–1836), Vol. II. (1836–1846). With portraits and illustrations. Longmans, Green & Co. 1893.

Dr. Pusey died September 16, 1882, and Dr. Liddon entered immediately upon the work of writing his biography. Dr. Liddon died in 1890 and left the work unfinished, from no lack of diligence, but because his ground plan of the work involved for its superstructure a very great amount of careful preparation, much choosing and rejecting of materials, and much labor in the building together of those finally selected into a structure at once massive in its unity and symmetrical in all its parts. If Dr. Liddon could have carried on the work to its completion, all his friends and Dr. Pusey's would have been glad. For the two volumes now published (pp. 479, 530) he left an elaborate first draft, which is also good for ten years of vol. iii. For the rest he left carefully arranged materials, and his editors can be trusted to use them entirely in his spirit. That vols. i., ii. bring us down only to 1846, the year after Newman's secession, is much more the subject's fault than the biographer's. Dr. Liddon is never diffuse. There is not a page of his that we would willingly spare, though it is a good deal more plain and colorless, for the most part, than Dean Church's 'Oxford Movement,' which comes down to the same date. But Dr. Pusey's talent for elaboration was phenomenal. Writing of his condemned sermon of 1843, the Rev. J. B. Mozley says: "Some said it was a long sermon, others that it was not longer than usual," and both were probably right. In his literary expression he was nothing if not incontinent. When the other Tractarians were putting their thoughts into a few pages, he must have a few hundreds to express his own. His letters had the same defects of his quality as his books and sermons. They are very long, and it must be confessed that they are often very dull. Should any ask why Dr. Liddon did not abridge them, the answer is—abridgment was no easy matter. They are not long because they are diffuse, but because they are elaborate. Dr. Pusey could not express himself at once briefly and clearly. It might almost be said that he could express himself neither briefly nor clearly. But those who have read Newman and Ward and Williams and Mozley and Church upon the Oxford Movement will not be much troubled by the length of these volumes. Those best informed about the general movement will be most interested in this account of Pusey's part in it. There is no general treatment, and no dwelling upon others, even Newman, that is not necessary to a clear understanding of Dr. Pusey's activity and influence. The almost entire absence of Hurrell

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Froude from the narrative is a sign of this, Froude's noisy arrogance having been abated by his early death just at the time when Pusey was appearing on the scene.

Pusey was a few months older than Newman, who was born February 21, 1801; Pusey August 22, 1800. They were Fellows of Oriel together for five years from 1823, but for much of this period Pusey was in Germany. His life resolves itself into a succession of episodes, and the first that brought him into public notice was the defence of German theology, which he published in 1828, a reply to the Rev. Hugh J. Rose's 'State of Protestantism in Germany.' Pusey's criticism was much more sympathetic than Rose's, but its tenderness for German liberalism was much exaggerated at the time and has been since. Rose's reply to his book did much to fix on Pusey the stigma of liberalism, and his rejoinder did not completely heal the wound. Evidently Whately and the other "Noetics" thought he had become as one of them, and Newman feared he was lost. Pusey's central idea, that German liberalism was merely the reaction from an excessive "orthodoxism," and Rose's that it was occasioned by the absence of ecclesiastical control, seen from the present, are about equally absurd. From his German residence Pusey derived all that was soundest in his Hebrew scholarship, the only department of his scholarship that had any soundness; and there it was grammatical and textual, in the broader aspects wasting its strength to save a battle (the authenticity of Daniel) that was already lost.

His first approximation to the Tractarians was in his defence of the cathedral system against a scheme for sweeping innovations. Newman's anti-Protestantism declared itself in his objection to Pusey's calling Calvin a saint —this on the eve of his departure for the Mediterranean. The Movement began immediately after his return, July 14, 1833, when Keble preached on the suppression of the Irish bishoprics, denouncing it as a "great apostasy." So Newman reckoned, but Pusey dated the Movement from the publication of 'The Christian Year' in 1827. Without identifying himself closely with the Movement, he was soon circulating the tracts; and the eighteenth, on fasting, has his initials, the sign of his qualified adhesion to the cause. It drew Dr. Arnold's fire, awakening his fear that Pusey was going over to "the admiration of Christian antiquity." The Hampden controversy, so conspicuous in every history of the Oxford Movement, is much dwelt upon, but we must go elsewhere for a just estimate of Newman's "Elucidations" of Hampden's book. Pusey was hardly less active than Newman in opposing Hampden for the provostship of Oriel, but he had none of Newman's inherent predilection for sinister and savage methods of ecclesiastical revenge. In this connection there is no more interesting passage than that on Blanco White. It is as disparaging of Whately as it is ardent in its praise of White's sincerity, ability, and scholarship. Hampden's Bampton lectures, with their unqualified depreciation of scholastic and patristic renderings of Christianity, are traced back to White's influence. "It is not too much to say that he is the real founder of the modern latitudinarian school in the English Church."

Before the Hampden controversy had reached its climax in Hampden's deprivation by Convocation, May 5, 1836, of certain privileges of his office, Pusey had thrown himself into the Movement with all the weight of his tract on Baptismal Regeneration. Newman was about discontinuing the tracts, but Pusey's adhesion determined him to keep on with them. Indeed, there was a physical necessity for their continuance in the length of Pusey's tract, which, requiring a second part, carried the series beyond the point assigned for their suspension. Newman has told us of the immense importance of Pusey's unqualified accession. His wealth, his scholarship, his character, his social standing, all contributed to make his influence significant. The popular exchange of the titles "Tractarianism" and "Newmanites" for "Puseyism" and "Puseyites" indicated his importance, though it was furthered by his frank avowal of his authorship where that of others was concealed. From 1836 to 1845 the intimacy of Pusey and Newman was very close, and their mutual admiration and regard were characterized by a remarkable depth and sweetness. The impression, however, is unavoidable that even before Newman was on his Anglican death-bed, as he called it, Pusey was granted a less absolute confidence than he deserved, a good deal less than that given to Keble. The motive may have been creditable to Newman—a dread of wounding the sensibility of his friend—but the facts sometimes smack of moral cowardice, as where Pusey is left to find out in some roundabout way Newman's retraction of his abuse of Rome and in general his inclination to the Roman Church.

Nothing in this narrative is so strange as Pusey's blindness to the Romeward tendency of Newman's thought and feeling. Up to the verge of his secession, Pusey could not or would not see that he was travelling that way and sure to get there soon or late. And that his blindness was much greater than it would otherwise have been because of Newman's imperfect confidence, there can be no doubt. It had, however, a more serious cause—his own perfect confidence in the English Church while he went along with Newman in every particular of his opinions concerning fasting, baptism, the eucharist, and the other things concerning which he adopted "high doctrine," the doctrine of the Roman Church. Pusey had nothing but approval for Tract 90, or any subsequent position which Newman took up. He was even warm in his general approval of Ward's 'Ideal Church,' though that church was not the Primitive of his aspiration, but the Roman of concrete reality. From the same premises he and Newman derived different conclusions. The reader is aware of their divergence before it impressed Newman, long before Pusey was aware of it. But it was a divergence of logical and practical conclusions, not of doctrinal and ritualistic inclinations. Newman expected Pusey to follow him to Rome and urged him eagerly and passionately to do so. Later he wrote, in the 'Apologia,' that "all the time I knew him he was never near to it at all." And he was right; though what kept Pusey Anglican was less his "reason and judgment," as Newman wrote, than his instinct, which did not waver for an hour.

There is a wonderful pathos in the relation of Pusey to Newman in the last days of Newman's Anglican difficulties. The impression is continuous that Pusey's was the simpler mind, the better heart, the more generous disposition. The pathos has its comic side in Pusey's final account of Newman's loss. It was something peculiar and providential, and therefore not an example to be followed. It was God's answer to the prayers of Continental Catholics that he might come to them, while there were no Anglican prayers to the contrary, or not enough to withstand the opposing stress. Then, too, the Roman Church was much in need of him to cheer her spiritual desolation. Such were the ingenuities with which Pusey soothed his torn and bleeding heart.

Nothing could more positively attest the unbending strength of Pusey's Anglican sentiments than the fact that, while Newman was on his last legs, Pusey was himself subjected to ecclesiastical condemnation and suspended from preaching in the University for two years, the last two years of Newman's lengthened misery of parting. The condemnation was imposed with every circumstance of injustice that could make it rankle in his breast. Newman's treatment in respect to Tract 90 had not been half so bad. But while Newman's was the beginning of the end, Pusey's had no similar effect. That was because Newman's bishop was, as he said, his Pope. The Vice-Chancellor was not Pusey's. Behind the individual functionary he saw the Church and stayed his heart on her. Nor were his condemnation and suspension the only troubles that would have hurried him along with Newman or after him if he had had any thought of going. He gave a church to Leeds at an expense of £6,000, having given £5,000 to the London churches a few years before. There was no end to the obstructions and suspicions which he encountered in this business. True, it was not known that he was the donor, but that made no difference. The evangelicals would have said, if they had known it, "Thy money perish with thee." But the annoyance swerved him neither to the one hand nor the other. He bated no jot of his high sacramental doctrine, and Newman's open arms had for him not a moment's danger of perversion in their proffered peace.

The building of the church at Leeds, and especially the arrangement of the altar and reredos and their belongings, afford an interesting commentary on the popular mistake which fathers upon Pusey the ritualistic departure of later Anglicanism. To that departure he was less favorable than opposed. Of its ecclesiastical millinery he knew next to nothing, and at Leeds we find him fumbling ridiculously over details which are now understood infallibly by tyros in the ritualistic cult. Others were not wiser than himself, for in these strange things there was still much to learn.

That Pusey stayed when Newman went made an incalculable difference to the English Church. If Pusey and Keble had seceded, the stampede would have been like the outgoing of a flood. Keble remained because he had always been a high churchman, while Newman had been always on the move. Pusey remained because he was persuaded that his sacramental system was that of the Church of Antiquity and the Caroline divines, and because of his instinctive passionate devotion to the church of his baptism. His sacramentalism was something wonderful in its naïve assurance of the magical operation of the sacramental offices. It reached its climax in his recital to Newman of the horrible experience of a poor woman who had taken the eucharistic bread "unworthily." His intellectual force was nothing to his erudition, and, though he led away and safely folded the poor sheep whom Newman had left to shift for themselves, the attraction of the Movement for men of superior intelligence ceased after 1845. As for Pusey's erudition, it was strangely void of genuine historical appreciation. His appeal to antiquity was to a petty fragment of it, and why he should accord to this fragment an infallible voice he did not attempt to show. He repudiated Newman's 'Development of Christian Doctrine' as hostile to the famous "Quod semper," etc., as in-

deed it was, but without some such device both he and Newman were hopelessly adrift and making for the Socinian shore. That Newman saw this, while Pusey did not suspect it, is a proof of his more resolute intelligence.

The more personal and private aspects of Pusey's life were touched with many sorrows and anxieties. His devotion to his wife and to her memory was passionately fond. Her death made him more of a recluse than ever, and there was little need of that. His generosity was boundless, and it took more than the superflux of his liberal means. His goodness and sincerity illumine every page. His spiritual perceptions were singularly deep and true, and he lived according to their light. It was thus that he became the friend of many "spirits in prison," and delivered them from their bonds. His biographers have yet to tell of his most signal service to the English church. In 1846 he had still thirty-six years to live. They were to be full of study and anxiety and abundant recognition, love, and praise; but they would bring him no friend like Newman, and no events approaching the dramatic interest of those in which he and Newman took the leading parts upon a memorable stage.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

Prof. Keener has made a contribution of high importance to legal literature in his 'Treatise on the Law of Quasi-Contracts' (Baker, Voorhis & Co.). It is a pleasure, in the multitude of commonplace and hasty publications which pass for legal treatises, to observe this product of careful labor and genuine scholarship. The book has a peculiar value in the novelty of its subject. Acute writers in the past, like Mr. Justice Metcalf, Sir Henry Maine, and Sir Frederick Pollock, have perceived the confusion hidden under the name "implied contract," and pointed out that "contracts implied in law" are really not contracts at all. But it was left for Prof. Keener to lift the subject bodily out of the region of contract, and to systematize and classify these duties imposed by positive law, which, chiefly for reasons of procedure, have so long masqueraded as consensual obligations. The terminology of "quasi contract" and "unjust enrichment," borrowed from the civil law and Continental systems, will seem still somewhat strange to English-speaking lawyers, although not unknown to modern writers. The value of the former term, however, for purposes of precise legal thinking, is beyond question; and we venture the prediction that few lawyers, not familiar with Prof. Keener's previous work, will fail to be surprised at the body of law which he has collected to substantiate his theory of unjust enrichment as a cause of action in our law. His authorities include an instance of the use by an English judge of the seventeenth century, dealing with a typical quasi-contract, of the maxim, "Nemo debet locupletari ex alterius incommodo." Much ingenuity and logical acuteness are shown in handling the cases, and so explaining and distinguishing them as to support the author's views. This is noticeable in the interesting chapter on "Waiver of Tort," in which, however, there may be some slighting of the historical development of the doctrine. It is to be regretted that, in a subject containing so little that is technical, and resting so peculiarly on broad principles of justice and convenience, the scope of the book has not permitted some comparison with the Roman law and with other systems of jurisprudence.

'Cassoday on Wills' (St. Paul: West Publishing Co.) is a series of lectures delivered by the learned author before the College of Law of the University of Wisconsin, and published as they were delivered, without alteration or enlargement. The book is a small one, but it contains a neat, if somewhat bare, statement of leading propositions in the law of wills. It is based on the English statutes; and the decisions cited are mostly from the courts of England and Wisconsin.

'Black's Pomeroy on Water Rights' (West Publishing Co.) is a series of articles by the late Prof. Pomeroy which first appeared in the *West Coast Reporter*, and are now, since the author's death, collected and published by Mr. Henry Campbell Black, with annotations and additions. The subject, the law of water rights in the Pacific States, is one which has greatly interested students of our system of law, affording as it does an admirable instance of the adaptability of the English common law to conditions wholly strange; or, rather, perhaps, of the evolution direct from the community of a new body of rules suitable to its needs. The book may, therefore, have an interest quite outside its assistance to the practising lawyer, which must necessarily be somewhat local. Prof. Pomeroy's articles are thoughtful and interesting, and the editor's work seems to be well done. A suspicion of "padding" in the make-up of the volume is presumably chargeable to the publishers.

'Phillips on Mechanics' Liens' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.), is a new and careful (third) edition of a well-known book. In a subject entirely statutory and highly technical, there is an obvious limit to the value of any general treatise, more especially when no attempt is made to discuss the statutes of the different States separately. No lawyer could safely take a step in enforcing a mechanics' lien without a more intimate acquaintance with his local law than could be had from this source; and it may be questioned whether the book does not tend sometimes to mislead in giving the impression that there is something like a common law of the subject. Certainly the author might to advantage have done more in the way of comparing the statutes and tracing their relationship. But there is ground for hoping that the method adopted may help towards the happy result of a greater similarity among the various systems in the future; and the need of a third edition is evidence that the book has met a want of the profession.

Mr. Dwight Arven Jones has given the New York bar a handbook of a very useful kind in his 'Business Corporation Laws' (Baker, Voorhis & Co.). It contains the text of the various statutes now in force in this State on the subject of corporations, with references to decisions and to previous enactments. Every careful lawyer knows how important is the historical study of a statute; and in the maze of our recent corporation laws this assistance to such study is of manifest value.

'The Patent-Office Manual,' by George H. Knight (Little, Brown & Co.), is a collection of leading decisions on points of patent law, and especially on the practice of the Patent Office. The various heads are arranged in alphabetical order, with a brief statement of the law on each, and references to the cases. The volume is too small for anything more than a synopsis of the subject, and it is not clear in what respect there would be any considerable gain in its use over more complete treatises on patent law, except that it is brought down to a very recent date. The slovenly fashion of citing cases should be mentioned: decisions of the Supreme Court are cited in at least three different ways, and a reference to the regular reports seems rather the exception than the rule.

An eighth edition of Best's 'Principles of the Law of Evidence' is published by the Boston Book Company. It has been prepared by J. M. Lely of the English bar, and notes upon American and Canadian cases are added by Charles T. Chamberlayne of the bar of Boston. The original work has too long been a standard to require comment here, but we think that the editors might wisely lay more emphasis upon the chronology of the development of the subject. Since parties were permitted to testify, there has been no fundamental change in the law of evidence, even by statute. Such changes as have taken place consist for the most part in the subsumption of new cases under well-known principles. Many of these cases have been watched for, as filling in known gaps in the law, and it is convenient to know not only the name of the case, but the time of the decision. Of course, if we are told that a certain point was finally decided in a certain case, we can ascertain the date; but the editor could easily save us that time and trouble. In our judgment, also, it is desirable to let the original text of a standard work remain unchanged, the contributions of editors being printed so as to be distinguishable; but in the work before us it is impossible to tell the source of many statements without comparing the different editions. The American annotator seems to have collected an abundance of cases, but not to have done much in the way of indicating the development of the law. Thus we find no mention of the important case of the People against Carlyle Harris, regarded by many of the profession with grave doubt; and the People against Jacob Sharp is cited only to establish the proposition that witnesses should state facts and not inferences.

Aspects of Modern Oxford. By a Mere Don. Macmillan. 1893.

Every one who knows the Oxford of to-day knows that its academic life is altogether dominated by the tutorial system. But what that system is it is difficult for the outsider to realize; as many a hard-worked tutor must have reflected when he has listened to the passing visitor's sentimental commonplaces as to monastic retirement and cloistered seclusion. The outsider will understand it a good deal better when he has read the paper entitled "Diary of a Don" in the pleasant little volume of light essays which bears the title 'Aspects of Modern Oxford.' The author prefers to be anonymous; but there are various indications which would lead us to identify him with one of the most distinguished of the classical tutors of one of Oxford's most splendid foundations—one, in brief, who knows that whereof he writes. And this same paper will throw some light on another problem. It is sometimes alleged that there is a certain want of scholarly and scientific productivity among Oxford teachers—such as seems somewhat inconsistent with the conception of a university. Without entering into any elaborate inquiry, it does seem on the face of it as if the assertion were not far from the truth. When we come to think of it, few of the important works proceeding from Oxford during the last few years can be assigned to tutors of the type now so powerful. Most of them have been the fruits of a leisure which the typical tutor must de-

spair of securing. For, as our author's amusing "Diary" shows us, the Oxford tutor of today lives in a whirl of scholastic work and business from morning to night. His time is frittered away in a multitude of small engagements and worrying duties; his very sitting-room is an office where he is never free from interruption. "A Mere Don" is a good-humored conservative in things academic; he doubtless belongs to the noble army of the "Non-Placets" of whom he speaks, who make it their business to vote down every proposal of change. He would be the first to laugh at us if we made his satire the text of an exhortation, or if we showed any inclination to join the ranks of those who would "Germanize" English institutions. But we might yet ask him whether his extravaganza has not enough verisimilitude to be properly disquieting to those who care for the interests of learning.

We would, however, with more vehemence, direct to this particular essay the attention of those who are concerned with the government of American universities. There has unquestionably been a growth of the spirit of research in America of late years; but by the side of it there has sprung up a new type of professor, of a sort which makes us pause with a certain consternation. We no longer have the elderly, semi-clerical professor, of deliberate demeanor and childlike ignorance of the world. Our modern professor prides himself on his energy, his travels, his openness to new ideas. Instead of the old-fashioned recitation, he lectures—a vast improvement, but involving a great deal more mental strain on his part; he sits on innumerable committees; he reads shoals of examination papers; he meets his pupils in an "office"; and, to crown it all, he "runs a seminary." Yet

"Alas for the excellent earnestness."

In the midst of it all, is there not only too great danger lest the man should become altogether dead so far as the advancement of learning is concerned? It would perhaps be unsafe to say that conscientiousness is a snare; but we certainly need to set the scientific conscience over against the pedagogic.

The whole book is agreeable reading for a couple of hours. It is the best sort of bright magazine work; and we hardly need the autobiographical revelations of the chapter on "University Journalism" to tell us that the author is an old *Oxford Magazine* hand. If it has any defect, it is that there is a rather too obvious straining after a tone of blasé omniscience and indifference. We must not omit to add that the note of "intimacy" is well sustained by the pictures. They are called "illustrations," although they have no particular connection with the text save that both text and illustrations depict the social aspects of Oxford life; and they are inserted without any sort of regard to the subjects of the adjacent pages. But we will not quarrel with them, whatever they are called. They are very successful in catching graceful fugitive impressions—chiefly, indeed, of Oxford in its character of an athletic club and a summer resort for "sisters and cousins and aunts." But it is going too far in condescension to the aunts' ignorance to entitle the frontispiece "In Cornmarket *Street*." A few years ago "the High, the Broad, the Turl, and the Corn," or "the Cornmarket," were good enough for undergraduates, and "street" was left to the local tradesmen.

Adventures in Mashonaland. By Two Hospital Nurses, Rose Blennerhassett and Lucy Sleeman. Macmillan & Co. 1893. Pp. xii, 340, 8vo.

THIS bright and entertaining book supplies an important gap in our knowledge of Mashonaland. We have had descriptions of this latest British acquisition, from the point of view of the prospector by Lord Randolph Churchill, from that of the antiquarian and scholar by Mr. J. Theo. Bent, and, still more recently, from that of the sportsman and pioneer by Mr. Selous; and now Miss Rose Blennerhassett gives us a lady's impressions of life in the early days of one of its mining settlements, in such a frank and genial way, with such mingled fun and pathos, together with no inconsiderable descriptive power, that her little book deserves to rank with such works as 'Station Life in New Zealand' and 'Life on an Ostrich-Farm.'

The opening chapters tell of the experiences of the two nurses in the hospitals of Johannesburg and Kimberley, in each of which places they spent six months, and of their voyage from the Cape to Beira, a Portuguese town on the east coast. With their adventurous journey, in July, 1891, from this place to the interior, the real interest of the story begins. The episode is so modestly told that most readers will fail to recognize it as an exploit hardly surpassed in the annals of African travel. These ladies, accompanied the first part of the way by two Englishmen and some native porters, the latter half by one Englishman and three "boys," walked nearly two hundred miles, through a country where the constantly winding path led now through grass ten feet high, across sandy plains, through fever-haunted swamps, over rapidly flowing rivers, and occasionally through beautiful park-like regions abounding with game. At one place, as they lay in their hastily built shelters, "the lions, coming down to drink at the swampy pool just in front of our huts, made such a terrific noise that the earth seemed to shake with their roaring." So accustomed did they become to their presence that they "almost began to look upon them as bores that kept one awake when one was sleepy." Umtali was reached, apparently, in nine days, a part of the walk being "then the quickest on record." At this place they passed the two years of their service, and although their discomforts, privations, and perils are lightly, even humorously, treated, it is difficult to conceive of a life more entirely self-sacrificing than that of a nurse in a mining camp in Africa. For ten days they were besieged by lions, who not only raided the cattle-pens by night, but in broad daylight "coolly chased the police horses across the commonage." A leopard attempted to force its way into the hut where they lay prostrated with fever. A patient died in the hospital, "and a man with a loaded revolver sat there all night to protect the corpse from wild beasts." Yet it is not impossible that at times it was safer to live with them than with men the greater part of whom in those earliest days were generally "on the burst." There is an amusing account of Christmas, 1891, which, read between the lines, is infinitely sad, when "by noon every one in the place, with the exception of three or four men, was very tipsy indeed." The resident magistrate, when the quarrelsome stage was reached, arrested the Civil Commissioner, while the latter suspended the former from his functions, and "before midnight all the police were under arrest, we were told—the last man having provoked his punishment by holding a candle crooked, whilst the Magistrate himself tied the thumbs of some of his prisoners."

Miss Blennerhassett's pen-portraits are not the least entertaining part of her book. It is evident that she shares the unbounded confidence of all other Africanders in the head of the Chartered Company. "Whatever happens, people shrug their shoulders and say: 'It will be all right; Rhodes will square it.'" During a two days' stay at Umtali, "he was besieged with petitions of all sorts. Malcontents and chronic grumblers went to his hut, and came away in a few moments cheerful and satisfied. Not that anything was altered in the condition of affairs—the man's mere personal magnetism wrought the change." Of Mr. Selous she says: "He is known throughout Africa as the man who never tells a lie." At one time the nurses had in their service one Wilkins, "an excellent but doddering old person," who had been with Livingstone. One of his stories exhibits the great missionary explorer in a decidedly new light:

"One morning, sisters, and 'tis as true as I'm a-biting this crust, we were surrounded by strange niggers—and them niggers meant mischief, if ever a nigger did. Livingstone he says, 'We're lost,' says he; 'we must go back and give up. Come here, Wilkins, and advise me!' And I up and says, 'Give up, Doctor? Never! Let's go and drive 'em off.' The Doctor he looks at me. 'Right you are,' he says; 'lead on, my brave fellow, and I'll follow!' And as true as I'm a living man we slew seventy before breakfast!"

The two ladies left Mashonaland in the summer of 1893 by the same route by which they had come up two years before, forty miles of the tedious journey, however, being by the Beira and Umtali Railway. It is in this way that Mr. Rhodes has "squared" the fever and the tsetse fly.

The Barbary Coast. By Henry M. Field. With illustrations. Scribners. 1893. 12mo, pp. 258.

DR. FIELD is an experienced traveller as well as an experienced writer. Without aiming to be learned or critical or statistical, he is accustomed to see and to hear and to tell. His books are therefore enjoyable if the reader pursues the flowing narrative in the same mood with which he would listen to the story of an intelligent friend who has lately visited a foreign land, with good introductions, sensible habits, and a kindly interest in all sorts and conditions of men. 'The Barbary Coast' is probably the best, as it is the latest, of these epistolary narratives.

The author's itinerary began at Gibraltar, and it took him to Tangier, Oran, Algiers, Kabylia, Biskra, Constantine, and Tunis—a line of travel now made easy, even to Americans, by the excellent steamers on the Mediterranean, and the very fair railways and hotels which have accompanied the French in their occupancy of the southern shore of the great sea. At Tangier—most Occidental in position but most Oriental in character of all the towns on this route—Dr. Field (who had the good fortune to know the American unofficial resident, Mr. Perdicaris, and the American consul, Col. Matthews) was taken to visit the Moorish minister of foreign affairs and the bashaw who is governor of the city. Mr. Richard Harding Davis was his companion. "Davis, who is himself six feet, had for once to look up, and whispered to me (as the bashaw swept before us in his flowing robes), 'What a magnificent specimen of manly strength and beauty.'" From this reluctant governor the Americans obtained permission to enter the

prison, and there they saw the survival of that horrid kind of incarceration which once engulfed the Christian captives imprisoned by the Barbary pirates. "Starvation is the constant discipline in the prison of Tangiers. It takes a strong man to stand it long." No wonder that this humane visitor provided a hundred loaves of bread and distributed them one Sunday morning, "never more grateful for any privilege than that of going from one prisoner to another and giving to them bread." No incident of the journey is more striking than this. By singular good fortune, Dr. Field secured a "snap" photograph of Sidna Muley Hassan, the Sultan of Morocco, a likeness hardly bigger than a pin-head; and this, enlarged, makes one of the illustrations of the book. It is probably the only portrait in existence that gives any just impression of the man whom Mr. Perdicaris regards as "the best ruler that ever sat upon the throne of Morocco." This remark, by the way, suggests a well-known witticism: "Louis Philippe was the greatest monarch on the throne of France after the first Napoleon."

Algiers, often described by travellers, seems to have suggested nothing unusual to Dr. Field. His account of the land of the Kabyles is more interesting, especially as he was prepared for it by Mr. Grellet's introduction to the habits of these strong mountaineers. The gorge of Chabet is well described. Biskra, on the northern edge of the Sahara, is the southernmost point of the French railway system, and, strange to say, it is now pictured as "a fashionable winter resort with all the features of similar resorts on the other side of the Mediterranean," a distinction due to its climate, "never troubled by the mists and fogs that often enwrap Algiers and the Riviera." Constantine reminds the author of Edinburgh, Jerusalem, and Toledo. A city that has been besieged and taken twenty-four times is now so quiet and orderly that the traveller "is under the protection of law as much as if he were in France itself." The town of Bone recalls to the Presbyterian visitor the story of St. Augustine, "though the ancient Hippo is gone; not a trace of it remains." Tunis came next, another town half French, half African; near by, the ruins of Carthage, and, on the neighboring hilltop, the mausoleum of Cardinal Lavigerie, primate of Africa, and successor of St. Cyprian. From Tunis to Marseilles, and the narrative is ended. Charitable estimates of men of other faiths, of other politics, and of other manners mark every chapter of the book.

Authors and Their Public in Ancient Times. By Geo. Haven Putnam. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1894.

THIS book is designed as a general introduction to a proposed history of the origin and development of literary property. Though the author knows that such a thing as literary property, in the modern sense of the term, had no existence in antiquity, yet he rightly judges that it is of interest, if not of absolute necessity to a clear understanding of its growth, to examine the conditions under which books were written, prepared for readers, published and distributed before the invention of printing. His book consists of six chapters. The first is a sketch of what he calls the beginnings of literature. It deals with the clay cylinder of Assyria and the Egyptian 'Book of the Dead' (the first book ever offered for sale), the folk-songs and epics of China, Japan, and India, and the religious writings of the Hebrews. In the next chapter we are brought to the first literature which deserves the name because it was unfettered by either kings or priests—that of the Greeks. Then comes "publication" through minstrels and rhapsodies, and through readings aloud by the authors themselves, then the beginnings of a reading public, collections of books, and the book market at Athens. Then, with the institution of the Museum, of the doings in which a full account is given, Alexandria became the rival book-mart, and in turn yielded to Rome, with the first great bookseller and publisher, Atticus. Finally, after Rome comes Constantinople. There is a special chapter on the materials of which ancient books were made and on the book-terminology of classic times.

It must be evident that a work like this, if thoroughly to be trusted, would be of great interest and usefulness to all book-lovers. This is by no means the first attempt at such a history. Mr. Putnam has a number of predecessors, though none in English of any importance, and he gives a good bibliography of them. He is not slow to acknowledge his obligations, especially to the works of Clement, Schmitz, Birt, and Haenny. Where he follows them we have as a rule little fault to find. But it is extremely unfortunate that he should not have submitted his book, before publication, to a classical scholar, since he himself, as he admits in his preface, is none. Yet three-fourths of it deals with Greece and Rome! It needs a thorough revision, for, to say nothing of misprints and errors in Greek words (from which, too, the accents are generally omitted), misquotations in Latin (on p. 208 there are ten errors in a poem of eighteen verses), and many mistakes in citations of the authors, there are numerous blunders of another sort. Such, for instance, is the idea that the Greek dramatic poet made any money by the sale of theatre tickets, that "rhapsody" meant originally poems sewed together, that the laws of Solon are extant somewhere, that Suidas wrote in Latin, and that the passage quoted from the "Frogs" on page 71 was addressed by Æschylus to Euripides, and that it referred to any particular tragedy—the fact being that it is spoken by Euripides, and that he was talking about the art in general. We have referred mainly to Greek matters, but this kind of error is enough to throw doubt on the authority of the whole book. It cannot be recommended in its present form, and yet, after careful correction, it might become a standard work.

Vertebrate Embryology: A text-book for students and practitioners. By A. Milnes Marshall, M.D., D.Sc., M.A., F.R.S., Professor in the Victoria University, etc. 8vo, pp. 640, 255 figures. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1893.

THE publication of this work within a few months after those of Minot and Hertwig-Mark is noteworthy and a cause for gratification. Intermediate in size, it differs radically in plan. The larger part is occupied by "consecutive and straightforward accounts" of the main facts in the development of five vertebrate types, the lancelet, frog, fowl, rabbit, and man. The first and the last—like the dunce and the genius of a class—have special claims to consideration; on purely theoretic grounds the others might perhaps be replaced by less highly specialized forms, but practically they are acceptable.

An introduction of thirty-six pages gives a "General Account of the Development of Animals," necessarily brief, but for the most part clear and suggestive. It closes with an excellent presentation of the "Recapitulation Theory," from which we select the following passages:

"Evolution tells us that each animal has had a pedigree. Embryology reveals to us this ancestry, because every animal in its own development repeats its history, climbs up its own genealogical tree. It is indeed a history, but a history of which entire chapters are lost, while in those that remain many pages are misplaced, and others are so blurred as to be illegible; words, sentences, or entire paragraphs are omitted, and, worse still, alterations or spurious additions of later date have been freely introduced, and at times so cunningly as to defy detection."

In the preface the author makes frank acknowledgment of his indebtedness to other observers, and expresses regret that Minot's "important treatise on Human Embryology only came into my hands while the last sheets of my own book were passing through the press, and that I have been unable to avail myself of the rich store of facts, and of the numerous suggestive explanations which his work contains." This regret will be shared by most readers, since only experts can escape some confusion, due to the radical differences in terms and even opinions. For example, in the present work the three germ layers are designated as *epiblast*, *hypoblast*, and *mesoblast;* Minot's equivalents, *ectoderm*, *entoderm*, and *mesoderm*, are not given, even as synonyms, while Minot mentions the other set of terms only in his preface to discard them. The student and general reader might well be puzzled on consulting the index to either work. *Anlage* and *fundament*, apparently indispensable to Minot and Mark respectively, have not been found in the present volume, although there are places where some equivalent (*e. g.*, the *proton* of Aristotle) might well have been employed. Marshall, like most zoölogists, regards the lancelet as "clearly and undoubtedly a vertebrate" (p. 44), while Minot declares (p. 187) that "it is not a true vertebrate." Respecting the twisted appearance of the umbilical cord, our author says (p. 601): "It is clear that, as the cord twists, the embryo must rotate"; but Minot denies (p. 361) the existence of any proof of such rotation, or even of the actual twisting of the cord. To the impartial and bewildered layman it will probably occur that the conditions and the established facts should be submitted to an expert in physics.

The author's laudable intentions as to explicitness have not saved him from the common fault of vague generalization; when, for example, on p. 23, he states that the mesoblast forms the largest portion of the embryo in the "higher animals," does he mean the mammals, or the warm-blooded mammals and birds, or the air-breathing mammals, birds, and reptiles, or all above the fishes? The statement (p. 25) that the "tadpole is really a fish, not merely as regards its breathing organs, but in all details of its organization," might be submitted to a scientific body as an expression of opinion, but is quite out of place in a manual for students. It is hard to see what useful end is gained by the declaration (p. 90) that "as a group Amphibia [frogs, salamanders, etc.] are characterized more especially by the double nature of their breathing organs." A combined aquatic and aerial respiration occurs likewise in the dipnoans and in several ganoids, not to speak of the pharyngeal respiration of certain turtles. Minor errors are the application of *cryptobranchus* to the Japanese *megalobatrachus*, and the employment of *am-*

phiuxus in place of the prior (although less acceptable) *branchiostoma*.

As in most recent works, the ambiguous *anterior* and *posterior* are commonly accompanied by or discarded for the explicit *ventral* and *dorsal* as applied to the regions of the body, nerve-roots, etc. But, as might be expected, in the early stages of transition from the old extrinsic to the new intrinsic toponymy, some odd usages occur. For example, on p. 471, the portion of the body of an embryo is said to be "concave upward"; on p. 471 the portion of the dog's uterus farthest from the head is termed the "distal or lower part," and on p. 572 *distal* is used where peripheral would commonly be preferred.

The illustrations are mostly clear and accurate, and uniformity of abbreviation has been aimed at. There are no adequate diagrams of the general constitution of the embryo by three layers, and the two figures referred to are less available than others (17–20) farther on. Since the section on the frog is substantially based upon the author's own observations, it is disappointing to find five early stages represented by figures of models (fig. 58).

At the end of each chapter is a list of the more important recent publications on the subject arranged alphabetically by authors; but "in the text no attempt is made to assign the several statements to their original authors." In this and in some other respects the present work will be less useful for the advanced student or investigator than Minot's more elaborate treatise; but it is just what it purports to be, and will probably supply the wants of a larger number than the works of either Minot or Hertwig-Mark. A valuable section, absent or abbreviated in the other two, discusses the relation of ovulation to menstruation, and the data for estimating the age of a human embryo. The index is unusually complete, but Kleinenberg's ingenious hypothesis as to the office of "rudimentary and functionless organs" (p. 33) is not entered under any one of the three words.

The Industries of Animals. By Frédéric Houssay. (Contemporary Science Series.) Charles Scribner's Sons. 1893. Pp. xii, 258, 8vo. Illustrated.

Romance of the Insect World. By L. N. Badenoch. Macmillan & Co. 1893. Pp. xviii, 341, 8vo. Illustrated.

Letters to Marco. By Geo. D. Leslie, R.A. Macmillan. 1893. Pp. xviii, 260, 8vo. Illustrated.

The Outdoor World, or Young Collector's Handbook. By W. Furneaux, F.R.G.S. Longmans, Green & Co. 1893. Pp. xxviii, 411, 8vo. 16 colored plates and 500 cuts.

Our Household Insects; An Account of the Insect Pests found in Dwelling-houses. By Edward A. Butler, B.Sc. Longmans. 1893. Pp. x, 344, 8vo. 6 plates and 113 illustrations in the text.

THE growing interest in science has led to the preparation of many books in which the facts which are supposed to appeal most strongly to the general reader are imbedded in a jelly of literature provided to insure a certain continuity in the result. The ability to do this well is rare, and by common consent is found more frequently on the Continental side of the English Channel than among British writers. M. Houssay does not fail to sustain with credit the reputation of his compatriots. The French original of his little work is written with characteristic ease and grace, which are not entirely lost in the translation, although the latter is obviously the work of some one unversed in idiomatic English. The author divides the different industries of animals into groups, beginning with fishing and hunting, on the one hand, and, on the other, illustrating the means adopted by animals to avoid becoming the prey of fishers and hunters. Next are considered the collection of food, the commensalism of mutually beneficial animals and the practice of slaveholding, the construction and hygiene of dwellings and their defence against attacks from without. The book is pleasant reading, the faults of translation are too simple to be very annoying, and the illustrations, being mostly derived from Brehm's 'Thierleben,' are good. The scientific accuracy of the statements made is above the average in such books, the few exceptions seeming to be chargeable to the translator.

The 'Insect World' affords no romance, in spite of the author's title; the ground covered by the second work on our list is, practically, much the same as in M. Houssay's book. The language, though idiomatic, is often forced or turgid, and the drawings, when original, are "woolly" and obscure. There is nothing novel or particularly attractive in the author's mode of presentation, though many facts of interest in the life of insects are brought together in the book.

The letters to Marco were written by Mr. Leslie to an old friend, who presumably was house-bound, and are illustrated by many admirable little pen-and-ink sketches of natural objects, views and bits of architecture. Slight as they are from any point of view, they still preserve the lightness of the open air and the fragrance of garden and wood. Altogether this is a book for any denied by fate the privilege of country rambling.

Mr. Furneaux's hand-book is very fully illustrated by somewhat coarse but characteristic colored plates and numerous cuts of various degrees of merit. He tries to cover the entire field of collecting animal, vegetable, and mineral specimens, and on the whole succeeds very well. The book is distinctively British: it is the British fauna and flora which are illustrated, and the British collector's dialect which occasionally finds a place in its intentionally untechnical text. For English boys we should think the book worthy of high commendation. For our own boys and girls it is not without its use; as many of the animals and plants figured have closely related representatives on this side of the Atlantic, and many of the general instructions apply equally well to collectors in any temperate region. It will also give young people useful information about many animals and plants not found in America, but familiarly referred to in English literature and about which every intelligent person should know. We hope the time is not far distant when American boys and girls can find some hand-book, illustrated as well as this one, based on our own fauna and flora, clearly and distinctly written, and scientifically accurate. As we are free from the pest of "common names," for the most part, children can learn, as they should, the true scientific names of the objects of their search. These names are not longer or more difficult than many words in daily use which every child is expected to understand, in spite of some silly notions to the contrary; and they convey exact ideas which the "common" names rarely do.

In 'Our Household Insects' Mr. Butler has produced an excellent book, which any housewife may read with profit, and every entomologist will find convenient for reference. Although primarily written for English readers, it is equally available for Americans. Unhappily, nearly every household pest can claim the world as its country and all mankind as its natural prey. The language is not technical, the text is written in an easy, yet not too familiar, style. Each of the various creatures referred to is fully described, its peculiarities pointed out and usually illustrated, its habits discussed, and the circumstances favoring its increase made clear. It is not a book of remedies for pests, but those who intelligently read it will be far better able to cope with their tormentors than ever before. The illustrations are excellent, and the publishers have done everything to present Mr. Butler's text in a form suitable for any library.

The Protection of Woodlands. Translated from the German by John Nisbet, D.Œc. New York: Wm. R. Jenkins. 1893.

THIS is an amended translation of the rearranged fourth edition of Kauschinger's 'Lehre vom Waldschutz,' "a simple, scientific and practical little work," originally printed in 1873. A thorough reading of the book only confirms the commendatory words of the translator, who is a distinguished officer of the British forest service in India. After a brief introduction defining the aim and scope of the art of protecting woodlands, the book is divided into three sections. The first treats, in six chapters, of the protection of woodlands against injuries due to inorganic agencies such as frost, heat, rain, snow, hail, lightning, and excessive wetness or dryness of soil. The second section treats of the protection of woodlands against injuries due to organic agencies, such as weeds, parasites, domestic animals, animals of the chase, small rodents, birds, and insects; one hundred and five pages, or two-fifths of the whole book, being devoted to insects. The third section considers the protection of woodlands against forest fires, and other dangers arising from the wilfulness or carelessness of men, and contains little of value to American readers. Throughout the work there are paragraphs, and sometimes chapters, which have no bearing upon American conditions, yet the book as a whole is so sound and clear that all who are interested in its subject should own it. Now that the United States Government, the Boston Metropolitan Park Commission, and a few wealthy private citizens are making large reservations of forest lands, the American purchasers of this book should be many.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Angelus Domini, with Legendary Lays and Poems in Honor of the Blessed Virgin Mary. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.50.

Baker, G. P. Specimens of Argumentation. Modern. Henry Holt & Co. 50 cents.

Durrett, R. T. The Centenary of Louisville. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.

Fairfield, Rev. E. B. Letters on Baptism. Boston: Congregational Publishing Society. 75 cents.

Hazlitt, William. The Spirit of the Age. [Knickerbocker Nuggets.] Putnams. $1.

Kenyon, F. G. Hyperides: The Orations against Athenogenes and Philippides. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.60

Littell's Living Age. Oct.—Dec., 1893. Boston: Littell & Co.

Murray, David. The Story of Japan. Putnams. $1.50.

Papers and Addresses at the Fifteenth Church Congress. Whittaker. $1.

Rossetti, D. G. The House of Life. Boston: Copeland & Day. $5.

Symonds, J. A. A Short History of the Renaissance in Italy. Henry Holt & Co. $1.75.

Tarr, Prof. R. S. Economic Geology of the United States. Macmillan. $4.

The Ariel Shakspere. Third Group. 7 vols. Putnams. Each 75 cents.

The Columbian Congress of the Universalist Church. Boston: Universalist Publishing House.

White, Gleeson. Book Song: An Anthology of Poems of Books and Bookmen from Modern Authors. Armstrong. $1.25.

Worthington, T. L. The Dwellings of the Poor. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.

Yonge, C. M. The Heir of Redclyffe. Rand, McNally & Co. 75 cents.

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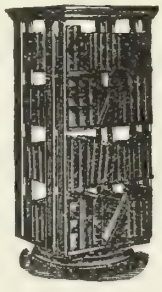

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 25, 1894.

The Week.

THE adoption of the free-wool clause in the House on Thursday by a strict party vote shows that, whatever else may or may not come out of the tariff struggle, free wool is certain to come. If that should turn out to be the only thing gained, it alone would be worth the long fight. It would be worth it because it of itself would be certain in the near future to bring the whole high-tariff system to the ground. The Republican champions have taken their stand on the wool tax, and if they are beaten there, they are beaten everywhere, and they know it. The rest is only a question of detail and of time. In the matter of the tax on wool, protection has ceased to be a faith and become a superstition. It now has all the marks of blind fanaticism, refusing to trust the evidence of the senses and believing all the more firmly after belief has been demonstrated to be irrational—on the old principle, *credo quia impossibile.* Judge Lawrence, in his recent annual address to the Ohio wool-growers, tearfully declared that wool was now selling at "the lowest rates ever known in this country," but in the same breath called for "a gradual annual increase of duties" to "give such protection as would in four years enable American wool-growers to supply all needed and import none." He said he had thought the McKinley increase in duties would do the business, but had found that a mistake, as wool had simply gone lower than ever before. Now he is prophetically certain that another increase, or at any rate a "gradual annual increase," will raise prices. This is fetishism pure and simple. It is worse than fetishism, for we are sure that no savage would keep on offering rice and bananas to a totem-post that had proved itself so thorough a fraud as Judge Lawrence's wool tax has, by his own confession.

The wool-manufacturers, on their part, have been led away by the same superstition. They have tied themselves up with the wool-growers in an alliance that has been not only unholy, but, what is far worse from their point of view, unprofitable. As Mr. Edward D. Page proves in the *Wool and Cotton Reporter*, they have been completely hoodwinked by the theory of compensatory duties on their product to make up for the duty on raw wool, and have been more and more disabling themselves from making goods to compete with the foreign manufacturers either in quality or price. His conclusion is that every manufacturer ought to be glad to welcome "a system whose tendency is rather to induce men to rely upon economy, ability, and skill than to lean on the operation of the law in obtaining a profit." Against the doleful predictions of our Dolans and Norths, he very neatly sets off the dire forecast of Abbott Lawrence, who said in 1846, in regard to the reduced duties of the Walker tariff:

> "In less than twelve months after this new plan shall have been in operation, this whole country will be literally surfeited with foreign merchandise; we shall then owe a debt abroad of millions of dollars, . . . and a paralysis will have struck the business of the country."

Yet the increase of woollen manufactures in Massachusetts was 61 per cent. under that ruin-dealing tariff.

The proposition of Mr. Walker of Massachusetts, as developed in his debate with Mr. Bourke Cockran, is that if cotton and woollen goods should fall like rain from heaven in sufficient quantities to supply all our wants, it would not be worth our while to pick them up. On the contrary, it would be an injury to us. Why so? Because those who are now engaged in making cotton and woollen goods would be out of employment. They would get their own share of the shower, of course, but as they could not eat cottons or woollens they would starve to death. So there you are, floundering in a heap of goods that cost nothing, but with famine on every hand. The theory of the tariff party is, that we all ought to pay (say) 60 per cent. extra for woollen goods in order that the weavers and other workers in woollens may make a fair living. But if divine Providence should send us all the woollens we need for nothing, could we not afford to pay these people enough to board the weavers and their families at the best hotels in the country? Should we not save money by the operation? The Walker theory is as applicable to one kind of goods as to another. According to his notion we should all be ruined, in an economical sense, if all our wants of every kind and description were supplied gratuitously. We can imagine Mr. Walker remonstrating with Providence after each addition to the list of free goods. After a heavy downpour of flour and sugar he would see nothing but poverty and distress among the agricultural classes. If boots and shoes should come next, all the tanners and shoemakers would be ruined, and so on until everybody would be in the poorhouse because nobody would be in want of anything. Great is Protection!

The votes taken in the House on Monday by which sugar was made absolutely free of tax and the American people delivered from the payment of bounties on its production, may or may not be reversed by subsequent action. All these votes taken in committee of the whole are liable to be reversed in the House when the yeas and nays are called. It is difficult to say which side ought to prevail. On the one hand, it may be affirmed that bounties paid out of the public treasury to particular trades are contrary to all principles of justice, and that a gratuity collected from wheat-growers who are getting only fifty cents per bushel in order to give sugar-growers two cents per pound more than they would get in a free market, is a glaring outrage. It certainly looks so, and is perhaps intensified when coupled with it is a disguised bounty to the refiners who formed a Trust by means of which they doubled their capital by a stroke of the pen, and proceeded to pay dividends of 21 per cent. on their shares so capitalized. At the other end of the line is a handful of sugar-planters in Louisiana and Texas, by no means so hard pressed as the farmers of the North, who are receiving $10,000,000 per annum in the way of bonus for growing sugar-cane, and the only reason that can be given for paying this bonus to them is that they formerly had it under the form of a protective tariff. When the McKinley bill removed the duty from raw sugar and substituted a bounty in place of it, the mask was thrown off and the nature of the protective tariff disclosed. The sugar-planters begged that this change be not made, because, they said, the people would not allow the bounty to continue long. They would "see through it," although they could not see through the tariff, and when they should see through it, they would stop it peremptorily. This anticipation has now been realized, and it is most likely that the House will ratify the action of the committee of the whole. The votes on sugar and on wool prove that the party is more radical than the committee.

Those silly bankers and investors who hurried off their letters and telegrams to Washington and subscribed for Secretary Carlisle's loan four times over must now feel thoroughly alarmed. It was somewhat staggering to hear so promptly from the Knights of Labor that the issue of bonds was illegal and would be fought in the courts. This was poohpoohed by some thoughtless persons, but what will they now have left to say? Senator Quay ranges himself alongside the legal luminaries of the Populists, and warns the "takers of the loan" that the "securities go out

under a cloud, and that their redemption will be an important political issue in the future." Does this mean that a bondholder's political affiliations will be rigidly inquired into before he gets his interest? Will Mr. Quay, if made secretary of the treasury in the next Administration, refuse to "take the lid off," in the good old Pennsylvania fashion, to pay for nefarious Democratic bonds? It is possible that he might consent to compromise and pay all bonds printed from the plates prepared by President Harrison, when, as Secretary Foster told "Deacon" White, an issue of bonds was decided upon at the end of 1892. This is the only ray of light we now see for the unfortunate subscribers.

The Hawaiian Oligarchs give signs of uneasiness at the anomalous kind of government they are presenting to the world, and report that they are soon going to launch a constitutional republic. If they had done this, or pretended to do it, a year ago, they would have saved a vast amount of trouble to themselves and all concerned. The lapse of twelve months has not made the problem any easier. As to their new constitution, they are, of course, simply going to "proclaim" that. They gravely tell us that "no constitution in Hawaii has ever been submitted to a vote of the people, but simply proclaimed by the executive authority," and they mean to follow that precedent. It was treason for the Queen to try to do it last January, to be sure, but probably no one will remember that, and, anyhow, the real question is whether you are in favor of chastity and against the *Kahunas*. The Queen's doctrine was the monstrous one of "Hawaii for the Hawaiians," but this is now to give way to the truer motto, "Hawaii for the Americans," and the necessary hocus-pocus for disfranchising the natives and putting all political power in the hands of foreigners, by blood or citizenship, is now under way in the minds of the men who went to Hawaii with empires in their brains. They are a queer lot, and it will be an interesting thing to see how they get on. All that we ask now is that they shall not be put in the position of helping to govern us.

The petition of 8,000 legal voters of Hawaii, out of 13,000 all told, asking the United States to restore them the government which was struck down a year ago by a conspiracy of aliens acting with the United States minister, is a singularly ill-timed and ineffective document. We know that all these voters are "drunken and lewd," for the Rev. Sereno Bishop has so informed us. He admits that they are in a majority in the Islands, but when a majority is drunken and lewd, it doesn't count. Then these petitioners have apparently made the great mistake of supposing that the Republican party is in power. If it were, it would, of course, jump at the chance of living up to its historic doctrine that a black man's vote is as good as a white man's, and that the majority must rule, even if the minority has more intelligence and property. How foolish to expect a Democratic administration to proceed upon these Republican principles! Moreover, these petitioners come here after the *Tribune* has already decided that Hawaii is a "prosperous and independent republic." How could that be true if the majority of the people do not even want a republic? Really, these 8,000 petitioners are displaying a pitiable want of grasp of the situation.

The last batch of the Hawaiian correspondence is rather entertaining. Dole wrote, December 27, a letter evidently intended for the public here, pretending to believe that Willis's "attitude, language, and refusal to disclose," etc., led to the conclusion that he was going to use force to restore the Queen. The consequence was, he said, "threats of assassination against the officers of the Government," "conspiracies to create disorder," great anxiety among "aged and sick persons" and "children in the schools," and "apprehension" among "wives, sisters, and daughters," great "packing of valuables," and offers of asylum by Japanese to "unprotected women," and great "preparation of bandages," besides "agitating rumors," and an expensive increase of the military force on the part of the Government. There was much more of the same sort. In fact, Dole gave Willis to understand that he (Dole) was preparing to fight the United States, and wanted an explanation of Willis's hostile designs. Willis happily proved equal to the occasion. He asked Dole for a categorical explanation of the various phrases in which he described the causes of his apprehensions. Dole was cornered. He wrote saying that "the last mail had removed his fears, and further correspondence was unnecessary," but "was ready to furnish specifications" if Willis "still desired them." But Willis did desire them, and clung to him for an explanation. He then got another letter, not signed, from "the minister of foreign affairs," informing him that he "would not press him further for answer to his questions." Willis insisted, but at the departure of the mail had got no answer. There is no answer. The "minister of foreign affairs" was writing merely to stir up the people of the United States. The "missionary element" is full of these tricks.

The horror excited by Queen Liliuokalani's assertion that the provisional government ought to have their heads cut off and their property confiscated as the punishment of their treason, is very funny, considering that this is the penalty for treason in every country in the world except our own. We do not confiscate property, but in all other countries, especially the semi-barbarous ones like Turkey, on a level with which we might place Hawaii, they either hang traitors or cut off their heads. In proposing this penalty, therefore, the Queen was strictly within her right, and so was the *World* of this city in proposing that the provisional government should now cut off her head for plotting against them. All the emperors and kings hang or behead their defeated rebels, and the provisional government was doubtless afraid of something of the kind when it got Stevens to land the *Boston's* troops. Of course we ought to prevent any such barbarity, if we have the power, for we have got over the pristine habit of killing traitors by judicial sentence; but it is not discreditable to the Queen, as a semi-barbarian, to want to do the usual thing to her enemies. We must remember how many of us wanted to "hang Jeff Davis on a sour-apple tree," and how many good people in England want to hang Gladstone. The late Prof. Tyndall said he "deserved a traitor's doom" on Tower Hill.

President Cleveland's reasons for vetoing the North River Bridge bill cannot fail to strike even the advocates of the measure as fair and well grounded. He points out that the company asking for permission to construct the bridge was created by an act of the New York Legislature, in which it was expressly provided that the bridge should be constructed with a single span, with no pier or tower in the river; that an act of Congress, passed in 1890, granting permission for the construction of a bridge near Twenty-third street, had a like provision; that in all bills for bridges over the same river, many of which have been considered in Congress, the same provision was considered by engineering authorities to be necessary; that if the present bill were to become a law, with permission to place a pier in the river, it would carry with it also permission to the company having the grant for a bridge near Twenty-third Street to place a pier at that point; and, finally, that engineers, whose judgment upon the matter cannot be questioned, including the engineer of the company proposing to construct this bridge, have expressed the opinion that a pier is not necessary, and that a bridge can be constructed with a span over the entire distance. The latter point ought to be accepted as conclusive. If the bridge can be constructed without a pier, the company ought at once to renew its application with the objection-

able pier clause eliminated. In that way it would demonstrate its sincerity conclusively. We do not for a moment believe that the President has been animated in his disapproval of the measure by any feeling except regard for the public interest. Throughout his public career, as Mayor, Governor, and President, his use of the veto power has been uniformly wise, fearless, and completely removed from all taint of partisanship, personal prejudice, or demagogy.

The dispute over the World's Fair medal is another instance of the mess our Government makes of it every time it attempts to deal with matters of art. It blundered outrageously about the new coinage a few years ago, and the result is our present wonderful quarter. It always produces the worst building and the worst decoration, the worst postage-stamp and the worst Treasury note, to be had for money. Now it has insulted one of the most eminent artists in the country by rejecting as "vulgar" an eminently proper and eminently beautiful design, because it represented Young America as a vigorous, nude youth. We are used to the occasional outbreaks of prudery which lead young men in the West to deface paintings by Bouguereau, and matrons of Philadelphia to protest against the exhibition of pictures by Low and Harrison, but when the Government proceeds, publicly and before the nations, to follow in the same train, it is trying to the nerves. If the effect of free importation of works of art shall be to insert some knowledge of the subject into the skulls of our rulers, that alone is a reason for the speedy passage of the Wilson bill; but if the gentlemen who have been busy in this matter are fair representatives of the Senate to which they belong, we fear there is little hope for the artists when the bill comes before that body. They evidently want no art at all, domestic or foreign, in anything with which they have to do.

The downfall of Talmage is an encouraging sign of the times. We say downfall, because his resignation is nothing else than a confession of his failure. He leaves the Brooklyn Tabernacle simply because he cannot make it pay its running expenses. Last year he "praised God, from whom all blessings flow," that the plumbers, and carpenters, and gas-fitters who had bills for work and materials consented to accept twenty-three per cent. of their claims when they found they could not get any more. This year there must be a reckoning with Russell Sage, who made the concern a large loan on which the interest has not been paid, and who never compromises on any 23 per cent. basis. No way appears of meeting his demands, even with Talmage as an advertising card, and so Talmage retires, leaving his people to struggle with the problem of the great structure which he had built for his especial exhibition. That clerical mountebankery no longer pays is made clear by this Brooklyn experience, and all right-thinking persons will rejoice over the fact. Talmage's thanks to the newspapers are most appropriate, for without their help he must have broken down long ago.

There is more fear of war in Europe now than there has been for many years, certainly than since 1887. The appearance of the Russian fleet in the Mediterranean in considerable force is, as has been said by a high authority, the most serious event for England since Trafalgar, and the disturbances in Sicily are supposed to be not remotely connected with it. In fact, Italy, as a member of the Triple Alliance, seems to be all but paralyzed. She has an army of the required size, but, owing to lack of money, both organization and equipment are defective. The best authorities are of opinion that half the force in good condition would be more valuable. The finances, too, are in terrible disorder, and an outbreak of hostilities would bring on instant bankruptcy. The hostility of the French press to England is so furious and outspoken that it is a question in London whether the trouble may not begin by a summons to evacuate Egypt, which England would certainly disregard. This makes the relations of England to the Triple Alliance very interesting, but nobody seems to know what they are, although there is much speculation about them. The Germans could give very little help at sea, but they could frighten France a good deal on land, although both they and the Austrians would have a powerful Russian army on their hands on the eastern frontier. It is, however, more than likely that if England were attacked, Germany and Austria would be pleased to see her fight it out single-handed. On the Continent England's success in keeping out of international complications excites anything but admiration and good will. For England herself war just now would be particularly inconvenient, for the revenue is decreasing, and there is a heavy deficit this year, and there will have to be a loan to strengthen the navy.

There is already trouble with the South African Chartered Company. Mr. Rhodes, who got the company up and obtained its charter, organized the expedition into Mashonaland which beat the Matabeles. He has views of his own about the manner in which the new territory, which is immense in extent, should be settled and organized, and they differ considerably in some respects from those of the Government at home. Rhodes, however, has, since his victories over the Matabeles, become a great hero in the eyes of the Cape Colonists, and his success has doubtless done much to turn his head, or, as our slang would say, to enlarge it. Accordingly he has made a speech in which he substantially bids defiance to the home Government, and says that if they do not let him have his way, they may have to face an agitation for the independence of the Cape Colony. This has roused much indignation in England, and the *Economist* points out to Mr. Rhodes that his conquests were made by him not as a Cape Colonist, for the Cape Colony declined the job, but as president of a company chartered by Great Britain, and of which the stockholders are mainly Englishmen, and as a British citizen; that his enormous financial speculations are not yet a success, and that he had better keep a civil tongue in his head. This is all true, but why it should trouble Rhodes we do not well see. There is no doubt that if he got up a determined movement for separation at the Cape, the mother country could hardly resist it. It would be impossible to conquer South Africa and hold it, and if Rhodes were to attempt separation, of course he would be content to let his British citizenship go. Moreover, although it is true that his stockholders are Englishmen, it is also true that he has got and spent their money. It does not help Rhodes in England to have given $50,000 to Parnell for the home-rule agitation.

The professed purpose of the warring factions in Brazil is to "tire each other out." If the process is going on with them as fast as with the rest of the world, the end cannot be far away. It is now about four months since the fleet rebelled under Admiral Mello. The revolutionists no doubt expected that all would be over in twenty-four hours, and that Peixoto would step down and out just as Fonseca had before him. But the President was too obstinate an old soldier to give it up in that fashion, and his stubborn holding out made it necessary for the rebels to recast their plans entirely. Everything now points to their having determined to land a respectable body of troops near the capital and have the thing out in a decisive engagement. It certainly is time that some more deadly implement of war should be brought into use than the cable and rumors via Paris or Lisbon. We are glad to note, by the way, that the Brazilian minister to this country has at last abandoned the pretence that Mr. Flint's wonderful fighting-vessels were ever intended to fight at all. They are now simply going to "sail off and on" and fall furiously upon any transport that comes their way. Those ships, it is now clear, were made not to fight but to sell.

THE NEW BOND ISSUE.

If it be true, as the Washington despatches intimate, that the judiciary committee of the House intends to report a resolution contesting the right of the secretary of the treasury to use any money derived from the sale of bonds for current expenses, we hope that the wise men on that committee will consider all the laws on the statute-book before reaching a conclusion. One of these laws, approved May 31, 1878, is as follows.

"That from and after the passage of this act it shall not be lawful for the secretary of the treasury or other officer under him to cancel or retire any more of the United States legal-tender notes. And when any of said notes may be redeemed or be received into the treasury under any law from any source whatever, and shall belong to the United States, they shall not be retired, cancelled, or destroyed, but they *shall be reissued and paid out again and kept in circulation.*"

The significance of this law, taken in connection with the greenback-redemption law, is this: If the secretary were a great stickler for forms, and if he believed that he had no right to use any part of the gold reserve for the payment of current expenses, he would make an arrangement with some bank to present, say, $5,000,000 in greenbacks for redemption at the sub-treasury. For these he would, of course, hand over $5,000,000 of gold. Then he would pay out the $5,000,000 of greenbacks for his current expenses. The law not only authorizes but requires him to do so. It says that the notes "*shall be* reissued and paid out again and kept in circulation." Reference to the date of this law will show that it was passed in contemplation of the resumption of specie payments, then only seven months distant.

Now, what difference does it make whether the secretary redeems $5,000,000 of greenbacks per month with gold, and uses the former for current expenses, or whether he uses the gold directly? The one process calls for a little more trouble than the other, but not much more. Any bank, or any individual, for that matter, can present greenbacks and get gold, and then turn the gold over to a third person (for example, a Government creditor), on the very counter of the sub-treasury. A clerk of the Treasury Department could do this without violating any law, and could thus comply with the letter of the statute. The difference between this method and the direct payment of gold for current expenses is hardly so great as that 'twixt tweedledum and tweedledee.

There is another case of a like nature that the judiciary committee might report on while it has this weighty matter under consideration. The original greenback law (February 25, 1862) provided that all duties on imported goods should be paid in coin. That law has never been changed to this hour, yet greenbacks have been received for duties ever since specie payments were resumed. Why so? Because it was putting people to useless trouble to compel an importer to take greenbacks to the sub-treasury and draw gold, and then carry the gold to the cashier of the custom-house, who must return it to the sub-treasury the same day. All such idle steps are nonsense.

It is unfortunate that the law under which Secretary Carlisle is compelled to act in issuing bonds does not authorize a low rate of interest, say 3 per cent. At the time when the law was passed (1870) 5 per cent. was reckoned a low rate even for a Government bond, and 4½ per cent. was considered by good judges the lowest possible rate. When it was proposed by the House to put the rate down to 4 per cent. for the entire issue, Senator Sherman said that that would be equivalent to killing the whole refunding scheme, and that he would abandon it if such an amendment were adopted. A compromise was reached, by which the then existing debt, as it matured, could be refunded at 5, 4½, or 4 per cent., according to the state of the money market. When the specie-resumption act was passed five years later, it authorized the secretary of the treasury to "issue, sell, and dispose of, at not less than par in coin, either of the descriptions of bonds of the United States described in the act of Congress approved July 14, 1870." Under the provisions of that act Secretary Sherman sold new bonds to the amount of $95,500,000 gold, and held the money for the redemption of greenbacks. About two weeks before the date fixed for resumption, the gold premium disappeared, and the "Gold Room," the place where that metal had been bought and sold for nearly seventeen years, was closed for want of business. Consequently, when resumption day came, nobody drew any gold from the Treasury, because anybody who wanted gold could get it more easily from his own banker.

The authority given in the act of 1875 was a continuing authority. It prescribed the duties of the secretary "on and after the first day of January, anno domini 1879." It would have been absurd, of course, to provide for resumption at a fixed time and make no provision for future contingencies. There might have been a run on the Treasury, and the resumption fund might have been all drawn out. In fact, a great many people in the high circles of finance expected this very thing. It would have been a ridiculous plight for the Government if, in such a case, the secretary had had no resource, but must needs shut his doors and acknowledge bankruptcy. The Congress which passed the resumption act did not have overmuch faith in the outcome of its own action, but it could not and did not stultify itself by withholding from the secretary any means at its disposal. The faith and credit of the United States were pledged to the fullest extent and the last extremity, and that pledge remains to this day in full force and vigor.

The reason why Secretary Carlisle offers the 5 per cent. bonds described in the act of 1870 instead of the 4½s or the 4s, is that they have the shortest time to run, *i. e.*, ten years. It is easy to compute the price at which these bonds ought to sell in order to be equal to a 3 per cent. bond running the same length of time. The secretary finds it to be 117.223. Every 5 per cent. bond for $1,000 therefore must bring to the Treasury not less than $1,172.23. But the human mind is so constituted that although the 5 per cent. bond at 117.223 and the 3 per cent. bond at par are the same thing in an economical sense, nine men out of ten will not only prefer the latter, but will pay a considerable bonus for it. The premium of 17 per cent. which is required for the 5 per cent. bond will deter many bankers from bidding. The reason for this is that they have some doubt whether the next comer will pay this premium. Experience has taught them that the public do not like to pay premiums, and, as bankers usually buy in order to sell again, they take this psychological fact into account. Probably the Government could save one-quarter or one-half per cent. per annum in the rate of interest, for the whole ten years, if it were not for this premium. In other words, the Government could sell a 2½ or 2¾ per cent. bond at par as easily as a 5 per cent. bond at 117.223. The premium is a bugbear, but everybody knows that bugbears have a commercial standing. They count for something in the world of finance.

Nobody is to be blamed for this uneconomical arrangement except Congress. This body might pass a law of five lines merely amending the acts of 1875 and 1870, saying that instead of the bonds described therein the secretary may sell others drawing interest at 3, 2¾, and 2½ per cent., payable at the pleasure of the United States after two years and redeemable after ten years. But Congress, apparently, will do nothing of the kind. The secretary of the treasury must do the best he can with an antiquated law. Apparently he will have no difficulty in negotiating the present loan, even on the awkward terms to which he is limited, but Uncle Sam will pay something extra by reason thereof.

SOME HAWAIIAN ODDITIES.

We recommend for the instruction of our readers Mr. Pierce's account, in his 'Memoir and Letters of Charles Sumner,' of the use made of the navy to aid Gen. Grant in securing the annexation of St. Domingo. No one who reads it can help being struck by its remarkable resemblance to the attempt of Stevens to get possession of Hawaii. Put "the missionary element" in the place of Baez, Stevens in the place of Babcock, and you

have a singular parallel. Of course Gen. Grant's attempt was made on a greater scale, and in a bolder way, because he was a greater personage than any of those concerned in the attempt against Hawaii; but his methods were precisely the same. To crown all, Senator Morton defended the scheme in the Senate on the well-known plan which we venture to call the dog-and-the-sausages plan. A certain man bet that his dog would eat five dollars' worth of sausages within an hour. Finding the animal's appetite failing before his task was accomplished, he stimulated it by keeping another dog in a leash near by, and allowing him to make occasional dashes at the sausages. This never failed. We in like manner, when about to swallow any little island or dependency for which the American public seems to have no appetite, always try to rouse it by pretending that England, or some other power, is after it.

Mr. Pierce says: "Sumner completed his speech on the second day and was followed by Morton, who maintained that the acquisition was desirable as the key to the West Indies, and that if not made by the United States, England and France would shortly have the prize. This is a familiar argument in such cases, but an interval of twenty years has shown that in this instance it was misapplied." The annexationists are very strong on "keys." They never want to seize anything that is not "the key" to something else. Hawaii, for instance, is "the key to the Pacific." It is impossible to convince them that no island can be "the key" to anything unless you have a navy big enough to defend it against all comers. The only key in the world to sea-surrounded places is a huge navy.

This is a very curious and interesting feature of the controversy, because it is entirely in a line with other attempts to regulate American policy by foreign opinion. All through the tariff discussions we have been invited by the high protectionists, instead of considering, with the aid of facts and figures, what best suits our own interests, to watch foreign emotions, and to be guided in our legislation by English joy or sorrow. If the English showed sorrow over anything we were doing, we were to keep at it; if, on the contrary, they rejoiced over it, we were to change our course, and the American public were invited to study not their own organs of opinion, but the London *Times* and *Economist*, in order to make up their minds about domestic legislation.

There is a somewhat similar confusion of ideas about the support of the Government in dealing with foreign questions. It is a fixed idea, with a certain class of publicists among us, that in any controversy with a foreign power our own Government should be supported, whether it be right or wrong. That is to say, that any political adventurer like Blaine, who scrambles into the State Department, is at liberty to get up with foreigners disputes, born, it may be, of ignorance as much as of unscrupulousness, which shall silence completely the conscience and morality of the public, while he prepares the army and navy for some deed of villany or absurdity. This theory was first started in order to silence the anti-slavery men's protests against the Mexican war, but happily the best portion of the American people has never accepted it. In spite of occasional aberrations, our Government has for a century continued to make valuable contributions to international morality by doing as it would be done by to all nations.

But the "our country, right or wrong" theory has been and is held with great tenacity by nearly the whole body of politicians and by certain newspapers, among others the New York *Tribune*, the chief organ of the Republican party. This organ held, in the Bering Sea controversy, for instance, that, although there might be no international law prohibiting pelagic seal-killing, it was open to us, or any one nation, to draw down from heaven or out of our own moral consciousness a rule for the purpose, which, willy-nilly, should bind the human race; and it preached with great vehemence the doctrine that any newspaper which said nay to this was "a bad American." But in the Hawaiian controversy it has abandoned its own principles in a very amusing way, for it has for weeks and months loaded the President of the United States with the foulest abuse, on behalf of a foreign government of very recent origin and at least doubtful antecedents, has advised it to fight him, and has treated his envoys as liars and knaves and fools. There is nothing in recent political literature which can equal the scurrility which this American newspaper has heaped on its own Government for taking a course in a diplomatic matter which had all the marks of good faith, and could not possibly be charged with anything but blundering. Any foreigner who got from the *Tribune* his conceptions of the American President and his advisers, might fairly conclude that he was the head of a huge band of brigands. This has been the more extraordinary because the director of this organ has himself represented the country abroad, and was supposed to have learned, during his brief term of office, the lesson of fidelity to his own Government. But there is in him now not a trace of official propriety, and he rages against his country just as if he were a missionary's son denouncing the Queen.

THE NOMINATION OF MR. PECKHAM.

MR. CLEVELAND'S nomination of Wheeler H. Peckham for the Supreme bench shows that he is becoming something like his old self again, or, in other words, that he has entered on the policy with which he should have begun his administration. He was not elected as a conciliator or restorer of "harmony," or as an expert political manager. He was nominated and elected, in the teeth of extraordinary opposition on the part of all the politicians, as an honest and courageous man. It was his tariff message, and his silver letter, and his vetoes which made him a second time President of the United States. Both letter and message were, from the politician's point of view, the height of folly, but the people love a man who is not afraid.

That he should have forgotten this when he took office was surprising, but forget it he apparently did. Although before the election he refused to submit to Tammany dictation, after the election he apparently lost heart, and got it into his head that by some sort of contrivance he might be the means of healing the Democratic dissensions in this State and getting the party to present a united front to the enemy. There is no other way of accounting for his manner of filling the postmastership of this city—a terrible descent from the appointment of Pearson in 1885—and his long delay in filling the district attorneyship here and in Brooklyn, and the naval office and surveyorship in the custom-house, for his open cessation of intercourse or consultation with the anti-snappers who elected him, and his wholly unnecessary fling at the civil-service reformers in his last message. We should be glad to think that these things were not signs that he was forgetting his true rôle in American politics, but we fear they were. He never was and he never will be so popular, so strong in public esteem and respect, as he was in the first three months after his election. Had he used that popularity for beginning an unrelenting war on the Hill faction and all that it stands for, for discountenancing it openly, and letting it be known openly that between him and it there could be no peace, there is a fair reason for supposing we should not now be burdened with Hill and Murphy, or that their following in the State would be too weak and contemptible for notice.

That golden moment was allowed to pass, however. The President discarded his old advisers, reappointed none of the good men of 1885, and, through the Quincy debauch with the consulships and other things of the same sort, led many to suppose that the hero of 1884 had become, in defiance of all reason and all probability, in the last term he was likely to hold, a commonplace distributor of spoils and restorer of "harmony." That the disappointment has been great to tens of thousands, there is no denying. The loss to this State has been immense, for, with a courageous fighting-man in the Presidential

chair, the State politics might have been lifted to a higher level than it has reached any time since 1885.

It is to be said, however, on the other hand, that no President maintains his popularity during his first year, and that any mistakes he makes are apt to be made then. He seldom gets time to consider his situation seriously until the second year. The nomination of Mr. Hornblower we looked on as an indication, slight it might be, but still an indication, that he was disposed to reconsider his policy, and take up the only part for which nature or circumstances had fitted him—the part which we assigned him the day after his election, that of the man who said, "Here I stand. I can do no otherwise. God help me." That nomination was defeated by all sorts of influences. The arguments used against it probably had less than anything else to do with its defeat, for its opponents were men who do not argue, but they supplied something to show to the public. They said they had never heard of Mr. Hornblower; that he was young for the place, and that his experience had not been sufficiently wide and varied—in all which there was a shade of plausibility. The rejection placed Mr. Cleveland once more at the parting of the ways, and filled his friends with fresh anxiety. If he now recurred to his old idea of "harmony," and sought out what would be agreeable to Hill and the promiscuous herd who follow him in the Senate, his fate was sealed. But he has chosen the better way, by nominating another man, Wheeler H. Peckham, who is older than Mr. Hornblower, who stands as president of the Bar Association at the head of the New York bar, who has had as much practice of every kind as a man can have in a long life, and who enjoys everybody's respect, both as a citizen and lawyer, and was even more conspicuous than Mr. Hornblower in resisting Hill's attempt to put a thief on the bench of the Court of Appeals.

Even were the President disposed to take for the place a man of Hill's selection, he would be unable to discover among the followers of that worthy any lawyer fit for such an office as judge of the Supreme Court. Such men do not keep such company. But he might have gone outside the committee which condemned Maynard. His confining his second choice to one of its members shows that he means to fight, and in fighting he will have all that is best in the community at his back. As a general rule the community sides with the President in contests with the Senate. Mr. Cleveland has won one such fight, when the Senate demanded the papers on which he made his removals, although he had the most respectable members of the Senate, such men as Mr. Edmunds for instance, arrayed against him. With nothing now to fear but the opposition of such nondescripts as Hill and Murphy, the Populists, and the young adventurers who have been sent up by the mining and pastoral States of the far West, his eventual triumph seems pretty sure. But, win or lose, the fight is a good one. It is not simply a fight for the confirmation of a good nomination. It is a fight for good government, for good judges, good laws, for political purity, and the fair fame of the American people.

THE TRANSFORMATION OF THE PULPIT.

Mr. Royce has been getting well belabored for his article in the January *Forum* on "The Decline of the American Pulpit." A great many occupants of that pulpit, who, like the Rev. Amos Barton, have the opinion, though not the sensation, of great power, have arisen to let their own persons refute his alleged decline, and the religious press has been giving him buffets with brotherly unanimity. We ourselves have thought his article open to pretty serious criticism, though not in the line followed by his clerical censors. For example, he begins by attributing the decline to the lack of "trained men" in the ministry, and ends by telling the "training schools" that they are responsible for the same decline. What he really meant is probably better indicated in the figures given in the *Independent* by President Fisher of Hanover College, which show how very small a proportion of theological students comes from the leading colleges of the country.

But the whole controversy seems to us a profitless one, because it is so largely a dispute about words. Mr. Royce's "decline" was a fatally red rag. If he had contented himself with pointing out the great changes which have come over the Protestant pulpit in the last thirty years, and refused to call those changes either a decline or an improvement, we think he would have fared better. At any rate, he could have kept himself more closely in touch with fact, and could have written with less warmth and been replied to with less wrath. For there can be no doubt, in the mind of one with an unprejudiced eye on the development of church life in the United States, that the pulpit has undergone a sweeping metamorphosis within a generation. We do not see why this may not be recognized with entire good nature, and without calling bad names on either side. The intellectual ability or the piety of the clergy of to-day need not be dragged into the question at all, and the whole thing may be resolved into the query whether the changed conditions and demands of the congregations have not, in fact, produced a changed type of the clergy.

Just here, we think, is where Mr. Royce made a fundamental mistake in assuming that the kind of preacher the people want to-day is a "seer," a man of "spiritual eyesight," a "poet in the poise of his mind." Taking the average congregation in the older parts of the country, this would be far from the fact. Such "a prophet of the soul" as he has in his mind's eye represents, rather, the unpopular and disappearing type, which is being replaced by quite another. The best way to find out the kind of preachers the people want is to ask what kind they have. They get what they want in the long run, and we may be sure that the most successful ministers of the present come nearest the ideal of the present.

What, then, are the principal qualities demanded and exemplified in the successful clergymen of the day? We should put the social qualities first of all. Church people want a pastor who is thoroughly acquainted with all the proprieties and amenities of life, who is as much at ease in a parlor as in a pulpit, who can meet them and their friends on terms of social equality, and never give them occasion to blush for him. Then they are more and more coming to insist upon surrounding church services with an air of quiet decorum. They would simply shudder at one of Mr. Royce's prophets, blurting out all sorts of unpleasant and ill-bred truths. Some crusty old fellow has said that all preaching is essentially bad manners. It may have been once, but we have changed all that. "Doctrinal preaching" has gone, mainly because it is not "good form." Dr. Shedd laments its disappearance, but his complaints are as nothing to what would be heard from the congregations if it were to reappear again. But it will not, nor will the famous doctrinal preachers of other days, who were invisible through the week and incomprehensible on Sunday.

Next in order comes executive talent. The modern church is a complex business requiring administrative ability of a high order. More and more of this is coming to be required of the minister. Let one take up the "year-book" of a city church, with its ramified charitable and educational and missionary interests, and he will see what a head for business the clergyman in charge of it must have. The vast property administered by Trinity parish or the Collegiate Reformed Churches in this city is, of course, exceptional, yet it suggests the kind of work that falls upon the ministry at the present day. What would a prophet do if plumped down at a table with a lot of intricate accounts and tough business problems thrust in his face? He would rather tackle Jezebel or the prophets of Baal twenty times over.

It makes little difference whether we call the changes in the pulpit which these inexorable demands have brought

about a decline or an advance. They amount, in fact, to a transformation, which is all the while becoming more complete. How it works in individual cases may be inferred from a colloquy between two college classmates, one of them a clergyman, ten years after graduation. They were comparing notes about intellectual growth and their opportunities for it, and the clergyman said grimly: "You will see at once how much wiser I am than in college when I tell you that I have since gone to two or three hundred afternoon teas, have played five hundred sets of tennis with the daughters of my parishioners, have attended many scores of receptions, and gossiped three hours on an average at each, have presided at a thousand or two meetings of trustees and boards, circulated a couple of hundred subscription papers, and built three churches, two chapels, and a rectory. I need only add," he concluded, "that in my church the wild Western sign, 'Don't shoot the organist, for he is doing his best,' has been transferred from the organ-loft to the pulpit."

MARTIAL LAW IN SICILY.

ITALY, January 11, 1894.

SICILY is in a state of siege, under martial law, and assuredly there is no sadder heart in Italy to-day than Crispi's. He who contributed so largely in 1848-'9 and in 1860 to liberate his native island from the Bourbon; he who, for years afterwards, remained in the breach to obtain justice, to promote education, to cover the island with railroads, ports, and harbors; he who was foremost in the hospitals of Palermo during the cholera scourge—after exhausting every effort to pacify the populations, pledging himself and his colleagues to introduce measures for the redress of grievances, for the transfer of taxes from the *have-nots* to the *haves*—has been at last compelled, in the presence of downright crime, to demand the King's sanction for the exceptional measures necessary for the safety of life, for the protection of state officers in the exercise of their duties, for the restoration of order.

When I last wrote, the agitation was confined to the peasants and miners who, enrolled in their Fasci, had obtained a certain amount of relief in the form of contracts with their masters, which, if they did not secure "a living wage," insured a net gain, so says Signor Colajanni, of five millions during the present year. Suddenly and violently a fresh agitation was set on foot against the local taxes, especially against the octroi (the tax on consumption), against the hearth tax, and the surtax laid by the communes on the income tax paid by the heads of families. It began in Monreale, whence in 1866 the malefactors, incited by the monks, friars, and clericals, descended on Palermo, all unprepared because the prefect and the head of the police refused to believe in the warnings of those who best knew the intentions of the "black party," and for a week the city was given over to the miscreants, who burnt and pillaged, destroyed public and private buildings, broke up the statues of Garibaldi and the King; and because the Marquis di Rudini, then mayor of Palermo, headed the national guard and fought valiantly against the crew of savages, they burnt his palace to the ground, his father dying in consequence and his wife escaping with bare life. One fact in the Monreale episode of December, 1893, it is only just to note: everywhere the Fasci had exerted themselves to maintain order. Some of the members, admitted to the communal councils, had the people well in hand. "The taxes are unjust," said they; "we know this, we are drawing up a scheme for abating the most obnoxious ones; but, since you have elected us, you must trust and allow us to choose our own methods and the opportune time." With the exception of some renegades, most of the leaders *did* sincerely believe that Crispi's ministry would radically reform "the incidence of taxation," especially as the relations between the premier and Colajanni have been growing ever more cordial; indeed, Crispi consulted his quondam foe as to the most urgent needs and possibilities, while Sydney Sonnino and Boselli, ministers of the treasury and of agriculture, were known to be engaged in drawing up various schemes for the taxation of uncultivated land and for the introduction of legal contracts between landlord and tenant.

The state of siege is a very mild one. At first the people of Palermo were alarmed, began to lay in provisions as a precaution against famine, to withdraw their deposits from the savings banks, to close their shops, and to shut themselves in their houses. But, on the following day, everything returned to a normal state, the citizens being reassured in view of the fact that only riots were to be suppressed. Colajanni had an interview with Gen. Morra di Lavriano, who consented to his issue, by telegram, of a proclamation to the "laborers of Sicily," which had an instantaneous influence in inducing the real laborers to do their best to impede the disorders which they had had no hand in promoting.

"In the name of all my companions in faith," runs Colajanni's manifesto, "I implore you to preserve absolute calm, to avoid whatsoever may lead to a useless shedding of blood—a misfortune always—and which now can only aggravate the condition of the laborers. Let your pacific and calm attitude demonstrate the uselessness of all repressive measures. Once the disorders are at an end, the pledge of the Government exists to redress that portion of your grievances whose existence it acknowledges. You must await the promised redress, and trust that the measures adopted may suffice to overcome the resistance of the local *camarille* who coalesce to maintain the present injustice, and to recognize your rights, hitherto despised. The conditions of the moment impose this line of conduct; whosoever gives you contrary advice is a traitor."

These words, which the real leaders of the people have read to the illiterate peasants and miners, have been magical; the fact that Colajanni and Crispi are reconciled gives great hopes that the crying grievances of the Sicilians will be redressed; and while Sonnino, the one man on the continent who knows the true conditions of the peasants and the miners, is at work on his land bill, Crispi is studying the possible measures for removing the heaviest of their burdens, namely, the tax on consumption.

It would require more space than you could afford to explain all the horrors of this tax on all the poor in Italy, but especially on the Sicilians and Sardinians. When the first rulers of Italy had ruined the nation by their violent centralization, when the landowners and land tenants had paid a year's land tax in advance, then the wiseacres bethought themselves of a tax on a broad basis, the grist tax and the tax on consumption; then, not satisfied with using this as a source of state revenue, they allowed the communes to put on a *surtax*. This tax, which in 1871 brought in sixty millions to the state and seventy-one to the communes, in 1890 brought in eighty millions to the state and 140 millions to the communes. These communes may tax all that the state leaves untaxed and put a *surtax* on all the taxes of the state—*i. e.*, on all food, fuel, and beverages, on flocks and herds, on materials for construction, and also on the state tax on land and houses, besides the *fuocatico*, or hearth tax. Now in Northern Italy, where the workingmen *do* take part in politics and political elections, the communes have, for the greater number, placed heavy surtaxes on land and on houses—on the *haves*, that is—whereas they have taxed with a comparatively light hand the food of the people, the *have-nothings*. Thus, Piedmont, which has almost exactly the same population as Sicily, lays on twelve millions; Lombardy, with an extra half million of inhabitants, twelve millions also; Venetia, with only a quarter million less of inhabitants, seven millions; while Sicily pays twenty-two millions and a quarter; the hearth tax, which is imposed on the very poorest, amounting to an extra two millions. Nor do these figures explain the entire infamy of the system. The country is divided into "closed" and "open" communes,' which contribute in different proportions to the communal tax. Take Venetia and Lombardy, where the country districts are populated with villages and farmhouses. There the farmers and peasants pay a tax when they kill a pig, or for such articles as they have to purchase in town, as there is a tax on retail business; but they grind and eat their own corn in the shape of bread, maccaroni, or polenta, they drink their home-made wine untaxed, they eat their fowls, their eggs and vegetables untaxed; so that, though the land and income taxes are heavy indeed, they manage to make ends meet. But in Sicily there are *no* rural districts; the peasants, fishermen, and miners are forced to live in the great cities, the large or small towns, and the few villages; they are all forced within the octroi barrier, and must pay for every morsel of food that they consume, for the sticks that their women and children pick up, for the litter of their mules or horses, for the bran on which they feed their pigs and poultry.

Then, again, while the surtax on all else is limited to a fixed sum, the state tax, the tax on bread, paste, rice, and flour, is allowed to be extended to one-fifteenth of its actual value. Take corn and flour: Sicily produces one-seventh of all the corn crop in Italy, but the peasants who raise it, living in towns, are compelled to pay the state tax and the surtax even on their own share. If they purchase, they have to pay the price which the custom tax increases. Take Palermo: the custom-house duties are five lire (the corn laws once abolished are again in force); the home producers sell their corn at the same rate as the foreign corn. To-day, wheat in Sicily costs thirty lire per quintal. Palermo being one of the largest cities, the government puts on an octroi tax outside the gate of two lire. The commune of Palermo, not content with putting a tax of 15 per cent. on the actual price of corn, lays it on that price and the Government tax added together, so that it brings the tax up to 24½ per cent. The poor people who eat anything but "beans and greens" live on bread and paste; hence all the weight of this unjust impost falls on them. As it is in Palermo, so it is everywhere, because the signori in the municipal councils never put a surtax on land until they have exhausted all the resources of the octroi and *fuocatico*. It is to these *camarille* that Colajanni alludes in his manifesto.

To refer again to Piedmont as compared to Sicily: in the former province the surtax on land is thirteen millions, in the island of Sicily it is but five millions. The ability of the Government will be shown in removing these abnormal facts, in adjusting the incidence of taxation. It must bring the landholders to a sense of their duty. The owners of land in Sicily have trebled their rents since 1840, when the last census was taken; they have doubled them, as Orlando Ruggiero shows, during the last twenty years. Contrast this with the condition of the "distressed landlords" and the "perplexed farmers" in England, who, owing to American and Australian competition, find "horn and corn" unremunerative, and you will see how the condition of land tenure in Sicily is responsible for all the evils under which the poor toiling masses groan. Sonnino, in his great work, the 'Peasants in Italy,' affirmed that there was no remedy save to "bring the landlords into direct contact with the tillers of the soil, abolishing the middlemen." If he can succeed in doing this, he will have proved himself one of the greatest statesmen that Italy has possessed in ancient or modern times. But to succeed he must wait for the dissolution of the present Parliament. Then Crispi must go to the country on the programme of economical and social reform; he must prevent and punish all interference with the liberty of elections, and then he will be sure to have a strong, firm working majority—not a bought mob who will leave him in the lurch, but the representatives of the people who toil, who suffer, and can now not bear an additional feather's weight on their bent and burdened backs. There are plenty of resources left in the country. As Bodio showed in his pamphlet on the progress of Italy during the last twenty-five years, an immense amount of wealth escapes taxation. Luxury is ever on the increase; feasts and banquets are the order of the day. At the present moment, *starving* Syracuse spends 25,000 lire to fête Prince Thomas, who is a very quiet, unpretending gentleman, even as Caltanissetta spent 80,000 lire on the adornment of one hall in the municipality for the reception of the King and Queen in 1880, to the great regret of the sovereigns and of the public. In short, monarchy and representative institutions are on their trial as they have never been since the days of 1870, when there was hesitation about going into Rome or sending an army to the assistance of the Emperor Napoleon. If the monarch and his patriotic advisers can induce the wealthy, landed, and capitalist classes to alleviate the burdens of the masses, they may yet have a long term of life. But if not, depend upon it, the people will reverse Cattaneo's ultimatum to the Austrians who threatened to starve the inhabitants of Milan, "As well die of hunger as by hanging," and will say, "As well be shot as starved." The present return to order in Sicily is obtained by the terror of the "black party" lest they be found out to be the instigators of the riots, and by the efforts of the people who believe in Crispi and in most of his colleagues in their resolve to relieve their burdens and to liberate them from their domestic tyrants. If they should be deluded and deceived, then indeed no one would dare to prophesy the results to Sicily and to Italy as a whole. J. W. M.

IN THE BALEARIC ISLES.—VI.

MAHON, December, 1893.

WHEN we announced our intention of going to Menorca, our friends in Mallorca shrugged their shoulders as if caprice alone could prompt such a journey. The distance between the capital cities of the sister islands is only a night's sail, yet there seems to be little intercourse between them, save in the way of commerce; their mutual relation to the central government at Madrid being the rather perfunctory tie that binds them together. Why Mallorca should have been so bountifully endowed with a rich soil, happy climate, and grand landscape features, while to her neighbor were given a scanty soil and meagre aspect, only those deep in the secrets of the gods can tell. Whether this great disparity in the physical aspect of the two islands would be complemented by noticeable differences in the character of the inhabitants, we were curious to see.

We chose the most inconvenient route to Mahon, via Alcudia, as it promised a greater diversity of experiences. From Palma through vineyards and pretty hamlets to Empalme the way was familiar; but from there a branch road skirted the southern base of the Sierra, bringing into view strikingly bold, individual crags, with ruined watch-towers that mark a period of eternal vigilance. At La Puebla, the termination of the railroad, we were to take diligence to Alcudia, about six miles distant, and from there the steamer to Mahon. The diligence proved to be a high two-wheeled peasant's cart, with rope bottom and woven-hemp sides, and with scanty room for six persons; the baggage being tied in a precarious fashion behind. But no scarlet-coated Highland coachman was ever more autocratic than our olive-skinned islander, who for livery wore his calico shirt outside his trousers, and, on our suggesting a more secure adjustment of our belongings, waved us away with such a lordly air that we meekly clambered up to our seats. Our fellow-passengers were peasants, with the exception of a Mahonese artisan returning to his home in high spirits, whose lively sallies frequently upset the habitual gravity of his neighbors. In almost any other country we should have attributed this exuberance to the influence of the "flowing bowl," but we have yet to see a case of intoxication among these temperate people. We have been told by a resident of a quarter of a century, who has visited every town and village in the islands, that the only drunkenness he has ever seen has been among sailors belonging to foreign ships temporarily in port.

Our primitive diligence had the merit of lightness, and we sped past fields hedged with reeds and aloes, and by the Albufera, half veiled in thin, blue smoke, once a vast, noxious marsh, now, through English energy and intelligence, dyked and drained, and converted into an exceedingly fertile tract, divided into small holdings. Just beyond is Alcudia, wearing the melancholy aspect of bygone prosperity, and bearing the empty title of "city," the superlative "fidelísima" having been bestowed upon it by Charles V. for its allegiance to him during certain domestic troubles. We were glad to leave its close, lane-like streets, and pass out between the massive double walls, now crumbling to decay, and through the old gateway to the road that leads to the port, where a refreshing breeze blew in from the sea. It is a pity that these towns and villages should remain cramped in narrow quarters, now that the Moors are under guard in Africa and the Barbary pirates have become regenerated or have found other occupations.

At the head of the straggling line of half-a-dozen houses fronting the bay was our modest little *fonda*, whose principal room served as bar, reception, and family dining-room. There was none of that delightful bustle which, in an English inn, for example, always follows the advent of travellers and calls up such pleasant anticipations. Our hostess moved about with depressing deliberation, and we had begun to despair of supper when we were asked if we liked fish. Meanwhile our gay Mahonese, after inviting every one to drink with him (which invitation was politely declined, according to custom), took a guitar, and, seating himself in the open doorway, through which we could see the moonlight trembling on the waters of the bay, sang several spirited ballads. After another long delay supper was announced, and consisted of three courses of fish. Our host waited upon us in unconventional shirtsleeves and sombrero, but the table was graced with snowy napkins, a refinement we have sometimes found counted among the "extras" in decorous England.

A tidy chamber invited us to sleep, and the soft notes of the guitar were fast luring us into the fascinating unknown, when we were quickly recalled by the expostulatory tones of a drove of pigs. The pig is one of the chief exports of Mallorca, and, fed royally on figs, carobs, and sweet acorns, when transformed into crackling does not need for sauce even the gentle Elia's famous dissertation. But in transit it is quite another thing. For more than half a century pigs and passengers, the former sometimes numbering hundreds, have jostled one another on the same boat, almost shared the same cabin. The Spaniard muffles himself in his cloak, and shuts out as well as he can the noisome odors and incessant squealing, but his proverbial patience has long since passed the border line of virtue. The pigs, more enterprising, have recently made use of the public press to protest against being obliged to share the gangplank with the passengers. Their success leads all those who go down to the sea from Mallorca to pray devoutly that they may soon demand a separate ship.

As we were rowed out to meet the steamer from Barcelona, we could just distinguish, in the early light, the outlines of the mountains that come down to the bay of Alcudia and which help to form its beautiful port. The pigs had already embarked, and, their number being limited, the miseries of the turbulent channel that rushes between the two islands, were not unnecessarily augmented. A furious gale drove us to the southward so that we did not see the low-lying coast-line of Menorca until within two hours of reaching Mahon. The rather narrow entrance to this port has the effect of a mean hall in a noble dwelling, for the harbor is three miles long and widens inwards, containing so many capacious inlets formed by the indentations of the low hills which hem it in, that the boast of the Mahonese of its capacity to shelter "all the squadrons of the world" seems easy of belief. The ruins of Fort San Felipe, at the water's edge to the left of the entrance, are memorials of the fatuity with which humanity follows precedents. Built by Charles V. and strengthened by subsequent rulers, captured and thrice lost by the English, after heroic defence, the lesson was at last learned, and La Mola, just opposite, a miniature Gibraltar, formed by nature for the defence of the harbor, is now covered with massive fortifications, still in process of enlargement. An immense lazaretto, the largest in Spain, has provided the means of purification for thousands of ships from the Levant. Vessels of different nationalities were at anchor "under observation," and as close as possible to the yellow flags which defined their

limits lay small boats, whose occupants were relieving the tedium of their confinement by fishing. About midway of the harbor we passed a small island, having a sanguinary history; it is now the site of a large military hospital. The arsenal at Villacárlos, the village on the south side of the bay, the Georgetown of the English, and the navy-yard on the north, complete the warlike aspect of the approach to a city raised under martial auspices, Mahon being the ancient Portus Magonis, founded 452 B. C. by the Carthaginian general Magon, supposed to have been the brother of the great Hannibal.

The city rises irregularly on natural terraces of rock worn into deep fissures and dyed a tawny red by the action of sea and air. Its buildings, all white, are of a nondescript architecture without individual beauty, but in the transparent atmosphere this whiteness produces an airy, luminous effect. The steep streets are clean, some roughly paved with the native rock, and there is a welcome absence of the subtle odor that haunts the streets of Palma. As in Palma, the ground floors of many of the dwellings are given up to the pursuit of various trades, and the family life grouped about the carpenter or shoemaker bench makes a pleasant picture. There are no traces of the Saracens in Mahon, no remains of their picturesque architecture, and we missed the glimpses into charming patios, with gardens beyond, so frequent in Palma. Rows of prim, closely shuttered dwellings—attributed to English influence—succeed one another with melancholy monotony. A lively genius, however, seems to preside over the town. In place of the mournful notes which in Palma always suggest the vanquished Moors, gay operatic airs enliven the streets. Even the refrain of El Sereno has a merry lilt as, with excess of zeal, he calls forth the early hours. The wickets in the doors, too, have an air of coquetry, which the chance sight of a demure face framed within does not belie. The variety of social types representing a mixed inheritance gives piquancy to the street scenes, while a nautical flavor is added by the universal custom of carrying parcels in handkerchiefs, knotted sailor-fashion. Spanish costumes have given place to modern fashions, though with certain graceful modifications. Whatever traces of British occupation a prolonged stay might discover, they do not lie on the surface. We have rarely heard English spoken, but a sign, "Marshall's Coffee House," over a door on the way to Villacárlos suggests old-time English good cheer. The noticeable absence of posters picturing a rampant bull led to the agreeable discovery that Menorca has advanced far enough in civilization to leave behind the barbarous amusement of bull-baiting. A spirit of unaffected kindliness seems to animate the people, which affects the stranger happily. Of the public buildings little can be said. The Church of Santa María possesses a grand organ, perhaps the finest in Spain, which can be heard on Sundays at high mass. There is an attempt at a museum, and a small but excellent public library occupies a portion of one of the old convents, and is in charge of an intelligent librarian, enthusiastic in his work. Through the courtesy of the owner, Señor Pons y Soler, we had the pleasure of examining a rare and interesting collection of antiquities, evidences of various civilizations that have peopled Menorca.

Walking about the western outskirts of the town, we came upon a fine highway bordered with pines. As a rapidly driven vehicle approached we were surprised at hearing a peremptory request to "stop." This exclamation belonged to a very limited fund of English which, with the conveyance, was placed at our service for a drive to San Luis, a village "limpísimo," some four miles distant. Even in Holland "the cleanest of villages" do not always live up to their reputation, but as we had never seen a village answering to that description in the Baleares, we accepted. Scarcely were we seated when our driver, with an indescribable air, asked if we were "milors." Our reply did not seem to lessen the elation which radiated from his whole person, and threatened to make our tour of San Luis rather embarrassing. We walked up one street and down the other of this curious place, where not only the walls, roofs, and chimneys of the dwellings, but outbuildings, fences, and sidewalks were covered with a dazzling coat of lime. The children's backs bore evidence of the freshness of the application, for it was Sunday, and the day before had witnessed the weekly frenzy with which the women of San Luis endeavor to banish every vestige of grateful color. Here and there, however, a green bough leaned against a house, or a brilliant pomegranate hung over a garden wall in a defiant way; but the streets were treeless, and, under the keen sunshine of this semitropic zone, no mortal eyes could bear such brightness unflinching. As a consequence, every man, woman, and child in the place squinted. Yet, in spite of this painful neatness, San Luis was not unattractive. The odor of sanctity diffused by this superlative cleanliness accorded with the peaceful Sunday-morning atmosphere, but did not prevent the manifestation of that spontaneous gayety which is one charm of the native character.

We had the pleasure of sailing down the harbor, one balmy afternoon, with a native and long-time resident of Mahon, who as a boy had sailed on the old *Ironsides*, and had spent his early manhood in Massachusetts. The Yankee accent which he still retained called up homely pictures of domestic cheer under far different skies; and his reminiscences of the heroic times of Garrison and Phillips, and the bright ideals which he still cherished of our democratic institutions, had the effect of prophecy, and banished the dark pictures conjured up by modern politics. Our friend reverted to the days when Mahon was our Mediterranean naval station, and spoke of the friendly recollections of Americans entertained by the people of the island. Admiral Farragut often visited here during his midshipman days, but probably his wildest dreams never pictured his returning in after years to be the recipient of a popular ovation.

Only a mile or so southward from Mahon, at Trabucó, we came upon those primitive monuments in which Menorca abounds, and which have given rise to so much wonder and speculation as to their origin and purpose. The T stones, so called from their shape, were supposed to have been heathen altars, and various theories were advanced concerning the sacrificial victims. But more recent investigations point to their probable more utilitarian use as the central supports for the roofs of megalithic edifices. Imagine a single block of stone 18 inches thick and 7 feet broad, rising upright 9 feet above the ground and supporting a horizontal slab measuring 12 feet in length by 5 in width, and 2 feet thick. It is easy to form a mental diagram of so simple a structure, but it must be seen to understand the powerful effect its isolated massiveness produces upon the imagination. Adjacent are usually circular tumuli built of enormous stones, occasionally roughly shaped, and sometimes containing rude interior staircases and chambers. They are known as talayóts, from *atalaya*, or watch-tower. Around them are the remains of ancient towns, rudely built of massive stones, most of them prostrate, but enough remaining to mark the form of the dwellings, and the whole surrounded by protecting walls, of which a few remain in wonderful preservation.

From the talayót we overlooked a wide sweep of country. The first impression was one of melancholy: small, barren-looking fields encircled by high stone walls and containing two or three fig or olive trees, sometimes but a single tree, also surrounded by a wall, both for protection and as a ready means of disposing of this embarrassing crop of stones; outside these enclosures, trees with tops bent almost to the ground by the force of the prevalent north wind and with branches thickset and twisted together, while scattered here and there over the almost level plain are the grim talayóts that have kept watch for unknown ages. Then the whimsical aspect takes possession of one, and there is a fascination in those fantastic, wind-swept trees and mysterious heaps of stones which the most smiling beauty sometimes fails to exercise. S. G.

THE GREEK REVIVAL IN PARIS.

PARIS, January 4, 1894.

CIVILIZATION lives by contrasts. At the very moment when we are introducing on the French stage the Scandinavian drama, and trying to become acquainted with Ibsen, there is a revival of the old classic tragedy, and it is played not only at the French Theatre, it is played at one of the most popular theatres of the Boulevard, called the Renaissance. At the French Theatre, we have "Oedipe Roi" and "Antigone," at the Renaissance we have Racine's "Phèdre."

"Oedipus Rex" is perhaps the most perfect drama that was ever written; the emotion is created by the most natural means, and grows from beginning to end till it reaches the highest point it can attain. It is the most tragical expression that has ever been found of the struggle of man against destiny, against fatality. We have now the good fortune of possessing an actor who plays the part of *Oedipus* with a perfection which borders at times on sublimity. The name of Mounet-Sully will probably be remembered as long as the name of Talma. Mounet-Sully is a conscientious actor, an artist; he is modest, and I am told that he receives advice better than any other of the comedians of the French Theatre. He is tall and handsome, and has the most harmonious and sonorous voice; he was born for tragedy or the heroic drama. He has sometimes been tried in modern comedies, but it is almost painful to see him in a vulgar part; he was made to move among heroes and demigods, or in the fantastic domain of the imagination. There is in him a certain sort of exaltation which carries him along, and which has become natural to him. He is never so perfect as when he plays a part which seems almost out of the limits of humanity. I have been told by Englishmen who had seen *Hamlet* played by the best actors that Mounet-Sully surpasses them all in his conception of this most extraordinary character. Even in a French translation, he has contrived to do full justice to Shakspere. It is impossible to be more pathetic, more dreamy, more melancholy. Mounet-Sully seems all the time on the uncertain border of reason and

madness; he leaves our mind constantly perplexed. He is never coarse or vulgar; he is always the Prince Hamlet; there is in him an innate nobility of gesture, of movement, of voice.

It is a curious fact that Mounet-Sully has achieved his greatest triumphs in parts like this, or like *Hernani*, which is almost unnatural. We can hardly think now of Victor Hugo's beautiful drama without thinking of Mounet-Sully and of Sarah Bernhardt, in the happy days when Sarah Bernhardt played *Doña Sol* and Mounet-Sully played *Hernani*, and when Victor Hugo could have before his eyes the most poetical reflection of his own thoughts. Mounet-Sully was much admired also in the part of *Nero* in "Britannicus"; he represented well the young tyrant, in his first struggles with *Agrippina*, when the monster which was in him had not yet shown all its horror, when it was, so to speak, growing from hour to hour. But his great triumph of late years has been in "Oedipe Roi," where he appeared in all the majesty of the Greek tragedy. The translation of Sophocles by Lacroix is as good as a translation can be; it is in French verse, and the verses are very fine.

The same cannot be said of the translation of "Antigone," which was made more than twenty years ago by Meurice and Vacquerie. The verses are often flat, and sometimes coarse and vulgar, and the language is in painful contrast with the situations. This "Antigone" has very recently been revived at the French Theatre. Mounet-Sully plays in it the part of *Creon*, the King of Thebes; he plays it with his usual force, and I might say magnificence of expression, but it is impossible to take as much interest in "Antigone" as in "Oedipe Roi." All the incidents of the drama turn upon a point which cannot touch us as much as it did the ancients. The struggle between the King and *Antigone* over the forbidden burial of her brother has not much to interest a modern mind; we can understand only with some difficulty *Creon's* fury and the dreadful punishment which he inflicts on *Antigone*, whom he orders to be buried alive. We cannot imagine any better the sudden change which comes over him when he discovers that his son, who is in love with *Antigone*, has joined her.

The authors and the director of the French Theatre have given us this tragedy in order to make what they believe a complete restoration of the Greek theatre. We have in it a real chorus, represented by a number of old men who sing in unison. The stage is double, having two stories; the chorus, the people, move on the lower story, and a double staircase allows access to the upper story, on which we see a temple, and on which move and talk the principal actors, *Creon*, *Antigone*, etc. When *Antigone* is condemned by *Creon*, she comes down the staircase and makes an appeal to the people; but the chorus is inexorable. All the details have been studied with the greatest care; and the temple, which is built of brick and wood, has been copied from a drawing in the 'History of Greek Architecture,' a very learned work by M. Chipiez. The music pretends to be Greek music. It was composed by Saint-Saëns, and is very monotonous and dull; moreover, it is almost impossible to understand what the chorus is saying, though this is essential to the drama. Altogether, this reconstruction of a Greek theatre has not been a very happy experiment, though *Creon* played his part with great majesty and dignity, and though Mademoiselle Bartet, dressed like a Tanagra figurine, enveloped in graceful veils, gave very poetic expression to *Antigone*.

It is idle to hope to give on a French stage a real reconstruction of the Greek theatre. Men like Corneille and Racine did not care much for what we now call "local color." They followed strictly the law of the three unities of Aristotle, and one of these unities is unity of place. There is no change of the decoration in the classic tragedy; the mind ought not to be too much amused by material details and to be drawn away from the dialogue, from the intellectual part of the drama.

I have spoken at length of Mounet-Sully; I must say something of his brother Paul Mounet, who is also playing at the French Theatre. He was tried first in inferior parts, but he has lately revealed himself as a great actor. He is just now playing the part of *Titus* in Racine's tragedy of "Bérénice" in a manner which is truly remarkable. It is a pity that he is not as handsome as his brother, but he has the same sonorous voice, and I have never seen an actor wear the Roman toga and the imperial purple with so great majesty. Talma must have looked so when he was applauded by Napoleon. The tragedy of "Bérénice" is one of the finest of Racine's; his marvellous talent found an admirable field in a subject which to others would have seemed too sterile. An ancient historian has told the story in very few words: "Titus reginam Berenicen, cui etiam nuptias pollicitus ferebatur, ab urbe dimisit invitus invitam." How wonderful is the laconism of the Latin language. What long struggles are contained in these three words, "dimisit invitus invitam." Titus loves Berenice, he loved her before he was chosen Emperor by the Senate, but the Roman law is inexorable. Cæsar cannot marry a Queen. The old republican hatred of kings has survived the republic; the Roman people will not for a moment admit that a Cæsar should marry another than a Roman; it looks upon an Oriental queen as the populace of London would look upon some Indian princess. Berenice loves Titus, she loved him before he became Emperor, and now she is told that she cannot become his wife. She is angry at first, but after a while she submits to the inevitable; she cares as much for the glory of Titus as Titus can himself; she will leave Rome and return to Palestine—"dimisit invitus invitam."

What attracted Racine to this theme of Berenice and Titus was its very simplicity. He had long looked for the subject of a tragedy which should be very free from intrigues, from crimes and murders, even from incidents. The ancients (I mean the Greeks) greatly valued this simplicity, and Racine was a great admirer of the ancients. It can be truly said that in "Bérénice," as well as in all the plays of Racine, the French language attained the highest pitch of perfection. He represents, as it were, the *summum*, what the mathematicians call the maximum, of perfection of the French in verse, as Mme. de Sévigné and Bossuet represent the maximum of perfection in prose. Racine had, at times, an extraordinary boldness. When *Titus* separates from *Bérénice*, he tells her, in reply to her reproaches,

"Hélas! que vous me déchirez!"

And she answers:

"Vous êtes empereur, seigneur, et vous pleurez!"

This is exactly what took place between Louis XIV. and Mazarin's niece, Marie Mancini. Mazarin, sacrificing his own interests to those of the state, would not allow young Louis XIV., who was in love with Marie Mancini, to marry her, and when the separation took place Louis XIV. cried, and she said to him: "Vous êtes roi et vous pleurez!"

We find Racine again on another stage, very inferior to the French Theatre, the Renaissance, now managed by Mme. Sarah Bernhardt. I went to see her play "Phèdre" (which alternates with the "Dame aux Camélias"). She has not escaped time's "irreparable outrage"; she is no longer the *Phèdre* whom I saw in other times at the French Theatre. Her golden voice has suffered from uttering the shrieks of so many dramas, played in all countries. Still, in the milder moments of her part, she remains a most poetic and graceful figure. She still has that spark of genius which has made her incomparable.

Correspondence.

THE SOCIAL-DEMOCRATIC FEDERATION AND PRACTICAL POLITICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: My friend Mr. H. G. Wilshire has just sent me a copy of your journal, containing a letter from Mr. W. J. Ashley of Cambridge, Massachusetts, in which occurs the following passage on the decay of revolutionary Social-Democracy in Europe: "In England it [this decay] is sufficiently indicated by the prominence of the Fabian Society and the disappearance from practical politics of the Social-Democratic Federation." With the Fabian Society and its work I have nothing to do. But its members have never claimed that they constitute an *organization* of Socialists in any sense of those words, and I hold a different opinion as to its prominence in "practical politics" from that held by Mr. Ashley. Certain it is that, according to their own confession in a recent number of the *Fortnightly Review*, they have failed to influence the "practical politics" of the Liberal party with which they are connected; while the failure of the Progressive party on the London County Council, acting to a considerable extent under their influence, to deal adequately with the pressing social problems of this nation-city will, I fear, tell greatly in favor of the reactionary party at the next elections.

On the other hand, you will, sir, perhaps, allow me to give a few facts in relation to the Social-Democratic Federation, which will prove to your readers how far we have "disappeared" from practical politics:

(1.) During the past year we have far more than doubled the number of our genuine paying members, and have also doubled the number of our active branches in London and in the Provinces. Those who know how exceedingly difficult it is to get English workmen—and our organization is almost wholly composed of workers—to pay for their own politics, will understand what an immense advance this betokens in the fourteenth year of our existence.

(2.) The Social-Democratic Federation now commands all but a majority on the Executive of the London Trades Council, and our influence is felt more and more each day on that body.

(3.) At the great annual Congress of Trades Unions at Belfast last year—the Congress of the "aristocrats of labor"—we carried a resolution, by 137 votes against 96, in favor of the complete socialization of all the great means and instruments of production, distribution, and exchange. This thoroughgoing, revolutionary resolution was proposed by James Macdonald, one of the oldest members of the Social-Democratic Federation, and seconded by Peter Curran, likewise an old member of

the S. D. F., who left us to work in the New Unionism, but rejoined last year. I attach the very greatest importance to this voting, which I have every reason to believe will be affirmed by an increased majority next year, as well as to the resolution, likewise carried by Social-Democratic influence, committing the trades unions to take an active part in politics. This they have hitherto refused to do.

(4.) We have at the present moment three thoroughgoing revolutionary Social-Democratic candidates before the constituencies of Walworth (London), South Salford, and Burnley; and should have many more if payment of election expenses and payment of members of Parliament were the law. Even as it is, we shall probably be able to run a few more at the general election, and there are Socialists who, like Keir Hardie, M. P., West Ham, and Peter Curran at Barrow in Furness, will have our support, though they do not run under our direct control.

(5.) We have placed many members of the Social-Democratic Federation on municipal councils, vestries, school boards, and even boards of guardians in different parts of the country. In Burnley, where I am myself standing as a candidate for Parliament against both Tory and Liberal, we have just carried two municipal councillors against the efforts of both factions, and in the five wards out of thirteen which we contested in this Radical stronghold, we polled 1,775 votes; that number being 76 more than the Liberals and Radicals polled in the same wards.

All this scarcely reads, I venture to think, like "the disappearance of the Social-Democratic Federation from practical politics." I may add that John Burns owes his seat for Battersea to the work done in that constituency by the Social-Democratic Federation, of which he was a member and in which organization he undoubtedly received his social and political education. The last statement is true of Thomas Mann and others.

In conclusion, I may say that there is not a single practical palliative proposal now before the English public which was not first set forth and pushed by the Social-Democratic Federation; while the tremendous work our comrades have done this winter on behalf of the unemployed in pursuance of our agitation of the last ten years seems to me practical and beneficial enough by itself to call for some acknowledgment.—I am, sir, your obedient servant,

H. M. HYNDMAN.

9 QUEEN ANNE'S GATE,
LONDON, S. W., January 8, 1894.

P. S.—I find that I have omitted to state that our journal, *Justice*, which has been running now for ten years, is printed at our own press; that it is edited by a workingman, H. Quelch, and is largely written by workingmen; that also, though larger in size than it has ever hitherto been, it is paying its expenses without any advertisements. "Prominent" as the Fabians may be, they have no journal of their own whatever: their monthly review, *To-Day*, died of inanition some years ago. Mr. Jerome K. Jerome has taken the title for his weekly paper. H. M. H.

ARCHÆOLOGY IN CRETE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As the Greek Syllogos of Candia is preparing to acquire the great inscription of Gortyna, and has already despatched to America appeals for contributions to that end, some account of this body and its services to archæology seems appropriate.

In the year 1875, the Syllogos was founded with the object, in the words of its president, "of collecting funds for the diffusion of Greek letters and the education of the Greeks in Crete." The Turks form only one-fourth of the population, are chiefly of Greek descent, and understand accurately the Greek language alone. In 1885, Dr. Joseph Hazzidakis (consular agent of the United Sates in Candia) was chosen president, and continues in office. At that time, the public funds for education being sufficient, Dr. Hazzidakis proposed to turn the small resources of the Syllogos towards the investigation and preservation of the extant remains of antiquity in the island. The Government was persuaded to forbid the destruction of antiquities, and the Syllogos began to buy such relics as came to light and to preserve them in its museum—a collection which is already more than respectable. By the zeal and efforts of the Syllogos the so-called Ἰδαῖον Ἄντρον and the Cave of Eilithyia were excavated, and the position of the city and river of Amnisos accurately defined. Later, by its aid, Dr. Halbherr was enabled to excavate, in Gortyna, the temple of Pythian Apollo, where were uncovered the oldest extant Greek inscriptions, and Messrs. Halbherr and Fabricius were assisted in the investigations, at the same site, which led to the discovery of the great inscription in question. At present the Syllogos is the centre of all archæological work done in Crete.

With the hope that this mention may throw some light on the history and services of this society, I am, etc., JOHN ALDEN.

CANDIA, CRETE, December 31, 1893.

[The appeal referred to above states that the well-known "great inscription of Gortyna, the most famous of the epigraphical remains of Greek antiquity that have come down to us," is in danger of perishing from the action of running water, or from ignorance or malice, being in the same place in which it was discovered in 1884. It is proposed to buy it and transport it to the museum of the Syllogos, at a cost of $2,000. As an inducement to subscribe to this object, the Syllogos offers a cast of the entire wall to any institution contributing $125, delivering it free at Brindisi, Trieste, Genoa, or Marseilles. The Syllogos may be addressed through its president or its secretary (Prof. S. Xanthoudidis) at Candia.—ED. NATION.]

FULDA'S "THE TALISMAN."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of yesterday, you call attention, in a paragraph of considerable length, to the "literary event" of the successful performance of Ludwig Fulda's "Der Talisman." In the article no hint is given that the plot is identically that of a very familiar story of Hans Christian Andersen's, in which American children took delight fifty years ago and more.

Respectfully, WILLIAM EVERETT.

WASHINGTON, D. C., January 19, 1894.

Notes.

WE read in the *Library Journal* for January that librarians will shortly be asked by circular what support they will give to an 'American Catalogue' of books previous to 1876 (not included in the 1876 volume), compiled from Roorbach, Kelly, Stevens, and other sources, and perhaps confined to author-alphabet alone.

G. P. Putnam's Sons' spring list embraces the Writings of Thomas Paine, edited by Moncure D. Conway, the first volume (1774–1779) being nearly ready; volumes iii. and iv. of Paul Leicester Ford's edition of Jefferson's Writings; 'The Life and Correspondence of Rufus King,' edited by his grandson, Dr. Charles R. King, in five volumes; 'Oliver Cromwell,' by Samuel H. Church; 'Tennyson: His Art, and His Relation to Modern Life,' by the Rev. Stopford A. Brooke; 'A History of Social Life in England,' edited in six volumes by H. D. Traill; 'Piers Plowman—1363–1399,' by J. J. Jusserand; 'Art in Theory,' by Prof. Geo. L. Raymond of Princeton; 'Secularism: Its Progress and Morals,' by John M. Bonham; 'American Song,' a collection of representative poems, with analytical and critical studies of their writers, a text-book, by A. B. Simmonds; 'James Henry Chapin of Connecticut: His Life and Work,' by Geo. Sumner Weaver, D.D.; 'Random Roamings in Time and Space,' by the Rev. Augustus Jessopp, D.D.; 'Mediæval Life and Literature,' studies by the late Prof. E. T. McLaughlin of Yale; and 'The Life and Teachings of Jesus,' by Arthur K. Rogers.

Henry Holt & Co. will issue shortly a 'History of the Mental Growth of Mankind in Ancient Times,' in four volumes, by John S. Hittell, and 'John Ingerfield, and Other Stories,' by Jerome K. Jerome.

Macmillan & Co. have in press 'Sources of the Constitution of the United States,' by Dr. C. Ellis Stevens.

'Studies in the Evolution of English Criticism,' announced by Ginn & Co., will attract attention by reason of its author, Laura Johnson Wylie, being a "Graduate Student of English in Yale University."

The Burrows Brothers Co. of Cleveland are American agents for a complete translation of Catullus, the metrical part of which was the work of the late Sir Richard Burton, while abundant notes will be supplied by Mr. Leonard C. Smithers. The issue will be limited to subscribers, and will not exceed fifteen hundred. Blake's portrait of Catullus is to be etched as a frontispiece. The book will be a large octavo.

The uniform edition of Thoreau's works issued by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. is brought to an end with three volumes, "Spring," "Excursions," and "Miscellanies," the last consisting of fugitive papers recovered from magazines and other periodicals, and from some books; the most considerable features being an estimate of Carlyle and his works in 1847, and the anti-slavery utterances entitled "Slavery in Massachusetts," "A Plea for Captain John Brown," and "The Last Days of John Brown." These prose fragments are preceded by Emerson's sketch of the author from the *Atlantic* of August, 1862, and succeeded by Thoreau's translation of the "Prometheus Bound," Pindaric versions, and scanty original verse. A general index is affixed, and two of these three final volumes have frontispiece portraits of Thoreau. The record thus seems as complete as his most ardent admirer could wish.

The second and concluding volume of 'The World's Parliament of Religions' (Chicago: The Parliament Publishing Co.; New York: J. A. Hill & Co.) follows close upon our notice of the first, which it resembles in its pictorial assortment with a pronounced Eastern flavor. The denominational congresses are reported in

the latter part of this volume, and furnish occasion for swelling the number of portraits.

A handful of books from Macmillan challenge consideration mainly by reason of their illustrations. The first is a small one of Dent's, 'Bon-Mots of Charles Lamb and Douglas Jerrold,' edited by Walter Jerrold, and disfigured by "grotesques" by Aubrey Beardsley. The attempt to marry Japanese monstrosities of design to Western humor meets the fate that might be expected, even if the designs bore any relation to the jests of the text, which they do not. The full-length pen-sketch of Lamb is the best and indeed the only "illustration," besides the portrait of Jerrold. Fitness distinguishes the illustrations to 'The Temple,' for they are "almost all taken from engravings produced in the century before George Herbert's time—that is to say, from designs which he had seen or might have seen." Albert Dürer, Holbein, Martin Schongauer, Lucas van Leyden, and George Whitney hold the leading place, and what ought to strike every eye, but will not, is the complete harmony between the older woodcuts and the printer's types; and the facsimiles of the metal engravings are much less inharmonious than our mechanical "process" hatching. A few useful notes are added. Christina Rossetti has fallen into good hands in the case of her nursery 'Sing-Song,' illustrated by Arthur Hughes, and of her 'Goblin Market,' illustrated by Laurence Housman. Mr. Hughes's designs are pat, usually graceful, and in their best humor excellent. Mr. Housman's are as decorative as they are odd, and thoroughly in the spirit of the weird lyric. Both reprints are prettily bound.

Sir Joshua Reynolds is not a very entertaining personage, and his well-regulated life is not a very good one to write of unless one devotes more space to his illustrious circle of friends than to himself. Mr. Claude Phillips keeps pretty close to his subject in the biography which comes to us from the Scribners, and has hardly succeeded in making it amusing. Reynolds was an accomplished type of the fashionable portrait-painter—courtly, stately, polite, impeccable, and "invulnerable," and withal somewhat cold-blooded. His personality is eminently respectable, but it is not fascinating, and a comparison between him and his great rival, Gainsborough, is not unlike the famous one between Addison and Steele. In painting, too, we are inclined to think Gainsborough the more vitally artistic nature; but Reynolds had an enormous vogue in his day, and was considered the first artist of England when England had the best art of Europe, and it is not surprising that the English should try to make an "old master" of him and place him among the great ones of art. His faults seem to us too great and his merits insufficient for him to hold such a position with the world at large. His life is a little apt to resolve itself into a catalogue of his sitters, and such a catalogue, made up from his pocket-books, is apt to prove monotonous. Mr. Phillips gives all the facts along with some very just criticisms. His book is likely to prove acceptable.

The veteran artist W. H. Beard, after a lifetime devoted to the painting of animals, has undertaken to set down for the use of others what he has learned about 'Action in Art' (Cassell Publishing Co.). There is much common sense in the book, and a good deal of it might prove useful to beginners. What Mr. Beard has to say about the use of instantaneous photography and the difference between art and science in the treatment of the action of animals, is interesting and generally sound. On the other hand, he is at sea about the tails of comets, which he takes to be caused by "the resistance of the . . . ether through which they pass forcing back the luminous substance," in spite of the fact that the tail is as often before the comet as behind it; while on p. 16 he gives a cut of a rolling wheel with "particles of dust . . . flying at a tangent from its rim" in the wrong direction. It is a pity that his English was not revised by some more practised writer, and that he could not restrain his tendency to puns.

The University Extension series, edited by Principal Symes of Nottingham, England, and published by Methuen & Co., London, contains a recent number on 'Meteorology,' by H. N. Dickson, who has for some years past been associated with the discussions of the *Challenger* observations. The volume is of compact size, and its materials are fresh and as a whole well chosen and accurate; but it would appear from the order in which they are presented that the author is less experienced as a teacher than as a student of the subject.

'Climates of the United States in Colors' is the first line of the redundant title-page of a volume of charts prepared by Dr. Charles Denison of Colorado, now reissued (Chicago: Keener Co.). The facts are derived almost entirely from the reports of the Signal Service, whose publications are advisedly popularized in such books as this one. The charts may be commended to physicians and teachers as presenting a series of climatic illustrations not generally accessible elsewhere. The colors of the charts might be much more agreeable, and the mounting of the folded pages is awkward, as part of their text stands upside down.

A small octavo of 500 pages of fine print is Dr. E. F. Willoughby's 'Handbook of Public Health and Demography' (Macmillan), in which the elements of those sciences are taught dogmatically and correctly. It is too condensed to be agreeable to the general reader, but it is a very convenient addition to the student's library. In view of the author's nationality, it is a little odd that he persists in attributing to Mr. Francis Galton, the demographer, the hygienic devices of his cousin, Sir Douglas, the engineer.

A collection of Norwegian poems, both old and new, has recently appeared in Christiania, with numerous illustrations and decorated margins by Thorolf Holmboe. Over a dozen poets are represented, including Welhaven, Munch, Ibsen, Björnson, and Lie. From the same city comes a critical study by the young author, Hj. Christensen, of his fellow-Norwegian writers, several of whom bid fair to become worthy successors to Björnson. As the first serious attempt to explain the latest literary movement in Norway, the work deserves to become known outside of Scandinavian lands.

'A Prince of India' has been translated into Danish, and has been very favorably received by the Copenhagen press. A second edition of 'Ben Hur' is also announced from Copenhagen.

Die Romanwelt is the name of a new weekly paper published in Stuttgart by Cotta, which is to be cosmopolitan in its scope. A translation of Pierre Loti's 'Mon Frère Ives' is begun in the first number, in which also appears the opening of a novel, "Es War," by Hermann Sudermann, known to American readers by his "Dame Care" included in the "Odd Number Series." Stories by the dramatist Fulda, by Spielhagen, and by Ernst von Wildenbruch are also promised. The size of the new weekly is a little larger than the *Nation* and the *Revue Bleue*.

The Bulletin of the Department of Geology of the University of California at Berkeley, edited by Prof. A. C. Lawson, now reaches four numbers and 163 pages. In the first number the editor shows that the granites of the Coast Range, regarded by Whitney as eruptive into the Tertiary rocks, are in reality of much more ancient origin; the Coast Range sediments lying upon the denuded surface of the granites. In the latest number Prof. Lawson describes, in a most acceptable and effective manner, the diverse movements of the southern coast and the off-shore islands of California in recent geological times. The first volume of the Bulletin is to include 400 or 500 pages, and the University liberally offers to send all the numbers to any subscriber who will agree to pay $3.50 when the volume is finished.

The *Journal of Geology* of the Chicago University has now completed its first volume of eight numbers, maintaining throughout the seriously high quality with which it was begun. The list of editors and associate editors on the title-page is a sufficient guarantee that the *Journal* will be well continued. The most generally interesting article of the last number is by Branner, on the supposed glaciation of Brazil, in which he makes it clear that Agassiz, Hartt, and Belt were mistaken in their conclusions concerning glacial action in torrid America, as indeed the first two observers came to think themselves. Curiously enough, their errors have been turned to account both by those whose theories need the support that the glaciation of Brazil would yield, and by those who wish to throw discredit on the whole subject of glacial geology.

The *Geographical Journal* for January is largely taken up with Dr. John Murray's interesting and stimulating plea for the renewal of Antarctic exploration. He gives in a very condensed form nearly all that is known in regard to this region, together with sketches of the principal voyages to it. To his mind there seems to be abundant evidence of the existence around the South Pole of a "vast extent of true continental land, the area of which is greater than that of Australia, or nearly 4,000,000 square miles." While the waters of the surrounding ocean teem with a great profusion of life, both animal and vegetable, "no land animal, and no trace of vegetation—not even a lichen or a piece of seaweed—has been found on land within the Antarctic circle." He advocates, in the interests of pure science wholly, a naval expedition of two small ships, fitted out for a three years' cruise, and carrying two parties of about ten men each for land exploration. The paper is illustrated, and is also accompanied by a series of maps showing the supposed contour of the continent and the routes of the principal explorers, the oceanic deposits, ice limits, currents, winds, temperature, rain-fall, and magnetic phenomena. The president of the society, Mr. C. R. Markham, announced that the council had appointed a committee for the purpose of reporting on the best means of achieving the objects of Antarctic exploration. Mr. Ravenstein contributes a short account, with a map, of the Anglo-German treaty of November 15, 1893, respecting the boundary of their West African possessions. There is also a notice of the discovery, in a volume of miscellaneous papers belonging to the Biblioteca Strozziana, in the National Library of Florence, of a map by Columbus relating to his fourth voyage, "and absolutely the only map which dates back to the great discoverer himself."

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for January opens with an interesting account by Miss Annie R. Taylor of her recent adventurous journey in Tibet. Being able to speak the language of Lhassa, and wearing the Tibetan dress, she got within three days' journey of the sacred city. Here, being betrayed by a faithless Chinese servant, she was compelled to return to China, which she reached safely, though enduring great hardships, after an absence of about seven months. She praises the Tibetans for their "chivalry and kindness," and says that they are "hospitable, friendly, trustworthy, and by no means averse to intercourse with Europeans." Their exclusiveness is wholly due to the Chinese, who jealously guard the frontiers for their own trade interests. This paper is followed by a description of the Hawaiian Islands by Adolf Marcuse, the most interesting part of which is the account of a visit to the crater of Kilauea. He was accompanied by several natives, who, when night fell, threw into the crater offerings of sacred berries and live fowls, at the same time singing a monotonous chant to Pele, the fire-goddess. Mr. H. M. Stanley pays a warm tribute of affection to the late Mr. A. L. Bruce, the son-in-law of Dr. Livingstone and promoter of the British East-Africa, the African-Lakes, and the British South-Africa Chartered Companies, as well as the principal founder of the Scottish Geographical Society.

A map of interest to geographers may be seen in the atelier of M. Fr. Schrader, director of cartographic works for the firm of Hachette & Cie., the well-known geographical publishers of Paris. The map embraces the entire world on a scale of 1-2,000,000, corresponding to a globe measuring twenty metres in circumference, and hence on half the scale adopted for the map of the world by the International Geographical Conference at Berne in 1891, on recommendation of Prof. Penck. On this map M. Schrader and his aids enter every report of cartographical progress, wherever made, and on whatever scale; thus keeping a full record of the accumulation of geographical knowledge, and making it possible to prepare new maps on the basis of the fullest information We commend the plan to American publishers of maps and geographies.

Japan's increase in population, as well as in wealth, is noticeable. The census completed December 31, 1892, shows that there were 7,817,570 houses and 41,089,940 subjects of the Mikado, of whom 31,290 were known to be abroad. "Nature's argument against polygamy" is illustrated by the practical equality of the sexes, there being 20,752,366 males and 20,337,574 females. In the three classes of nobles, gentry, and commoners, respectively, were 3,853, 2,014,306, and 39,071,781 persons. Besides 1,122 prisoners, unregistered as citizens, there were 4,462 foundlings not yet adopted. The increase over 1892 was of 11,201 houses and 371,263 persons. Of 617,234 boys and 589,800 girls born last year, 105,554 were still-born. There were 348,489 marriages and 113,498 divorces. In the empire were 7,575 persons over 90, and 140 persons over 100 years of age.

On Presentation Day (1893) at the University of London, of the twenty-one persons on whom the degree of M.A. was conferred six were women; out of fifty M.B.'s six were women, and of eighty who secured the degree of B.Sc. twelve were women. Three women also took an M.D. Detailed investigation of these examination lists shows that, in the Faculties of Art, Science, and Laws, women (who formed about 20 per cent. of the graduates) were first in six (50 per cent.) subjects, men being also first in six. The women came out ahead in mental and moral science, botany, physiology, French, German, and English, while the men retained first rank in classics, mathematics, chemistry, experimental physics, physical geography, and common law and equity. In the pass list for the examination in the theory and history of teaching, there were nine women and no men, which points, we hope, rather to the increasing demand for trained women teachers than to the mental inferiority of the male sex.

It is nearly a generation since the French Academy of Sciences, on the report of a commission of men, awarded one of its highest prizes to Miss Kovalevski for her valuable contributions to the science of astronomy—investigations relating to the theory of the movements of solid bodies around a centre. A similar although somewhat more definite honor has recently been conferred on an American student, Miss Dorothy Klumpke, who has received from the Sorbonne the degree of Doctor in Mathematical Sciences. The thesis which secured this degree was modestly called "A Contribution to the Study of the Rings of Saturn," and the president of the Sorbonne, in conferring the unusual honor on Miss Klumpke, spoke of the value of this thesis, "which you have prepared according to our course in higher mathematics, with an assiduity that we could not ignore, and which is the first that a lady has presented and successfully sustained before our Faculty to obtain the degree of Doctor of Mathematical Sciences. You have worked in a deserving manner, and the Faculty has unanimously decided to declare you worthy of the grade of doctor."

The second Annual Authors' Readings, under the auspices of the Booksellers' and Stationers' Provident Association of the United States, will take place in Music Hall, Fifty-seventh Street and Seventh Avenue, on the evening of February 6. Among the authors who will read from their own works are Gen. Lew Wallace, George W. Cable, Richard Watson Gilder, Julia Ward Howe, Paul Du Chaillu, John Kendrick Bangs, and Col. T. W. Higginson.

—The second volume of Mr. Paul Leicester Ford's scholarly edition of Jefferson's Writings (Putnams) receives tardy notice at our hands, but we can only repeat our commendation of the undertaking. All needful light continues to be thrown on the documents reproduced, and the admirable "itinerary and chronology" for the period (1776-1781) is prefixed. The more important contents are a rough draft and a fair copy of Jefferson's proposed Constitution of Virginia; the Declaration of Independence in a first draft copied by John Adams, the reported draft (both printed and in facsimile), and the engrossed copy—in parallel columns; drafts of the bill to abolish entails, the bill to establish religious freedom, the bill for the more general diffusion of knowledge (by the establishment of common schools), etc., etc.; and the proclamation of the Virginia embargo of November 30, 1779. Light on the time rather than on Jefferson is thrown by the "bill concerning slaves," which he drew up in connection with the codification of the Virginia statutes, and which was a mere digest of existing law but for the ineffectual attempt to limit slavery; and by the bill of attainder directed against the brigand Josiah Philips, which legalized the killing of him by any one after the date fixed for his surrender to stand trial. In defence of this measure, which assumed the guilt of the accused as being notorious, Jefferson, like Patrick Henry, laid down the principle of the right of society to protect itself, in terms applicable to our latter-day anarchists. "Those who declare war against the human race," said Henry, "may be struck out of existence as soon as they are apprehended." "No one," declared Jefferson, "doubted that society had a right to erase from the roll of its members any one who rendered his own existence inconsistent with theirs." The Jeffersonian Democrats who voted for the national law against the importation of contract labor, will read with horror of their idol's desire to indulge in that privilege himself. "Music," he wrote in 1778, "is the favorite passion of my soul," and he would fain have kept "a domestic band of [professional] musicians." His means not permitting that, he cast about to see if he could not tempt with "a certainty of employment for a half dozen years" Italian gardeners, weavers, cabinet-makers, stone-cutters, and vine-dressers, who could also "perform on the French horn, clarinet or hautboy & bassoon, so that one might have a band of two French horns, two clarinets, & hautboys & a bassoon, without enlarging their [his] expenses."

—Any one taking up the new edition of Mr. Egerton Castle's 'English Book-Plates' (London: Bell; New York: Macmillan), and happening to open at the rigid *ex-libris* of Thomas Carlyle, with its boastful motto, "Humilitate," finds himself wondering how it is that a great humorist could be so deficient in humor as to have thus laid himself open to the mocker. The book-plates of many other men of letters are reproduced in Mr. Castle's glibly written volume, some in facsimile by process of one kind or another, and some from the original coppers. The literary leanings of British pictorial art are seen to advantage in designs wherein allegory and even anecdote and story-telling are in place. In the later plates, in those devised since the revival of interest in the *ex-libris*—a revival which began on the publication of Poulet-Malassis's pioneer treatise—the improvement of recent decorative art in Great Britain is very obvious. Among the worst of all the plates here given, both as respects the taste of the owner and the drawing of the artist, is the label used by Lord Wolseley. The superiority of the etching-needle in the making of book-plates is made manifest more than once in Mr. Castle's pleasant pages, as, for example, the fine portrait-book-plate of Mr. Walter Pollock, fencer and poet, and the punning design of M. Paul Avril (etched presumably by M. Abot). The new edition is superior to the old in having a bibliography, in which Mr. Laurence Hutton's papers in the *Book-Buyer* are noted, but not his revision of them in his volume in "Harper's American Essayists," and in which also the chapter in 'The Home Library' by Arthur Penn fails to find mention.

—That a lineal descendant of Oliver Cromwell was to be found in our own day is a fact known, presumably, to very few. Such a descendant, however, was Mrs. Avarilla Oliveria Cromwell Bush, who died last November. This lady's grandmother, the wife of Thomas Artemidorus Russell, was Elizabeth Oliveria (born in 1777), the only daughter of Oliver Cromwell (born in 1742), the last male of his family to bear its name. Elizabeth Oliveria was the great-great-great-granddaughter of the Protector. The eldest son of Mr. T. A. Russell, Cromwell Russell, had one child, the lady lately deceased, who was born July 19, 1826. As evidencing the pertinacity of popular prejudice, it is said that the Oliver Cromwell of the

last century, who was a solicitor in chancery, experienced great disadvantage in consequence of his patronymic, and that he objected to the proposed assumption of it by his son-in-law. Since the death of Mrs. Bush, announcement has been made of that of Mrs. Elizabeth Oliveria Prescott, the sister of Artemidorus Cromwell Russell, son of Thomas Artemidorus Russell, in her ninety-second year. The Cromwell heirlooms, together with the Cheshunt Park estate, now pass to Mrs. Bush's son, the Rev. Thomas Cromwell Bush.

—By the death of Dr. Johan Fritzner, which occurred in Christiania on the 17th of December, 1893, Norway has lost one of her most eminent scholars at the great age of nearly eighty-two years. Fritzner was educated for the ministry, and from 1839 to 1877 he served as the pastor of various churches, but his name belongs not to ecclesiastical but to scientific history. A year older than Ivar Aasen, who survives him, the two have advanced *pari passu*, though entirely independent of one another, in the achievement of reputation as linguistic scholars. Aasen devoted himself wholly to the study of the Norwegian dialects still spoken in Norway, and as a result produced his comprehensive 'Dictionary of the Norwegian Dialects,' a work which has received the highest measure of praise from the philologists of all countries; while Fritzner, on the other hand, gave his attention to the Old Norse language, and undertook the collection of materials for an Old Norse dictionary, a work greatly needed. Cleasby's 'Icelandic-English Dictionary' had not yet appeared, and students of Old Norse were limited to Björn Haeldórsson's dictionary, published by Rask in 1814, to Dr. Sveinbjörn Egilsson's 'Lexikon Poeticum,' printed 1854–1860, and to various brief vocabularies. Fritzner's 'Dictionary of the Old Norse Language' appeared complete in 1867, a work of 900 pages, and was welcomed with enthusiasm by all scholars pursuing northern studies particularly, and by linguists generally. Dr. Gudbrand Vigfusson pays it a high compliment in his edition of Cleasby's 'Icelandic-English Dictionary,' and emphasizes his great indebtedness to it. When sixty-five years old, Fritzner retired from the ministry, but only for the purpose of devoting his whole time to a thorough revision of his great dictionary, which had gone out of print. Of the revised work the first part appeared in Christiania in 1883. Part 23 was published just before his death, and includes the letter "R," making 2,200 printed pages; that is to say, the new edition will be fully three times as large as the first, and it will be as much improved in quality as in quantity. Fritzner retained his mental and physical vigor until he had passed the line of eighty, and though he did not live to see the whole work in print, yet the portion from R to the end of the alphabet was all finished by the author before his death, and will be published as speedily as possible. In his earlier years Fritzner served as minister in Vadsö, in the extreme north of Norway, and he published several valuable essays on the language, mythology, and civilization of the Lapps. At the fourth centenary festival of the University of Copenhagen in 1879, he received the honorary degree of Doctor.

HART'S ESSAYS ON AMERICAN GOVERNMENT.

Practical Essays on American Government. By Albert Bushnell Hart, Ph.D., of Harvard University. Longmans, Green & Co.

THIS book is a solid, substantial, and most satisfactory piece of honest work. The author has selected his sheaves with excellent judgment, and threshed the grain out of them to the very best of his ability. There is no eye-service in it—no paragraph written to round out an article or help fill the pages of a magazine. Prof. Hart has worked for his readers with a will, and there is no reader so well informed on the topics of the book that he will not find it interesting, suggestive, and instructive. As to those persons who know little or nothing of the topics treated of, they will find, if they be persons of ordinary intelligence, constant surprises, which will be to them "food for thought," beginning with the discovery how much thought has been given to such subjects by other people.

These eleven essays, with one exception, it is almost needless to say, have appeared in print before—in the *Atlantic*, the *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, the *Magazine of American History*, etc. The periodical literature of the time admits to print numberless writers who should never have been allowed to see themselves there, and it indirectly fences out of the book-field many an author who would have waited and labored until his seedling expanded from the annual plant of the magazines to the perennial of a book. Yet the periodicals contain many an article which should outlive their year, and it often seems as if it would be a good thing to have a *Magazine of Magazines*, into which a board of competent censors should admit articles, not less than a year old, deserving of a lasting place in literature. The system which substitutes articles for books has one good element, that it compels the author to condense: it has a corresponding fault, that it compels him not to condense too much, but to omit. In saying what he wishes to on the theme he has at heart, he cannot speak of subjects which should be considered with it. We cannot say that this last cause has been operative here, yet the result is much the same as such a cause would ordinarily bring about. Prof. Hart's forte is in facts. He collects them with unwearied patience; he arrays them in logical lines with a strong and skilful hand; he presents them to the beholder with admirable clearness, and his deductions are sound "as far as they go," or as far as his premises invite him to make deductions.

As an illustration of the former, the reader may take the masterly exposition of one of the most important—many people will say the most important—of American public questions, the exercise of the suffrage. It will astonish almost every reader that such a wealth of thought, research, and information can be compressed into the limits of such an article, and yet be interesting, clear, and indeed attractive. As an illustration of the way our author illustratively brings his carefully winnowed statistical facts within the easy comprehension of his readers, we clip the following. Could it be better shown that a crude quotation from the census would not disclose the real state of the case?

"Only a seventh of the people of the United States are foreign-born, but of the men of voting age more than one-fourth are foreigners; and as long ago as 1875, 65 per cent. of the adult men in New York city were foreign-born. The proportion of men in middle life and above is even more startling. Of 500 men above thirty-five whom the New Yorker meets while crossing City Hall Park any day, 400 are certainly foreign-born."

While the author sweeps over the whole field of the suffrage, his practical object is to solve the question of compulsory voting, and no one who reads the article can doubt his having done so. He demonstrates the gratifying fact that the actual vote of the American people is astonishingly near the potential *whenever there is anything to vote for—i. e.*, when they believe that their votes will effect something. The real problem is how to give them something to vote for, and how to stamp out the fraudulent and corrupt elements that permeate the suffrage. Prof. Hart, as we have said, winnows his statistics, patiently and thoroughly, but there are conditions often which do not appear in statistics. When he was making his computations of those who vote and those who do not, did he bear in mind the old familiar Democratic maxim, "Vote early and often," or the modern Republican practice, "Send them in blocks of five"?

If we turn now to the article on the Speaker as Premier, we shall find that the author has set forth with the same clearness a long array of facts showing the great and still increasing power of the Speaker, who started in 1789 as a mere presiding officer, and who is "likely to become, and perhaps is already, more powerful, both for good and for evil, than the President of the United States." Here Prof. Hart draws the somewhat loose and startling deductions that the Speaker "is premier in legislation," and that "it is a wholesome reaction from a divided irresponsibility and a wasteful system of conducting the business of legislation." Whatever parallelism there may be between the Speaker of the present decade, with his self-assumed, undefined, unrestrained, and indeed unknown powers, and the British Premier, is clearly presented, but a reader of the article will have very shadowy ideas of the differences. Prof. Hart's deductions, so far as they go, are philosophically drawn from his premises of fact, but there are other and much more important deductions which should also be drawn from them, and there is a premise which does not appear in his strong array of facts. That premise is Speaker Keifer. If, in November, 1880, a man had stepped into an assemblage of 500 intelligent American citizens who were neither inhabitants of Ohio nor Grand Army men, and cried with a loud voice, "Who is Keifer? Who is J. Warren Keifer?" the chances are that the whole 500 would have answered with one voice, "We do not know; we never heard his name before!" And it is safe to say that, outside of Ohio and Grand Army circles, none of the 500 would have heard his name again during the ensuing thirteen months. And then what happened? Nothing more than this: the unknown individual, through wily combinations in the House of Representatives, commonly called log-rolling, became Speaker, with more power, "both for good and for evil, than the President of the United States." Try to imagine the English people, at a general election, choosing, in effect, a man to be their Prime Minister of whom they had never heard, and of whom they would hear absolutely nothing for thirteen months after the election! The thing is inconceivable. The British elector at the last election who cast his vote for this member of Parliament or that member of Parliament, knew just as well that he was voting for Gladstone or Salisbury as the citizen of Maine or Massachusetts knew when he put his ticket in the box for some unknown Presidential electors that he was voting for Cleveland or Harrison. The resemblances between the Premier and the Speaker are interesting and curious; but the differences between them are radical and absolute. The Premier represents the avowed principles and policy of the nation; he is the standard-bearer of the victorious ma-

jority of the people, chosen to carry on the government by constitutional methods. The Speaker is a nobody, chosen by half of the Legislature to appoint its committees and preside over its deliberations; his interference with our methods of government is non-constitutional; he can never be a standard-bearer so long as we elect our Presidents; and his assumption of powers which do not belong to his office is at best a dangerous and demoralizing makeshift.

We pass now from the first essay in the volume to the last—a philosophical inquiry as to "Why the South was defeated in the Civil War." Those of us who were old enough to vote in 1860 will find many facts that we knew before, but also many explanations of things that we did not then understand. Those of us to whom the great war is but history and tradition will find an admirable exposition of the causes and effects which have resulted in our present Union. Appreciating fully this article, and hoping and believing that it will pass into subsequent and revised editions, we call the attention of the author to some points as to which we deem revision necessary.

"Except in the Shenandoah Valley, to a less degree in Mississippi, the Federal armies could nowhere support themselves from the country until Sherman's march to the sea in 1864."

If this were confined to the Atlantic States, it would be substantially true; but, applied as it is to all of the Confederate territory, it is certainly a great mistake. Western Tennessee, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Arkansas were more richly furnished for the needs of an invading army than any invaded country of like extent that the sun ever shone upon. Gen. Grant issued an order that his troops should live upon the country, and he has expressed his astonishment at the agricultural wealth which the country contained. We have before us the instance of a single plantation which came under his eye where the Quartermaster-General allowed, among other things, 68,000 bushels of corn, 17,000 bushels of peas, 33 horses and mules, 100 barrels of pork, and 4,000 cords of wood. Corn, bacon, horses and mules, cattle and hogs abounded. In the above designation of territory we have not placed Georgia, through which Sherman's army marched happy and well fed, while his bummers revelled in abundance. Forrest, too, carried his entire command from one end of the war to the other, so says Confederate authority, without making a single requisition upon either the Quartermaster or the Commissary Department of the Confederate States.

"The percentage of Southern prisoners who died in the well-conducted Northern prison of Elmira was greater than the percentage of Northern prisoners who died in Andersonville . . . Differences of diet, of habit, of climate had tended to make out of the South a race easily incited to the fiercest of rapid effort, but which was less able to bear continuous fighting and hardship."

Professor Shaler, on the contrary, has shown most conclusively that there probably never was a body of soldiers in this world that, through four years of warfare, hardship, privation, and disappointment, showed such magnificent endurance, physical and moral, as the First Kentucky Brigade in the Confederate army. Johnston's army in its retreat before Sherman, and Lee's in the trenches at Petersburg, through the privations and discouragement of the last year of the war, most assuredly present as splendid examples of soldiers bearing continuous fighting and hardship as anything that our Northern soldiers ever displayed. Statistics, moreover, are dangerous things except where conditions are identical. Southern writers have used these same prison statistics to prove that Southern prisoners were as badly treated as the prisoners of Andersonville. Many healthy Northern soldiers, too, after passing months of wretchedness in Southern stockades, found that good food, good clothes, and comfortable habitations seemed to cause or develop dangerous illnesses.

"President Davis and General Lee agreed that the last possibility of success was in arming the negroes, and a company of black convicts from the Richmond jails was actually organized."

This, we think, understates the case. Certainly we have ourselves seen a copy of the Petersburg *Index*—probably the last issue that was published before the fall of Richmond—which gave an account of the organization of a colored company and the presentation of a stand of colors, made, if we remember aright, by the ladies of Petersburg. This part of Confederate history seems to have been ignored by Confederate writers. It would be interesting to know what was done with these black troops—whether they marched or fought or encamped with white ones. They effected nothing, it is true, but the war seems to have been prolonged until both sides should recognize the African as a soldier in what was at the beginning most assuredly a white man's war.

"Slavery was the cause of the military defeat of the South," is Prof. Hart's answer to the initial question, Why was the South defeated in the Civil War? We do not think that his premises justify his conclusion. Slavery may have been the cause in the same sense that a bad breakfast eaten by a Prime Minister may have been the cause of a war. The Rev. Edward Everett Hale has written a story to prove that the military defeat of the South was caused by a hoopskirt. But in a philosophical inquiry of this kind we are dealing with causes which are proximate and apparent, and not with those that are remote and speculative. Prof. Hart shows that for four years, with almost every white man capable of bearing arms in the army, slavery fed the Confederacy; and slavery did this abundantly and with unswerving fidelity. The trouble was not that there was lack of food, but that there was lack of railway transportation. Slavery cast no paralyzing vote; its disaffected forces did not oppose and embarrass the Confederate Government; it did not shriek "On to Richmond!" nor compel the fighting of battles for political reasons. If the slaves only once, in the long four years, had struck the Confederacy such a blow as the Union received from the Indians of Minnesota or the draft rioters of New York, it is not unlikely that that blow would have carried it down. Prof. Hart quotes approvingly a Southern speaker who said: "A single brand flung into our houses [by our slaves] would have caused our armies to be dissolved—and it was not flung." It is said that "slavery weakened every blow that was struck and every arm that struck a blow." But this is mere rhetoric. Did slavery prevent Lee's orderly marches through Maryland and Pennsylvania, or impair the awful heroism of Pickett's charge at Gettysburg, of which all Americans may well be proud?

The real cause of the downfall of the Confederate military power was that both sides determined to stake all upon the hazard of a single die, and that die was Richmond. The South so determined when they resolved not to abandon the Confederate capital until driven out. The North so determined when Gen. Halleck wrote his not sufficiently famous letter overruling Gen. Grant's short-sighted project for compelling the evacuation by a flank movement from North Carolina. Grant's famous sentence about fighting it out on this line if it took all summer was only a response to Halleck's masterly exposition of the situation. Jefferson Davis said that he could carry on the war for twenty years after Richmond should be abandoned, but the good sense of the Southern people eschewed the vindictive folly. If the South could hold Richmond until the North should overwhelm itself in its extravagant expenditures, or until England and France should intervene, the South would succeed; if the North should capture the city and its heroic army, the Confederacy should fall with it. The South stood by its determination, and, when the die was cast, it gave up the fight.

Studies of Travel. I. Greece; II. Italy By Edward A. Freeman. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

It was well to collect these sketches, originally published in the *Saturday Review*, the *Guardian*, and the *Pall Mall Gazette*, for they throw light not only on many little-visited places in classic lands, but also on the methods of the late Prof. Freeman as an historical writer. Whoever turns to these sketches for picturesque descriptions or for formal historical statements will be disappointed. They are rather the random memoranda of the associations called up in a very erudite mind by the sight of this or that ancient town. Often, indeed, the associations are not at all those of the average traveller. At Assisi, for instance, it is the memorials of old Roman times, and not of St. Francis, that Mr. Freeman explores. His proclivity for archæology everywhere manifests itself. His habits of giving rein to conjecture, and of illustrating antique or mediæval conditions by reference to Saxon history, his hatred of the Turk, his clear perception of the significance of the perpetual struggle between Occident and Orient, between Aryan and Semite—are all indulged very freely. In his journey through Central Italy, he proves, by many quotations, the high esteem in which he held Macaulay's "Lays."

The net result is such a discursive talk as a professor might give to a class of advanced students who were expected to know when they came to him all the facts usually furnished by text-books, his purpose being to interpret, by allusion or surmise, the general bearings of the subject. Like most travellers and historians, Freeman seems to have been little interested in the recent history of Italy; but he would go far to read a fragmentary Etruscan inscription or to examine a Roman column. In style we recognize those qualities with which his larger works have made us familiar. There is the same *ex-cathedra*, almost pedantic, tone; the same repetition of phrase; the same antithesis of thought. Freeman rarely writes simply; he seems always to be arguing. Like many preachers, he pounds the pulpit so often, and on so slight provocation, that he has no resources left for emphasizing really important points. Open his books where you will, and you will come upon a passage like this:

"The *difference* between the *abiding* greatness of Perugia and the *abiding* littleness of Cortona is no doubt largely due to the physical *difference* of their sites. Both are *hill cities*, mountain-*cities*, if you will: but they *sit* on *hills* of quite *different* kinds. The *hill* of Perugia is better fitted for growth than the *hill* of Cortona. Cortona *sits* on a single *hill top*. Perugia *sits*, not indeed on seven *hills*, but on a *hill* of complicated outline, which

throws out several—possibly seven—*outlying*, mostly *lower*, *spurs*, with deep valleys between them. The Etruscan and Roman *city* took in only the central height, itself of a very irregular shape and at some points very narrow. The *lower* and *outlying spurs* were taken within the *city* in later times. Hence it is only in a small *part* of their circuit that the original *walls* remain the present external *walls;* it is only on *part* of its western side that we can at all go behind Perugia. But the *lower city* is still thoroughly a *hill-city*. The *hill* of Perugia is *lower* than the *hill* of Cortona, while the *city* of Perugia is vastly greater than the *city* of Cortona."

As the reader runs over this passage, in which we have italicized Freeman's repetitions, does he not feel as if he had before him some dry demonstration in chemistry, or some abstruse legal argument? Does he not feel that, in historical or descriptive writing, this sort of thing is unliterary, clumsy, mannered? Better, a hundred times better, Carlyle's mannerism, in which the strength is real, in which there is richness of phrase, flash of imagination, humor, and wisdom. Equally to be shunned is Freeman's incontinent use of the comparative method—his telling us, at Tiryns, for instance, not what there is at Tiryns, but wherein Tiryns differs from Mycenæ and Argos, and at Argos, what there is at Tiryns. You get, on the whole, an imperfect idea of what Napoleon was and did, if you are informed at every moment of his unlikeness to Cæsar and Cromwell. In a word, Freeman seems to us to represent a crude and ill-digested state of comparative historical writing; a state in which comparison, instead of being subsidiary, is shoved up into the first place. And yet, so great is his learning, so sound are his general interpretations of historic development, and often so helpful are his casual reflections, that these little volumes of essays, not less than his longer works, deserve to be read by scholars.

The Classic Myths in English Literature. Based chiefly on Bulfinch's 'Age of Fable.' By C. M. Gayley. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1893.

Myths of Greece and Rome: Narrated with special reference to Literature and Art. By H. A. Guerber. New York: American Book Co. 1893.

THESE two books are a natural outcome of that utilitarian zeal which has for the present curtailed the study of the classics in our country, and through which a knowledge once universal among college-bred men is becoming a mystery to many. Many a young man lightly cuts himself off from the power of understanding a "dead language," only to find out too late that he has left himself incapable of the widest understanding of his own. For, as Lowell once said, "only those languages can properly be called dead in which nothing living has been written." If the classic languages are dead, yet they speak to us in their myths, if in no other sort, on pages written every day and upon canvases painted in every land; for the classic myths are the backbone of much of our literature and the background of much of our art. To know either truly, we must be able to listen to the voices of the past; and if we cannot comprehend them in their own tongues, we must do the next best thing, listen to them as interpreted by people better instructed than are we.

To give the rising generation that knowledge of the myths which used to be had from the classics is the object of the books named above. Prof. Gayley has taken Bulfinch's 'Age of Fable' for his ground-work, and has altered it almost out of recognition. It used to be a delightful romance. It is now a school text-book, crammed with information, but no longer possible to read, only to study or consult. Having shed this tear for the dead king, we hasten to cry long life to the new. He is the man of destiny—after good Cronus, Zeus, and his learned daughter; he had to come, and we can honestly acclaim the manner of his coming. His opening speech is all about the origin and the elements of myths. Dear old Bulfinch knew little of this, nor did anybody else in those

> "days endeared to every Muse,
> When nobody had any Views."

But nowadays plenty of people know how it all really was, and the new king sets forth the various theories how myths were made, under the heads of the Theory of Deterioration, including the historical, philological, and allegorical interpretations, and the Theory of Progress, beloved of Mr. Andrew Lang and all whose god is folk-lore. Our new monarch is no despot, however, and he generously lets us select the dogma that best suits us; for, like Frederick the Great, his motto seems to be, "Hier muss ein jeder nach seiner Façon selig werden."

But it will be the part of wisdom to drop the figure of his Majesty ere he grows too heavy for us to carry. To the theories of myth-making succeed accounts of all the principal myths in Greek, Roman, Norse, and German mythology. Prof. Gayley has used the best sources (of which a long bibliography is given), and he tells the familiar stories well. Many quotations are introduced from English and American poems which illustrate the myth or some development of it, or which "suggest the spirit and mien of ancient art." But the real novelty in the book is the commentary at the end. Here, in nearly a hundred closely printed pages, are collected simple expositions of the more evident interpretations of the myths, references to additional poems and verses in which allusion is made to them, brief descriptions of works of art, ancient and modern, and genealogical tables of the principal mythical figures. The whole concludes with rules for the syllabication and pronunciation of the names, and with two capital indexes.

The book is a careful piece of work throughout, shows unsparing study and remarkable accuracy, and may be highly commended for the purpose for which it is intended. A few omissions and errors may be mentioned. Among the rules for syllabication we miss one of the most important and useful, namely, "A Latin word has as many syllables as it has vowels or diphthongs." Under Hesper, Tennyson's beautiful trochaic after Sappho should find a place. Is Japetus (used frequently for Iapetus) a nightmare recollection from the German fumbling with I and J, or does Prof. Gayley here commit himself for once to the theological interpretation, and believe that the Titan came out of Noah's ark? Apuleius should not be called the "inventor" of the romance of the Golden Ass. The ascription of the 'Bibliotheca' to the grammarian Apollodorus sets the date of the work about two hundred and fifty years too early.

We cannot praise the illustrations, of which the book contains more than a hundred from the antique in the form of woodcuts. Many of them are old cuts which have been used in a school-book issued by the same publishers. They are on the whole unattractive, and often rude in execution. The original source of most of them seems to be Roux's 'Pompei,' a work in which the imagination plays a strong part. Among the worst are those of the Amazon, of Priam before Achilles, and a very peevish-looking Venus of Milo. The satyr of Greek art had no goat's legs, and hence the picture on page 77 is wrongly entitled.

Faults in execution cannot be found with the illustrations in Mr. Guerber's book. There are about seventy, all full-page photogravures, a much more satisfactory form of picture, and, in these days of processes, scarcely more expensive than the old-fashioned cuts. Some of them, such as that of the Vatican Penelope, of Perrault's Cupid Asleep, and of Sichel's Medea, are really beautifully done. Three-quarters of them are from modern works, both in painting and in sculpture, and in all but one the choice was well made. But the picture of the Education of the Vestals looks more like a cooking-school than a solemn religious function. In the text, fewer myths are treated, but these in much more detail than in Prof. Gayley's book. Mr. Guerber writes in lighter vein; his style is that of the story-teller or popular lecturer, and hence his book reads easily and is better suited to awaken the interest of young pupils. But, in some of his attempts to be graphic, it seems to us that he runs the risk of vulgarizing the myths. We do not like to be told that Phædra proposed to Hippolytus to "elope" with her, and that when he refused she accused him of trying to "kidnap" her. Juno delivering "curtain lectures" jars on us, and "chubby, rosy child" is not the Greek conception of Eros. A good many things of this sort ought to be eliminated from another edition. The *woulds* and *shoulds*, too, need careful scrutiny. This book also is provided with a chapter on the origin of myths, with two good indexes, and contains many carefully chosen quotations from ancient and modern poetry.

Diary of Jacob Hiltzheimer of Philadelphia. New York: Jacob Cox Parsons, 270 Broadway. Pp. 270.

Travels in America 100 *Years Ago.* By Thomas Twining. Harper & Brothers. Pp. 181.

THE handsomely bound and printed diary of Jacob Hiltzheimer extends from the year 1765 to 1798, with the exception of the years 1771, 1775, 1776. It was chiefly written in Philadelphia, where the writer filled various public offices and took active part in all public and charitable movements. Though containing some records of Revolutionary days and persons, as its careful index shows, it is, like many of the diaries of the times, meagre in the details of public events of which we wish most to know. It exhibits as its chief points of interest the records of deeds and surroundings petty in themselves, and of value principally to the student of social and domestic customs and to writers of histories of the people rather than of wars and leaders of wars. As to the man himself, the diary affords ample evidence of public esteem and confidence, and of many domestic virtues. Indeed, we feel when reading the pages, as with all frank records of daily life, that we know him well.

Though Mr. Hiltzheimer was a member of the vestry of the German Reformed Church for many years, he showed no narrowness in religious views, noting with interest at one time the number of candles and surplices in a service at the Roman Catholic Church; listening to Friend Rebecca Jones at the Quaker meeting-house; hearing Methodist Pilmore preach from the grand-stand at the race-course, and giving us more than one glimpse of that picturesque fanatic and most successful humbug, Jemima Wilkinson. He says she wore

one August Sunday "a white hat but no cap, and a white linen garment that covered her to her feet. She looks more like a man than a woman." And again he says of her: "She spoke in the New England dialect, and appeared to be about twenty-five years of age; her hair was dressed like that of a man, and she wore a black gown after the fashion of church ministers." Opportunities for amusement were more plentiful at that date in Pennsylvania than in New England. Mr. Hiltzheimer attended cider-frolics, pigeon-matches, beefsteak dinners, barbecues, bull-baitings, cock-fights, turtle-frolics, and innumerable horse-races and fox-hunts. He saw fancy skaters, electrical fishes, and exhibitions of fireworks; attended concerts and theatres. After the fashion of his day he visited all the brides and drank many a noble bowl of punch at the bride's house, and he decently and reverently attended the funerals of his dead friends.

They had in those times a very summary way of dealing with refractory servants. Shortly after having noted that "our maid Rosina was impertinent to her mistress," we find our Philadelphian taking the saucy young redemptioner before the squire, who promptly ordered her to the workhouse. After remaining a month in that confinement, Rosina boldly answered "No" when asked if she would go back to her master and behave as she ought, and was promptly remanded. She soon repented, and was released; her master paid for her board and lodging while under detention, and quickly sold her for £20 for her remaining term of service. Less piquant reading is the record of Mr. Hiltzheimer's faithful and conscientious service as street commissioner, setting milestones, naming streets, overseeing the building of sewers, which yet has its value for reference.

The account of Thomas Twining's travels is, from its narrative form, of much more readable quality. This energetic and intelligent young Englishman, only nineteen years of age (and handsome too, if we can trust his portrait), made a visit of pure curiosity to America in the interval between two terms of residence in India; and the record he left of his information-seeking travels answers the questions we ask to-day of the condition of America a century ago, when the new government was not yet of age, and forms a welcome addition to the contemporary accounts of other travellers, such as Chastellux and Dwight. Nothing escaped Mr. Twining's notice and his concise noting—the food, beds, houses, streets, private citizens, and public officials. He bore approving testimony to our buckwheat cakes and Maryland pork, showed much patience over our bad streets and inns, gave a most vivid and interesting account of interviews with many public men, notably with Washington, to whose dignity and elegance he bears full testimony. He foresaw clearly the future of our nation, and it is pleasing to know that he lived to see the greatness he prophesied, for he did not die till 1861. While frankly noting imperfections, he says most sensibly that many things could not be otherwise than imperfect in so new a country, and that "it was not for an Englishman to reprobate a state of things so lately the bequest of the British nation." In short, this clearly told little book of travels fulfils Bovee's two requisites for a book: it is "luminous and not voluminous."

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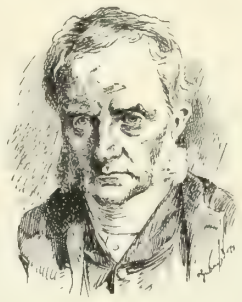

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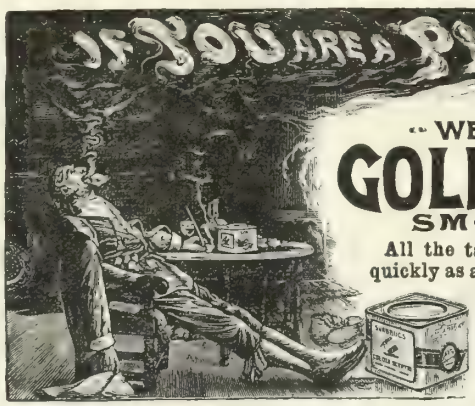

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 1, 1894.

The Week.

THE resolution adopted by the judiciary committee of the House respecting Secretary Carlisle's issue of bonds, does not question, but on the contrary concedes, the secretary's right to issue bonds under the act of 1875. It questions only his right to use the money so obtained for other purposes than the redemption of United States notes. The resolution is in these words:

"Resolved, That it is the sense of the House of Representatives that the secretary of the treasury has no authority, under existing law, to issue and sell the bonds of the United States, except such as is conferred upon him by the act approved January 14, 1875, entitled 'An act to provide for the resumption of specie payments,' and that the money derived from the sale of bonds issued under that act cannot be lawfully applied to any purposes except those specified therein."

This is a very different thing from questioning the secretary's legal power to issue bonds. What he shall do with the money after he gets it, is of no concern to those who subscribe for the bonds. Their holdings are good in any case. We think that the committee might be in much better business than airing their opinions in this futile way. It would be more statesmanlike to report a bill forbidding the use of the money for ordinary expenses than to pass a resolution—a mere *brutum fulmen*—expressing their private opinion on the subject.

The meeting between the secretary and the leading bankers of this city was held for the purpose of enabling the secretary to explain the legal points that had been raised by the House judiciary committee and by the injunction suit brought by the Knights of Labor (since thrown out by the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia). Incidentally the fact was brought out that the bankers of this city had not subscribed for the new loan to any considerable extent, because they did not like to pay the large premium, amounting to over 17 per cent., which subscribers must pay under the terms of the circular. Another fact was made clear, that the bankers did not see any reason for putting in bids until the last moment, since all bids stand on an equality at the time of opening. Naturally everybody who wants any bonds desires to obtain them at the lowest price. What the lowest price is cannot be known till about the time of closing. Although nobody has a right to see the bids until they are opened, a pretty good opinion can be formed as to the average price by anybody who has a considerable interest in finding out. That the holding back of the New York bankers signified nothing except a natural desire to get bonds at the lowest rates possible under the terms of the circular, was shown by their subscription for $30,000,000 on Tuesday.

The secretary has ample power to get all the money he wants. If the loan is not taken at 117.223, he has only to advertise again at a lower rate. He can sell his 5 per cent. ten-year bonds at par if he cannot get better rates, and it will be his duty to do so. It will be his duty, also, in our judgment, to give all subscribers an equal chance to bid. This rule is of more importance than the price at which the bonds are taken, and it is only by the observance of the rule that the secretary can escape criticism from the anti-bank party in Congress. Granted that such criticism would be without foundation, nevertheless it has great influence on the politics of the country. Any secretary of the treasury will reckon ill who leaves it out of his calculations. Especially at this time, when there is such a ravenous demand in certain quarters for "coining the seigniorage," would it be dangerous to offer to Mr. Bland and his pack any fresh occasion to give tongue against the banks.

Senator Jones takes this occasion to place a headstone at the grave of free silver, in the shape of his seven days' speech of last October, now for the first time published in the *Congressional Record*. Having been one day longer about it than the heavens and the earth were in creating, its bulk is correspondingly large. After one hundred two-columned pages the Senator perorated, closing with an elegant poetical extract, stating,

"And *this is all* that the watcher said"

We may well be thankful that he stopped when he did, though we suspect that the reason for it was much the same as in the case of the Scotch preacher who said, "But, my brethren, I will not dwell longer on this subject," only to hear a shrill voice from the gallery, from a woman who did not approve of written sermons, "Ye canna, for your paper's rin out."

In the debate on the coal tariff in the House the Republicans and a few Democrats took the position that it is best for the country to get rid of its coal supplies as rapidly as possible, by preventing any other coal from coming in. Yet all these people know that the coal deposits of every country are limited in amount, and that, when exhausted, they cannot be replaced. Competent geologists have estimated the supply of the United States from known deposits at not much over one hundred years at the progressive rate of consumption which has taken place in the past, while that of Great Britain is reckoned at not more than fifty years. Now, what is to be said of the intelligence of those who cry out against the introduction of Nova Scotia coal into the New England States, and who insist that the deposits of Pennsylvania and Maryland shall be drawn upon not only to supply those States, but also to haul the coal to them? Every car-load of coal hauled requires the consumption of a certain percentage of the load in order to move it. If the same amount of coal can be obtained without this waste, we are the gainers. It is, moreover, an advantage to us to burn the coal of other countries rather than our own. Both sources of supply will be exhausted all too soon. The talk we hear about inexhaustible supplies of fuel is perilous nonsense. There are hundreds of empty holes in the ground which were heralded as inexhaustible mines in flattering prospectuses during the present generation. The time is coming when protectionists as fatuous as Mr. Walker of Massachusetts will be glad to have coal fall from the moon, and will not consider such acquisitions an injury to the country. We observe that this antediluvian voted for seventy-five cents per ton duty on coal in order to make the tariff fair and square.

The *Iron Age* publishes a chart showing the fluctuations in the prices of copper, lead, spelter, and tin plate from 1889 to 1893 inclusive. It is interesting to note that while there has been a considerable decline in the prices of metals generally, the price of tin plate holds the advance which was caused by the McKinley bill. It has been falsely asserted several times, since the Wilson bill has been under discussion, that we are paying no more for our tin plates than we did before that bill went into effect. The chart of the *Iron Age* shows that the advance in tin plates commenced in May, 1890, when it seemed likely that the McKinley bill might become law, and that it has continued to the present time with a few fluctuations. Had it not been for the McKinley bill, tin plates would have followed the decline of iron, steel, and pig tin abroad. It has been demonstrated also that the foreigner does not pay the duty on pig tin. The McKinley duty on this article went into effect July 1, 1893. The market price of pig tin here is exactly four cents per pound higher than in London, this being just the amount of the McKinley duty.

One of the strongest objections to the income tax is that its ulterior motive

does not appear in the bill and is never stated in debate by its advocates As a general rule, taxes which have any object in view except getting money for the Government are iniquitous. The exceptions, such as liquor licenses and the tax on State bank bills, all have their aim and end openly avowed. As regards the income tax, there is no doubt that it is an attempt on the part of the South and West to put on the people of the Northeast more than their share of the public burdens. It is in this section that the people with more than $4,000 annual income most abound, and the South and West want to punish them for being in comfortable circumstances. This is the first time in American history that an attempt of this sort has been made—that is, that Congress has proposed to tax one section at the instigation of others; and it would be difficult to conceive of a more dangerous precedent just now. Moreover, the class with incomes over $4,000 is a small class, and no reason for marking it off for punishment has ever been given. The millionaires in it are very few in number. The great bulk of it consists of persons in very moderate circumstances who have a hard struggle to educate their children and make ends meet.

There is only one excuse for this attempt at sectional taxation on the part of the South, and that is the pension laws. These same laws were also largely answerable for the adhesion of the South to the silver purchases. For thirty years we have gone on pouring money out of the Treasury by tens of millions of dollars to be spent in one part of the country only. Hardly a dollar of this goes into the South. This year, in the midst of our sorrow and suffering, we are paying out $160,000,000 on account of a war which came to an end thirty years ago. This is dispensed in cash and in small sums, and none, or next to none, of it reaches the Southern States properly so called. We are within the mark when we say that $1,500,000,000 have been spent in this way since the close of the civil war. This would be very unfortunate from a financial point of view, even if the money all came out of Northern pockets; but besides getting none of it, the South has had, and has, to contribute to it. The Southerners who got up the war and fought it out are mostly dead or superannuated. It is their sons and grandsons who now constitute the South with which we have to deal, and they would be more or less than human if, having got the power of legislation in their hands, they did not try to get a whack at the people who have imposed on them such intolerable burdens. But they are none the less very foolish, for they are going to insure the return to power next fall of the party which concocted and maintains the pension swindle. A clearer case of biting off one's own nose we have seldom heard of.

Apparently the question of Mr. Peckham's confirmation rests largely with the Republican Senators. Hill hopes to get a number of the Democratic Bourbons, under the lead of Pugh of Alabama, to stand with him in opposition, but he cannot hope to succeed unless a majority of the Republicans come to his rescue. His sole reliance is the chance that "Bill" Chandler and his kind can persuade Republicans generally that it would be "good politics" to reject an eminently well-qualified nominee in order to foster dissensions in the Democratic party. But Republican Senators who may be disposed to take so low a view of their duty are likely to find out, before the vote is taken, that their rejection of Mr. Peckham would be the worst possible politics for their own party. It is reported that the President will send no more nominations for office to the Senate until the vacancy on the Supreme bench has been filled. This is exactly right. The issue is whether the Senate shall usurp the appointing power, whether "the courtesy of the Senate" shall override the Constitution of the United States. There can be no compromise of such an issue, and there should be no complication of other questions with it. Everything else should wait until the Hills and the Chandlers of the two parties surrender.

The *World* has had the happy thought of resurrecting an interview with Hill eight years ago, in which he denounced most vigorously precisely such a policy as he is himself now pursuing. It was at the time when Mr. Cleveland was having his struggle with the Senate over the papers on which he based removals of old officials and the appointment of new ones, and Hill sustained the President's attitude as entirely right. Among other things which he then said of the confirming power that apply excellently to the present situation, was the following:

> "It does not reject bad men. It rejects good men to keep bad men in. It does not work as a help or enlightenment to the President or Governor. It works as a ball-and-chain on both. It makes in the Federal Senate a series of as many Presidents *in petto* as there are representatives of States in that body. It makes Senators office-brokers and executives the bondsmen of such office-brokers. Senators claim in effect to be assistant presidents and assistant governors, and seek to make elected presidents and elected governors subject to them."

Mr. James Schouler, the well-known historian of the United States, reviews the Hawaiian controversy in the February *Forum*. His conclusions only show how unfit are the methods of historical investigation in such a matter. What weight can be attached to the opinions of a man who writes about Hawaii without once calling it a "key" or a "cross roads," and who has a deplorable way of pinning himself and his opponents down to the evidence? The fact that distinguished lawyers like Judge Cooley and Mr. Coudert pronounce the legal evidence against Stevens complete, and that a distinguished historian like Mr. Schouler now declares the historical evidence also complete, only proves how little true patriotism has to do with either law or history.

The conference on municipal government, which came to a close on Friday in Philadelphia, drew out a remarkable number of well-written papers. It cannot be said to have thrown any very new light on the problem of municipal reform, but it was invaluable as a means of rousing and extending interest on the subject among those who think about municipal reform at all. Ten years ago, nay, five years ago, no such gathering would have been possible. The class of people who spoke at and attended the meetings this week were not then giving thought to the government of our great cities. They were occupied with temperance, or charity, or civil-service reform, or the tariff. That American cities could be better governed, and that it was necessary to try to get them better governed, was something which had not occurred to them. It was noteworthy, too, that in the discussion very little, in fact no, attention was bestowed on charters or distribution of powers. Nearly every address was devoted to the best means of bringing influence to bear on the voters in favor of better city government. The fact is that we have in Brooklyn to-day a charter which nearly all critics and observers are agreed is the kind of charter which is best adapted to our present needs in all the large cities, inasmuch as it puts good government almost immediately within reach of the voter if he elects a good mayor, and enables him to concentrate his attention on the mayor's character and career. The work to be done now is mainly work of evangelization, or missionary work. It is to convince people, as the preachers say, of the sin and discomfort of our present situation, and point out to them the way of salvation.

One of the speakers, Mr. Edwin D. Mead of Boston, discoursing on Friday on the theme of education as a means of "arousing public sentiment in favor of good city government," made a curious slip. In the course of an excellent address, speaking of the press as a means, indeed the chief means, of public education, and deploring the frightful appearance the morning papers presented on that day by giving four times as much space to the Florida prize-fight as to all other subjects of public interest, with as much disgusting "display" as

their columns would allow, he proceeded instantly to mention the Boston *Herald* as a model newspaper, which stood above all its fellows as a public instructor. The fact is, that the *Herald* is one of the worst purveyors of corrupting and degrading intelligence the country contains, in spite of the general excellence of its editorial matter and correspondence. It was only a year ago that it defended its reports of prize-fights, on the ground that it was bound to publish everything the public wanted or would pay for, because, as it said, it satisfied "an element in human nature." And while Mr. Mead was speaking, it was giving eight columns to the Florida prize-fight, beginning with two on the first page, containing a half-naked portrait of the victor and a smaller one of the other ruffian. Worse reading than those eight columns were, or less likely to predispose people towards good city government or any good thing in city life, we have never happened to see. Nothing, let us add, does so much to keep alive the faults of the press as this thoughtless sort of praise in which good people like Mr. Mead indulge. They revile the press fiercely in private conversation, but you find the worst papers in the land on their tables at home, and when, on any public occasion, they are afraid of them or want a "notice" or report, it is well if they do not praise them to the skies

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The anti-machine Republicans, with a fluency which must once more impress Mr. Cornelius N. Bliss as objectionable, have issued another very long address to the public, which was published in full in the *Tribune*. We find in it many revelations of party secrets which have heretofore been regarded as the sacred property of the family circle. In calculating the expense which the new organization, adopted by the Boys at the suggestion of Messrs. Bliss and Root, will entail, the address says it will aggregate $100,000 a year for rentals alone, and about $30,000 more for furnishing. In regard to the headquarters for each of the 1,187 election districts the address speaks in this shocking manner: "There are not enough Republican liquor-saloons to-day to provide for one-fourth of these places; indeed, there are whole Assembly districts where there is not a single Republican saloon-keeper." This is a direct intimation that the Republican liquor-saloon is to be the centre of activity and common meeting-place of the reformed Republican machine. Nothing so startling has been revealed concerning the Republican party since the memorable telegram of the Hon. Shed Shook to the Hon. Whitelaw Reid, sent from Albany a few years ago, while an excise bill was pending, announcing that the bill had been so amended as to "give to Republican saloon-keepers the protection to which they are entitled." The *Tribune* never published that revelation, but it gives full publicity to its fellow now. Scarcely less startling is this slighting allusion to the Union League Club's contributory habits: "Will the Union League respond to the call? It did not raise $2,500 during the last campaign; its contributions to all the State campaigns of late years have been on a par with its efforts last fall." Even more impertinent is the following: "Why are not the voters in the different election districts as competent to handle their affairs as the sleek, well-fed members of the Union League Club?" We refrain from comment on these revelations and queries, following the discreet policy of the *Tribune* towards them, but we should think that the publication of such extremely inharmonious and inflammatory matter in the *Tribune* would impair its editor's standing as a good party man.

The *Forum* for February contains two contributions upon the gold question which are of great interest. In one of them Mr. Edward Atkinson gives the silver advocates and bimetallists several things to think about in their retirement. He points out that international commerce has adjusted itself to a unit or standard of value which is expressed in terms of gold because experience has shown it to be the safest, surest, and best standard attainable, because a unit of gold or its multiples will buy anything anywhere, because it is the only medium by which each and every debt in every civilized country can be liquidated, and because it will be maintained as a standard for the same reasons that brought it into use, without regard to legislation, treaty, or agreement. The folly of the United States departing from such a standard would be incomparable, for, as Mr. Atkinson shows, we are to a greater extent than any other nation the creditor nation of the world. We buy from other countries such articles as we could, to a very large extent, spare. The products which we sell are, almost to the full extent of our exports, products which the world cannot spare. Hence it follows that, having established the prices of our grain, our provisions, our oil, and our cotton upon the gold standard, for which we annually become creditor in such manner that the price of the whole domestic product rests on or is established by the price at which we export our excess, we hold a check payable on demand in gold or its equivalent on every bank or banker in Europe. If now we were to negotiate a bimetallic treaty, giving other nations an option to pay us in gold or silver, at an arbitrary ratio, we should wholly lose the advantage of our position. "We should," says Mr. Atkinson, "throw away our paramount supremacy, because the very essence of a bimetallic act of legal tender is to give the debtor a choice of which the creditor is deprived."

Scarcely less instructive than Mr. Atkinson's article, of which we have given a very incomplete outline, is another in the same *Forum*, from the pen of Mr. J. F. Fraenkel, on the erstwhile absorbing question of a scarcity of gold. Mr. Fraenkel goes over the statistics of gold production in the past, and gives the latest information about the renewed activity in the gold-mining regions of this and other countries, showing very clearly that there is certain to be a large increase in the output of the world for the year just closed and for following years. His estimate for 1893 is $148,000,000, or an increase of $10,000,000 over 1892. The amount of gold available for monetary uses in 1892 was $63,000,000, and Mr. Fraenkel's conclusion is that "it is not impossible that in a few years a quantity of gold not far from $100,000,000" will be available for such uses, adding: "If this should prove true, it would seem futile to speak of an impending scarcity of gold." We have been listening very intently for some weeks, and have not heard anybody prophesying such a calamity.

Although we cannot predict what will be the results of King Milan's sudden and theatrical return to Servia, it is safe to say that they are not likely to be for the good of the country or the peace of Europe. His ex-Majesty is pretty sure to make mischief whenever he has a chance. After long troubles, the Servians were to be congratulated on having got rid of a sovereign whose life, public and private alike, has been shameful, and whose one great merit was his readiness to divest himself of his divine rights and take compensation in hard cash. When one has a few million francs in one's pocket, Paris is doubtless a far pleasanter home than Belgrade, and the society of the Jockey Club more congenial than the eternal squabbles of politicians on the vital question of the ins and the outs. It may be, however, that Milan's money has given out—as has happened to him before—or that Paris is dull this winter; or it may be that he feels his son needs fatherly advice in the midst of confusion which even he can hardly make worse confounded. He has, therefore, gone back to Belgrade, where his chief support seems to be an army that he has led only to disgraceful defeat. Nothing could be more wearisome than recent Servian history, with its ceaseless and senseless cabinet changes; nothing less important in itself. The appalling element in the situation is the fact that the condition of the Eastern question, and of the relations between the great powers, makes it always possible that the antics of some irresponsible person or party may bring on the most terrible war in the history of mankind.

AFTER-PANIC BANKING.

THE comptroller of the currency has published an abstract of the reports made to him by all the national banks in the country on December 19, 1893. These figures are interesting in themselves, because the statements of so large a number of banks—3,787 in this case—give a trustworthy view of the general business situation. But they are still more interesting when compared with last summer's statements, for this comparison shows the real working of the panic on the money depositories, and the not less interesting after-panic accumulation of idle money in the banks.

The combined statement of the national banks in December, 1892, may be called the last which reflects normal conditions. Before the next statement—that of March, 1893—had been compiled, trouble was already in sight, depositors were beginning to hoard money, and interior banks were calling in their Eastern balances. On the 9th of December, 1892, the individual deposits of our national banks aggregated $1,764,456,177. The statement issued nearest to the extreme panic strain was that of July 12. That statement showed the shrinkage in individual deposits to $1,556,761,230. The withdrawal of deposits in the critical distress of August was undoubtedly much heavier; for as late as October 3, the date of the next report, the total of individual deposits remained as low as $1,451,124,330. Although no official figures are obtainable at that date, it may be guessed that in August, before the gold-import movement had fairly begun, the private-deposit fund of all the banks had sunk quite as low as $1,300,000,000.

Last month's statement reports the total holdings on this account at $1,539,399,795, which, it will be observed, is a sum materially smaller than that returned in the middle of last July. It does not, however, by any means follow that the hoarding craze was still in force during December. On the contrary, the actual money reserves of the banks show an amazing increase. A year ago the total coin and paper money held by the national banks was $318,641,595. In July these reserves had sunk to $289,254,850. In August they certainly went much lower. Yet on December 19, 1893, the aggregate was no less than $414,135,407. In other words, during the five months between July and December the net gain in the money holdings of the national banks was fully 70 per cent. Of the gain during this interval, $60,000,000 represents the increase in legal-tender Government notes alone.

Not all this increase in cash holdings of banks since the panic month represents hoarded money now returned to circulation. The fifty millions gold imported from Europe since the opening of August has now found a resting-place in bank reserves. The Government has paid out large amounts—about $41,000,000—since July, chiefly in gold, and between July and November, before the Sherman law's repeal, there was issued $5,000,000 in new Treasury notes. Moreover, the savings banks and trust companies have not only returned their bank deposits withdrawn in the panic months, but have deposited a total balance larger than that of a year ago. The recent January report of the trust companies of this city showed their uninvested cash, much of which is deposited with national banks, to be $30,000,000 greater than at the opening of 1893, and the same is true in a less degree in other cities where the industrial and security markets are idle. It should be remembered, however, that actual hoarding of money by private individuals is the single cause of trust-company withdrawals; so that, allowing $90,000,000 for the inflow of money, these last five months, from Washington and from Europe, there is still left $25,000,000 for the increase from other quarters since last July. This amount is probably not far from the total sum, naturally held in national-bank reserves, which was hidden away in actual cash by hoarders during the panic.

A different cause must be sought for the fact that the total of individual deposits in all the national banks was smaller by $17,000,000 last month than it was in last July. The deposit fund in banks is not only used as a basis for loans, it is also very largely the result of loans. When a bank lends a thousand dollars to a customer, it does so by adding that thousand to the deposit fund inscribed to his credit. He may, of course, withdraw this deposit through checks deposited in other national banks, or even in outside institutions. But, in the long run, increase in loans causes a nearly corresponding increase in deposits.

Now the loan account of the banks, after the panic strain had ceased, showed nothing but continued liquidation. During the panic, loans were fairly maintained by the heavy issue of that emergency bank currency known as clearing-house certificates. The panic over, the cancellation of these certificates began at once, and it was, of course, effected by the calling in of loans. This special motive for contraction ceased when the last loan certificate was retired in November. But trade had by that time fallen completely into its after-panic stagnation, and at the very moment when money began again to roll in to bank reserves, the demand from business borrowers had almost ceased. The total loans and discounts outstanding December 19 last to the credit of the national banks was $151,000,000 less than the total on the 12th of last July. This tells its own story.

A word may be added as to the New York city banks. Under the national-bank act, a country bank, though required to hold in cash 15 per cent. reserve against deposits, may itself at its discretion deposit three-fifths of this reserve with banks in certain large cities named in the statute. Of these "reserve cities" New York is the favorite, because its banks habitually allow to other institutions 2 per cent. on their deposits. During the panic not only were local deposits withdrawn from New York city banks, but the hard-pressed country institutions called back their deposited reserves. As a result, deposits in the New York clearing-house banks sank in August to $370,000,000, or seventy millions less than at the opening of the year. In September the tide turned. Private depositors returned their money to the banks; local institutions followed suit; and finally the interior banks, finding no use at home for their now ample cash reserves, hastened to forward the money for deposit at New York, where it might get the 2 per cent. interest. The result is striking, but hardly profitable to the New York banks. Last Saturday's statement showed that total deposits in our city clearing-house banks had increased $177,000,000 since the August panic season, that the actual money holdings of these banks had increased three-fold, and yet that the loans had increased barely twelve millions. In other words, there is to-day in the banks of New York city a deposit fund of $547,694,400, much of it bearing interest to depositors, and of this sum $129,000,000 is not in use at all.

ONE PHASE OF THE TARIFF.

THE debate in Congress on the Wilson tariff bill on Wednesday week turned in part on the question whether our protected manufacturers sell goods to foreigners at lower rates than to Americans. Upon this Mr. De Witt Warner made some very pointed remarks. Several Republican members having controverted the statements in one of the publications of the Reform Club, Mr. Warner said:

"That pamphlet of the Reform Club was made up under my personal direction, and I stand ready to vouch for every quotation in it, and for the fact that the comparative figures given are for identically the same article, from identically the same lot, the wholesale price, with all discounts deducted. The fact is, that if you go to a store and buy the goods and let the manufacturer deliver them himself aboard the ship, so that he can be sure they are really for export, you get one price, and if you buy the goods to be delivered to you, and therefore, perhaps, to go into the home market, you have to pay a much higher price. For two years I was in correspondence on this matter with agents and dealers all over the world, and there is not a statement in the pamphlet of the correctness of which the documentary evidence was not on file before the book was published. There is not a single figure in it that has ever been successfully refuted, or that any one has ever claimed successfully to have refuted. In very many cases the correctness of the figures is verified by the written confessions of the manufacturers themselves. This sort of business still continues, and it will continue as long as the protective tariff makes it possible."

This phase of the tariff is not in the least a matter for surprise. The Republicans ought to defend the practice instead of denying its existence. Some of them, in former debates, have defended it, saying that it is a gain to the country to sell abroad the surplus of production, even if the profit is very small, since it is a question of little profit or none. This argument is intelligible, and, what is more to the purpose, it conforms to the facts. Take a case lately cited in the *Evening Post* by Mr. A. H. Saxton, a well-known hardware-dealer in this city. The manufacturers of cut tacks have had the American market to themselves for more than half a century, under every kind of a tariff—under the Walker tariff, the Morrill tariff, and the McKinley tariff. They exported their products to Australia and elsewhere as long ago as 1860, and are doing so still. Recently Mr. Saxton had occasion to inquire what were the foreign prices of these goods. He found that the American duties on tacks were equal to 105 per cent. ad valorem, and that the domestic price was within 10 per cent. of what the foreign ones would cost with the duty added, "so that while cut tacks can be exported in competition with the foreign article in the markets of the world, the protective tariff enables the manufacturers to obtain from our own people almost double the price they could otherwise command."

It is needless to multiply illustrations. It is just as certain and inevitable as any other law of trade that the maker of an article who has the domestic market secured to him by the tariff will sell his surplus in foreign markets at any price he can get above the cost of production. Sometimes a tariff is enacted for that express purpose. Such was the outrageous tariff of 1869 on copper and copper ores. Before that law was passed we were exporting copper to European markets in large quantities, and this was notoriously the best copper in the world, and was obtained more cheaply than it could be produced elsewhere. Moreover, the companies producing it on Lake Superior were the richest in the world. For these reasons precisely, and in order to kill certain copper-smelting establishments in Boston and Baltimore, which were working in part on foreign ores, the copper tariff bill of 1869 was passed. It had the intended effect. It killed these smelting establishments, and it enabled the Calumet and Hecla Company to raise their price in the home market to the foreign price plus the tariff and freight. In other words, the company sold copper to Englishmen, Frenchmen, and Germans at five cents per pound less than they charged American consumers for the same article. One of the unexpected results was that some shrewd American dealers bought Lake Superior copper in foreign markets and shipped it back to New York, where it was entered free of duty as an American export returning in the original packages, and was sold at lower prices than the same kind of copper could be obtained for that had never crossed the ocean. This condition of things never caused a blush on the cheeks of the tariff-makers or the beneficiaries. The latter sent an agent to Europe who bought up all of their own copper that could be found in that market, and thereafter refused to sell any there unless they knew that it was to be consumed abroad.

This case is only one of hundreds. It is a little more glaring than others because the copper tariff of 1869 was a bill by itself. It contained nothing else, and hence it drew attention to a single item. It was peculiar also in the avowal made by its advocates that if they did not get what they wanted, they would kick the whole system of protection to the winds. It was peculiar further in the fact that the bill was vetoed by President Johnson and passed over his veto by a two-thirds majority. Aside from these quite extraneous circumstances, it was in no way different from the cases exposed in Mr. Warner's pamphlet or those mentioned in Mr. Saxton's letter. They are "all of a piece." They are as inevitable as the tariff-protected Trusts and combines.

SOCIALISM IN PRACTICE.

A CORRESPONDENT of the *Débats* has been writing some interesting letters from Roubaix, describing the workings of socialism in that place. It is a thriving manufacturing city of 120,000 inhabitants, which in 1892 elected a mayor and Municipal Council of pronounced socialistic views and on a frankly socialistic platform. Their "electoral programme" consisted of fourteen articles, and proposed, among other things, to furnish school-children one meal a day and two suits of clothes a year, to suppress taxes on the necessaries of life, to establish an eight-hours' day with a guarantee of at least a minimum wage; promised free employment bureaus, free medical advice and medicines at cost, free legal advice in "all matters concerning workingmen"; and declared in favor of paying city officers no higher salaries than those received by skilled workmen. On the strength of these proposals and promises the socialist mayor and Council were elected by large majorities, and have now been in control of Roubaix for one year.

What have been the results? It was to answer that question that the correspondent made his inquiries, rightly deeming one concrete case to be worth a thousand dreams on paper. He found that the new era had not got on very far. The socialistic authorities were not finding it so easy to perform as to promise. Certain annoying laws stood in their way, as, for example, those which enabled the prefect of the department to put a summary stop to their plan of having the city furnish free medical and legal advice. They took a sweet revenge on him by refusing to offer him the customary annual dinner, but that did not open their city pharmacies. Then there was the proverbial sobering effect of power, which made the Council willing to put up for a while longer with the miseries of a corrupt society. Some of their schemes they have now abandoned or deferred until public opinion shall be "riper." But the huge expense of applied socialism is what has most staggered them. It is all very well to have a New Jerusalem, but who is going to pay for its gold-paved streets?

However, a beginning has been made, if only to make ready for the next election. The project of feeding and clothing school-children was cautiously carried out in the case of twelve schools and 1,500 children. This cost the municipality $10,000. If the system should be applied throughout the city, according to plan and according to justice, the cost would be, it is estimated, at least $200,000 yearly. As it is, the city expenses for 1893 were more than $30,000 greater than for 1892. Where is the money to come from? From the nature of the case it will not do to increase the taxes on workingmen. But cannot the "bourgeois" be bled? In the first place, it is doubtful if they will quietly submit to the operation, and equally doubtful if taxes can be devised for their special benefit which will not hurt either the pocket or the feelings of some workingman. This was neatly shown in the attempt of the Roubaix Council to levy the *octroi* taxes so as to hit the bourgeois only. Common kinds of cheese were left free, while Brie and Gruyère were taxed. But instantly a great outcry arose from the proletariat. Were they, then, never to have any of the good things of life? Taxing luxuries, forsooth! Why, it is of the very essence of socialism to divide up the luxuries, and not start out this way on the vile capitalistic theory that the poor workingman is never to have his bit of Gruyère! These considerations are proving very embarrassing to the Council.

The personnel of the Council is also worth notice. It is composed of thirty-six members, of whom twenty-eight are saloon-keepers. There are 8,000 saloons in Roubaix, so that it is only fair that they should furnish a goodly number of apostles of the new religion. It is no wonder, either, that they should show a readiness to help themselves to the good things of the Kingdom. The Council has had frequent occasion to take little excursions to various points to study socialistic experiments, and the bills are regularly presented to the city. Thus, they took a trip to Guise recently, and turned in a bill of $40 each; the railroad fare, it may not be without pertinence to remark, is $3. It is only fair to say that

such proceedings have awakened complaints that the Council was showing a dangerous tendency to "s'embourgeoiser," and that a similar reproach has been directed against the mayor for having had his salary increased from $960 to $2,700.

What else could be expected? It is not society that must be changed, but human nature, before any other results can be looked for. Those who say with Mark Pattison that socialism is coming, and is bound to come, distrust and hate it as they may, overlook the fact that human nature has been longer in the world than any social theory, and will stay longer than any social theory not in accordance with it. As Mr. Goschen said in his president's address before the British Economic Association:

"The socialist 'ethical' man is an hypothesis, just as the older economic man was an hypothesis. I am afraid that the one hypothesis will find as little its counterpart in this world of ours as the other hypothesis; and if the economic man is a monster, the ethical man, as pictured by the socialists, is an angel who will not walk upon this terrestrial globe."

JEFFERSON'S NOTES ON VIRGINIA.—I.

BROOKLYN, January 24, 1894.

THE wide reputation and high value that have been accorded to the 'Notes on Virginia' for over one hundred years makes any attempt to praise it at this day little less than a work of supererogation. Its frequent republication is alone testimony sufficient to prove its unusual merit. Aside from its intrinsic value, it is of interest as Jefferson's most serious piece of book-making, and the one on which the larger part of his philosophical reputation was based during his lifetime. It was also, at the time of its production, a notable contribution to American scientific writing, and has been, perhaps, the most frequently reprinted book ever written in the United States south of Mason and Dixon's line. Yet, in spite of this reputation, I have been surprised, in a recent study of the book, to find how little was known concerning its true history, and how important a comparison of the various editions was for a proper use of the book. Some of these facts seem of sufficient value to put in print.

The 'Notes on Virginia' was prepared for the benefit of the French Government, by Jefferson, in 1781. It purported merely to answer a series of questions concerning Virginia which that government was asking of each State of the Union. But after Jefferson had sent his replies to the French minister, he went over his Notes, and elaborated them into a full account of the State, making a work of the utmost value. His friends asked for copies to such an extent that Jefferson concluded to print it, and, when he reached Paris, he had two hundred copies struck off. The printer of the edition has never been known, but is revealed by notes in his diary, for he records on September 13, 1784: "Pd. M. La Marche in part for sheets 1,176f."; and under October 15: "Pd. M. La Marche balance for sheets 69f." A few of these copies Jefferson at once distributed, always writing on the fly-leaf a request that it be considered a confidential communication. At the Columbian Exposition, in the French exhibit, Lafayette's copy of the book was shown, with the following autograph inscription, which is a good type of the others:

"Th. Jefferson begs the Marquis de La Fayette's acceptance of a copy of these Notes. The circumstances under which they were written, and the talents of the writer, will account for their errors and defects. The original was sent to Mr. de Marbois in December, 1781.

"The desire of a friend to possess some of the details they contained occasioned him to revise them in the subsequent winter. The vices however of their original composition were such as to forbid material amendment. He now has a few copies printed with a design of offering them to some of his friends, and to some estimable characters beyond that line. A copy is presented to the Marquis de La Fayette whose services to the American Union in general, and to that member of it particularly which is the subject of these Notes and in that precise point of time too to which they relate, entitle him to this offering.

"To these considerations the writer hopes he may be permitted to add his own personal friendship and esteem for the Marquis. Unwilling to expose these sheets to the public eye the writer begs the favor of the Marquis to put them into the hands of no person on whose care and fidelity he cannot rely to guard them against publication."

Jefferson's reason for such secrecy was due to his severe strictures on slavery and the Constitution of Virginia. He had himself suffered in the party heats of his State, and he knew that he should make himself disliked by the whole "planter interest" by his views on the former, and by Patrick Henry and his partisans by his criticisms of the Constitution. Otherwise he had no wish to withhold its publication, as is shown by a letter of his to Chastellux:

"I am not afraid that you should make any extracts you please for the Journal de Physique which come within their plan of publication. The strictures on slavery and on the constitution of Virginia are not of that kind, and they are the parts which I do not wish to have made public, at least till I know whether their publication would do most harm or good. It is possible that in my own country these strictures might produce an irritation which indispose the people toward the two great objects I have in view, that is the emancipation of their slaves & the settlement of their constitution on a firmer & more permanent basis."

Yet even these criticisms had been toned down by Jefferson before printing. The original proof-sheets of this first edition are preserved in the New York State Library at Albany, and, to show how far Jefferson modified his "first thoughts," the following comparison of what he wrote concerning the action of the Virginia Assembly in 1781 in voting that "40 members be a quorum during the present invasion," and what he printed, is interesting:

PROOF-SHEETS	TEXT OF 1784.
But they might as well have voted that a square inch of linen should be sufficient to make them a shirt, and walk into public view in confidence of being covered by it. Nor would it make the shirt bigger, that they could get no more linen.	But this danger could not authorize them to call that a house which was none; and if they may fix it at one number, they may at another, till it loses its fundamental character of being a representative body. This vote expires with the present invasion, it is probable the former rule will be permitted to revive; because at present no ill is meant.

Jefferson's revision did not end with the proof sheets. As first printed, the text of 1784 advanced his famous theory of shell formations in high mountains, a theory which was greeted with such ridicule by the French press that Jefferson promptly cancelled the three pages that contained it, and had new leaves printed for insertion in their place. He wrote to Carmichael, December 26, 1786:

"My Notes on Virginia having been hastily written, need abundance of corrections. Two or three of these are so material that I am reprinting a few leaves to substitute for the old. As soon as these shall be ready I will beg your acceptance of a copy."

This change was as follows:

CANCELLED LEAVES.	SUBSTITUTE LEAVES.
But such deluges as these will not account for the shells found in the higher lands. Besides the usual process for generating shells by the elaboration of earth and water in animal vessels, may not nature have provided an equivalent operation, by passing the same materials through the pores of calcareous earths and stones? As we see calcareous dropstones generating every day by the percolation of water through limestone, and new marble forming in the quarries from which the old has been taken out, which is said to be the case in the quarries of Italy. Is it more difficult for nature to shoot the calcareous juice into the form of a shell, than other juices in to the forms of Chrystals, plants, animals, according to the construction of the vessels through which they pass? There is a wonder somewhere. Is it greatest on this branch of a dilemma or on that which supposes the creation of such a body of water, and its subsequent annihilation? Have not naturalists already brought themselves to believe much stranger things? Thus, they seriously concur in the opinion that those immense hills and plains of marble to be found in every quarter of the globe, nay the very foundations of the earth itself, which is of limestone in large tracts of this country and probably of others, and has been found here to continue solid to the depth of 200 feet, farther than which we have not penetrated, that these, I say, and all other calcareous bodies are animal remains. M. de Voltaire, who seems first to have suspected that shells might grow unconnected with animal bodies, specifies an instance in a particular place in France which has never yet, as far as I have heard, been disproved or denied.	M. de Voltaire has suggested a third solution of this difficulty. (Quest Encycl. Coquilles.) He cites an instance in Tourraine, where, in the space of eighty years, a particular spot of earth had been twice metamorphosed in to soft stone, which had become hard when employed in building: in this stone, shells of various kinds were produced, discoverable at first only with the microscope, but afterwards growing with the stone. From this fact, I suppose, he would have us infer that besides the usual process for generating shells by the elaboration of earth and water in animal vessels, nature may have provided an equivalent operation, by passing the same materials through the pores of calcareous earths and stones: as we see calcareous dropstones generating every day by percolation of water through limestone, and new marble forming in the quarries from which the old has been taken out; and it might be asked whether it is more difficult for nature to shoot the calcareous juice into the form of a shell than other juices into the form of chrystals, plants, animals, according to the construction of the vessels through which they pass? There is a wonder somewhere. Is it greatest on this branch of the dilemma; on that which supposes the existence of a power of which we have no evidence in any other case; or on the first, which requires us to believe the creation of a body of water, and its subsequent annihilation? The establishment of the instance cited by M. de Voltaire, of the growth of shells unattached to animal bodies would have been that of this theory. But he has not established it. He has not even left it on ground so respectable as to have rendered it an object of enquiry to the literati of his own country. Abandoning this fact, therefore, the three hypotheses are equally unsatisfactory; & we must be contented to acknowledge that this great phenomenon is as yet unsolved. Ignorance is preferable to error: and he is less remote from the truth who believes nothing, than he who believes what is wrong.

Quite as curious is a change Jefferson made in another part of the text of the first edition, in revising it for the edition of 1787—a change which indicates how far the influence of the French theories then germinating into the Revolution, as well as the frightful social condition of France, had developed his democratic theories. This change is made in his paragraph on the government of the American Indians:

TEXT OF 1784.	TEXT OF 1787.
Very possible there may have been anciently three different stocks, each of which multiplying in a long course of time, had separated into so many little societies, the principals of their government being so weak as to give	Very possible there may have been anciently three different stocks, each of which multiplying in a long course of time, had separated into as many little societies. This practice results from the circumstance of their hav-

this liberty to all its members.

ing never submitted themselves to any laws, any coercive power, any shadow of government. Their only controls are their manners, and that moral sense of right and wrong, which, like the sense of tasting and feeling in every man, makes a part of his nature. An offence against these is punished by contempt by exclusion from society, or, where the case is serious, as that of murder, by the individuals whom it concerns. Imperfect as this species of coercion may seem, crimes are very rare among them, insomuch that were it made a question, whether no law, as among the savage Americans, or too much law, as among the civilized Europeans, submits man to the greatest evil, one who has seen both conditions of existence would pronounce it to be the last; and that the sheep are happier of themselves, than under care of the wolves. It will be said, that great societies cannot exist without government. The savages therefore, break them into small ones.

PAUL LEICESTER FORD.

THE ANCIENT COMMONWEALTH OF SAN MARINO.

FLORENCE, December 1, 1893.

As in Plato's time it was a literary fashion to look upon Sparta as the type of a pure and simple government, so in modern Europe it is customary to consider San Marino the sole survivor of the mediæval Italian republics, and a worthy example to degenerate democracy. Padiglione, in his learned 'Dictionary, Bibliographical and Historical, of San Marino,' has collected an anthology of flattering opinions upon his beloved country from more than a hundred writers, ranging from "Adams" to George Sand. I have just finished a long-contemplated visit, intended to test the statement of the great work above cited, that San Marino is "a state for its ancient freedom and observance of laws a model for all civilized nations."

Like Sparta, also, the little republic is first of all distinguished by the difficulty of reaching it. In the spring or fall one might enjoy a beautiful walk thither from Florence across the mountains through Vallombrosa and St. Leo, but at this season the new railway northward from Florence is welcome. On the way one is tempted to philosophize over that Roman love for grandiose building which reappears in Italian railway works: the viaducts are so long and so imposing, the tunnels so frequent, that the inquiry thrusts itself upon the mind whether Italian engineers are not prone to shirk the difficulty of maintaining the permanent way on the soapy slopes of the Apennines by putting it up into the air, or enclosing it in the interior solidity of the mountains. The gnarly backbone of Italy thus penetrated, the road descends more peacefully to Faenza, a town once famous for its majolica, and still showing excellent country earthenware in its market-place. Thence the Bologna-Ancona trunk line leads to Rimini, and so into another world.

It is not of Rimini that I shall write—Rimini, where the bridge and arch of Augustus are fresher and newer than the modern hotel, and yet less ancient than the mediæval palace-castle of the Malatesta, and less pagan in feeling than the beautiful Renaissance cathedral. To the San Marinese, Rimini is only their most convenient point of connection with Italy and the universe. From Rimini the traveller bound to San Marino sees through the vaporous light of the early morning a long dark ridge, some ten miles away, hedging in the upper end of a broad valley which stretches northward. The road, more undulating than is common in Italian mountains, leads past scattered farmhouses, the loopholed walls telling a sufficient story of the former insecurity of the country. As the miles increase, the sky line of Monte Titano takes on a curiously regular serration, with square-edged pinnacles, grouped about three large rectangular masses. After some eight miles a bridge is crossed, and the traveller is out of Italy. As the light carriage ascends the new road, serpentining its way up a range of foot-hills, the mountain begins to resolve itself from a simple wall into a splendid cliff, with capes and bays; and now, on three bastions thrust well forward towards the lower country, distinctly appear three massive towers, each with a pennant—at once the ancient defence of the still-concealed town and the origin of its coat-of-arms—three towers with feathers.

At the foot of the cliff, yet still high above the surrounding country, lies Borgo, where, according to Baedeker, "the wealthier inhabitants" reside; where there is a bank and a theatre, and where one finds, according to the veracious Dehò's 'Guida di San Marino,' "elegant palaces on a small scale, and beautiful shops; . . . a modern citylet furnished with whatever ministers to the needs of life." Here is the first shock to the enthusiastic seeker after historical truth, for Borgo is visibly nothing more than a squalid provincial town, in which dirt and discomfort are distributed with republican impartiality. Still, Borgo is not the capital city. From above its zigzag streets leads a steep paved path, the Costa, winding under the cliff and around the buttress of the mountain, and bending back through a fortified gateway into the lower corner of the town of San Marino.

In situation and first aspect the town is singularly like Assisi; it rests on the gentler slope of Monte Titano, only the fortifications showing on the steep front; and the streets lie one above another, connected by inclines and flights of steps, up to the tiny piazza. A few minutes' observation shows the marked difference between the two towns: here are no towers, no dismantled forts—in a word, no traces of old family strongholds; and here are none of the delightful mediæval or Renaissance buildings which adorn the neighboring cities. No old palaces or guild-halls or churches attract the eye. In situation, in walls, in picturesque streets, the place is mediæval, but in the more elaborate buildings and even in the spirit of the place it is distinctly recent. Houses are going up, a new and easy road sidles around the mountain from Borgo; a good hospital marks the public spirit of the people; the old castle crowning the heights is a tidy prison; the church, of the present century, is spacious and well-planned; a new and stately town hall is nearly finished. In the library of the state are two surprises: a few very excellent pictures by well-known Renaissance artists, and, in the vestibule, a tablet setting forth the gratitude of the republic for an endowment, for the purchase of books, the gift of

"WILLIAM WARREN TUCKER
DI BOSTON."

From the delightful wild garden above the church may be seen the commanding situation of the prosperous little place. It is like no other Italian view with which I am familiar. On all sides are sharp hills, showing little rock exposure, and in the hollows lie unbridled rivers, flowing through broad plains of their own débris. To the north and west rise the Apennines, high but not forbidding. The villages are few; only one other fortified place is visible. Yet it is evidently not its situation which has given its peculiar history to San Marino. Its site is such as Umbrians and Etruscans loved; yet there is no trace of ancient settlement. It is well suited for such a convent fortress as its neighbor, St. Leo, but it has no similar foundation. A mediæval robber-baron would have been happy in such an eyrie, but he never came to take it. The site is in many ways as advantageous for a great commercial city as that of Siena or Perugia, but it never grew rich. From Monte Titano may be seen the low sea-coast near Ravenna; within sight have passed the fleets of Pompeius, Justinian, Bajazet, the Venetian Dandolos, and the Genoese Dorias; yet it was never a maritime place. The armies of Cæsar, Hadrian, Frederick Barbarossa, and Napoleon passed near by, yet none of them made it a stronghold. San Marino is now what it has been for at least ten centuries—a quiet fortified village, the abode, and, if need be, the refuge, of a farming community. From the castle the eye easily follows the frontier line, nowhere more than four miles distant, which includes in its twenty square miles three or four other villages. That line marks the farthest extent of territory which the republic has ever governed, and it has never exceeded in inhabitants the present 8,000.

Between this miniature country and its institutions there is a delicious disproportion. The little area of thin soil has for centuries maintained a complicated government. In the town-hall are tablets dated with such inscriptions as "Onofri et Pasi Consulibus." The archives contain the records of the "Consiglio Principe e Sovrano," and of the "Consiglio dei XII."; of three systems of courts; of the three Secretaryships of the Interior, Finance, and Foreign Affairs; of the Militia and the Guard. There is a national post-office; there is an army of nine hundred and fifty men and eight officers; there are diplomatic agents in Paris and Montevideo, and consuls in various European cities. Services rendered to the State or to science may be rewarded by knighthood, and so late as 1876 San Marino expressed its gratitude to an English lady for her gift of a statue of liberty, by making her Duchess of Acquaviva.

Titles are by no means the most undemocratic part of the republic. On examination it is seen to be in fact an oligarchy. Sovereignty is exercised by the Council of Sixty, the members of which hold for life, and which fills its own vacancies out of the heads of families of the republic. From this council twelve members are chosen semi-annually by lot; from the twelve six are chosen by vote; from the six two are chosen by lot, and they serve for six months as the consuls or "capitani," the executive of the republic. Judges are chosen for three years. In its essential features this is the system of Venice and other mediæval republics; not one in twenty-five of the adult men is possessed of "political rights" as understood in America or in Italy.

Yet an oligarchy among yeoman farmers is a very different thing from an oligarchy among merchant princes. San Marino may be compared with colonial Massachusetts. The few voters have always really represented the mass of the people. It has been a singularly united, courageous, honorable, public-spirited, and

prudent people. Union was possible because it was and is a poor community, in which there were no powerful families to fight and expel each other, or exiles to come back with an enemy's army. The courage of the people is shown by their hospitality to Garibaldi when he was fleeing after his defeat of 1849. An excellent moral fibre was manifested when, in 1868, the Republic refused to receive the gambling establishments which had been made illegal in other countries. The new town-hall is a monument to the enlightened public spirit of the San Marinese, as well as to their taste. That the State is prudent is shown by its distinction, almost unique in Europe, of having no public debt.

Other little states in Europe have had similar good qualities, yet have long since been destroyed. Why has San Marino outlived them all? One obvious reason is that in the fiercest battle one soldier is left alone to tell the tale: San Marino has escaped political destruction as Venice has escaped material destruction, as one among a thousand. Still, my old teacher's explanation "why the oldest walls are the best" is pertinent here: "If they were not the best," said he, "they would not be the oldest." The republic which has records as far back as 885 must have been solidly founded. The perpetuation of the government is due in the first place to a singular freedom from any desire to extend its borders. The outlying villages have been added by gift or by their own free will; and when, in 1797, Gen. Bonaparte invited the San Marinese to make their wishes known, "if any part of the adjacent territory is absolutely necessary to you," the hard-headed leaders declined "an enlargement which might in time compromise their liberty." On the other hand, the poor town had nothing worth plundering, and annexation was so difficult a task that Benedict XIV. said of Cardinal Alberoni's attempt in 1739: "San Marino is a tough bread-crust; the man who tries to bite it gets his teeth broken."

Nevertheless, even peaceful and inoffensive communities were not safe during the last twelve centuries, without powerful protectors. The determining reason for the freedom of San Marino since 1300 has been the friendship of potentates, first of the neighboring Dukes of Urbino, then of the Popes, then of Napoleon, then of Italy. Twice has San Marino been occupied by a foreign power. In 1503 Cæsar Borgia had grasped it, and Julius II. made him loose his hand; in 1739 the Pope overruled the occupation by his own legate, Alberoni. We have already seen what compliments the French lavished during their conquest of Italy in 1797. Napoleon III. later, by gifts of books and civil speeches, testified a like love for republican government—in San Marino.

When the kingdom of Italy was formed in 1860, no one cared to erase from the map a state which even the Pope had spared, and in which Europe was interested. Hence the San Marinese retained a situation comparable with that of the native states in India. A "consolato" of the Italian Government resides in the town; the schools are assimilated to the Italian system; appeals may be had from the courts to the Italian upper courts, and precautions are taken to prevent the harboring of refugee criminals. Yet of the old sovereignty four important incidents are retained. San Marino has a post-office, a kind of national plaything; but the rare and beautiful stamps are much prized by collectors, and doubtless the sale helps the coffers of the state. The San Marinese manage, and well manage, their own local affairs, without any annoying interference from an Italian prefect. They owe no military service to Italy, and their own militia is no burden. Above all, they pay no taxes to Italy. If I were an Italian, I should like to be a San Marinese.

As the interesting day on Monte Titano advanced, clouds began to gather on the distant hills and in the valleys beneath. Reluctantly I descended the steep Costa. As I reached Borgo the mists swept up, blotting out the cliffs and wrapping in deserved obscurity the representative of a fledgling sister republic over the sea, and with him his political philosophy. ALBERT BUSHNELL HART.

DANTE'S VISUAL IMAGES, AND HIS EARLY ILLUSTRATORS.

FLORENCE, December 24, 1893.

MERE learning has perhaps done its very utmost with Dante by this time, and, if the subject is not to become stagnant, it must now be approached from other points of view, and the light of other than merely philological and philosophical erudition must be thrown upon it. Is it not rather extraordinary that thus far it has occurred to only one writer, and that not one of the corps enrolled to write on the subject, but a free-lance such as Vernon Lee is, to ask the question what visual images Dante had while giving his perfectly plastic descriptions of the exterior universe? Few students of Dante stop to wonder what correspondence there can be between his visual images while writing and those called up in our minds while reading him, and they are apt to fancy that the correspondence must be great. But those of us who visualize at all cannot read about Trajan and the Widow, let us say, without seeing an image based on some one or on a whole number of Roman bas-reliefs. Dante could not have had such an acquaintance with the antique as we cannot help having, and his visual image of a scene taking place in Greece or Rome or Judea could have had no great likeness to ours. It could scarcely have been otherwise with the figure of Virgil himself. We cannot help dressing Virgil as a Roman, and giving him a "classical profile" and "statuesque carriage," but Dante's visual image of Virgil was probably no less mediæval, no more based on a critical reconstruction of antiquity, than his entire conception of the Roman poet. Fourteenth-century illustrators make Virgil look like a mediæval scholar, dressed in cap and gown, and there is no reason why Dante's visual image of him should have been other than this.

That Dante had visual images, there can scarcely be a doubt. We have, in proof, besides the unequalled plasticity of all his descriptions, the detailed account in *Purgatorio*, Canto X., of the various reliefs representing acts of humility. These reliefs are simply the descriptions of the visual images called up in Dante's mind by the acts of humility. "To take plastic shape in the mind" has become a common phrase in criticism, but it can have no meaning unless that of *becoming visualized;* and as the phrase is applied to Dante, it means that Dante visualized everything that passed through his mind. Nothing, therefore, could bring us nearer to a knowledge of those contents of Dante's mind of which he was himself aware while writing, than if we could form some conception of his visual images.

Dante himelf gives the clue. On the first anniversary of Beatrice's death, he says in the 'Vita Nuova,' he sat down and drew the figure of an angel. A student of early Tuscan art must know how this angel looked. Dante could not have invented this figure, but, like all amateurs, he drew an angel of the kind his favorite painter would have drawn, and in this instance the painter is Giotto. Dante's angel in all likelihood resembled one of Giotto's such as we see in Assisi, Padua, or Florence; and had Dante gone further and drawn a whole scene—that is to say, exactly rendered as only form and color can render a visual image—its relation to one of Giotto's whole pictures would have been the same. Dante's visual image of the Virtues, of the heavenly hosts, of Christ and the Virgin, of St. Francis, could not have been very different from Giotto's, nor even his image of Beatrice very different from one of the great painter's sleek-faced, almond-eyed, waistless women. Beatrice did not necessarily look like this. The visual image is not the direct impression of the object, but the memory of the impression more or less vague according to the varying powers of visualization; and in a lover of the arts such as Dante was, visualization is largely determined by the works of art with which he is intimately acquainted. It is Giotto whom Dante knew best and loved best, and it is the study of Giotto, therefore, and of kindred painters (some even closer in spirit to Dante, such as Duccio, Simone Martini, and the Lorenzetti) that will enable us to form a clear conception of Dante's visual images.

None of these painters shows trace of direct Dantesque inspiration, and none of them has left what would have been the most valuable of all commentaries on the real Dante, a series of illustrations to the 'Divina Commedia.' But they frequently dealt with subjects fringing on Dante's, and a systematic study of these would be a great help in reconstructing the poet's visual images. Illustrations, moreover, by their followers, the heirs of their conceptions, exist in plenty. After these contemporaries of Dante, no painter at all on a level in genius with him appeared until Signorelli, but by that time visual imagery had changed from mediæval to modern. To a certain extent, the antique had already been critically reconstructed. Still, Signorelli's illustrations in the chapel of S. Brizio at Orvieto have an interest not only as interpretations by a great artist, but as the visual images suggested by Dante to a person much nearer the poet than we are, for the attitude of the Renaissance towards antiquity was still subjective—far less than Dante's, but endlessly more than our own. The Renaissance viewed antiquity not with our feeling of its being for ever past, but with longing and the hope of wholly restoring it to a living present. It is this which gives that fascinating tinge of romance to Renaissance reconstructions of antiquity. Michelangelo's attitude is already quite like our own, and his visual images could give no clue to Dante's; but as interpretations they would be invaluable, for he is the only artist of modern times whose genius was of a kind and of a quality to be compared with Dante's. That a series of illustrations by Michelangelo to the 'Divina Commedia' existed there can be but little doubt, and their loss is one of the greatest the study of Dante has incurred. Botticelli's sketches are scarcely to be considered, for, great as they are as works of art, Botticelli was too subjective to give his illustrations a greater connection with the subject than can be had in lineal rhapsodies. Zuccaro and Stradano, working when the Renaissance was rotten-ripe, far from being a help, are as much in the way as Doré. They were even farther from suspecting the difference between their own and Dante's visual

images. The next great event in the study of Dante will probably be an edition of the 'Commedia' with illustrations chosen from the finest of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, and from the best by Signorelli and Botticelli, supplemented by such parallel conceptions as may be found in Dante's contemporaries, and even in Michelangelo and Tintoretto. The editor of such an edition of the 'Commedia' will find that the ground has been well prepared by Dr. Ludwig Volkmann, in his pamphlet on early illustrations to Dante.*

Dr. Volkmann has examined more than seventy illustrated codices in Germany and Italy, not having extended his studies beyond these countries. France and England would have increased the list considerably. He divides the codices into two classes, those containing illuminations and such as have water-color or lineal illustrations. The *Inferno*, as might have been expected, attracted the greatest number of illustrators, the *Purgatorio* fewer, and the *Paradiso* least of all. Traditional compositions, therefore, as for ecclesiastical subjects, sprang up for the first, while the illustrator of the last had to rely on his own invention. But it seems to have taken a whole generation before illustrators found out what parts of the 'Commedia' they could handle. At first they tried all the cantos.

Illuminated codices contain, as a rule, miniatures for the initial letters only at the beginning of each of the three sections, and these miniatures soon became stereotyped. In the initial of the *Inferno* Dante is represented either at his desk, or with Virgil in the forest. The P of the *Purgatorio* contains either Virgil and Dante sailing up to the Mount, or a picture of souls aflame. The L of the *Paradiso* gives a bust of Christ, the Trinity, or Dante and Beatrice. A few of the illuminated codices contain elaborate and very complete illustrations. Of the fourteenth century, the best of all is one in the Nazionale at Florence, dating from about 1333. Here Minos, Pluto, and Cerberus are represented not as we who have been brought up on Smith's 'Classical Dictionary' think of them, but as creatures with hoofs, claws and horns, and flaming eyes, as Dante in all probability saw them in his mind. A codex in the Angelica at Rome is almost on a level with the one in Florence. Among miniatured codices of later days the most valuable is certainly the one in the Vatican that was begun for Frederic of Urbino by some follower of Giovanni Bellini, and finished at a much later date by some one who was no stranger to Lorenzo Lotto's works. This codex would yield a number of plates for an illustrated edition of Dante.

The great difference between the illustrations in miniature and those in outline or water-color is that the former never represent the same person more than once in the same illustration, while the latter tend to be panoramic, crowding several events in which the same person is concerned into one composition. This, by the way, was a practice common in Italian painting in general. The best of this latter series is a codex in the Marciana at Venice, with 245 large illustrations, for the most part in outline, by an artist who shows great affinities with the Florentines of the Trecento. At the beginning of the *Paradiso* he has represented Dante at the feet of Apollo, who appears here as a young, fair-haired knight fiddling to his heart's content. Most of the other illustrations are equally remote from our own conceptions and probably equally close to Dante's visual images. At Altona there is a valuable codex of about 1400.

The early engravings, such as Baldini's, have small value except as playthings, and the early woodcuts are scarcely better, although they often have inimitable traits of naïveté; but the conceptions of their authors are too infantile to touch Dante at all. The first edition of Dante with woodcuts appeared at Brescia in 1487. Repetitions and improvements of this were published at Venice in 1491, 1493, and 1497. But it is the illustrators of the fourteenth century, and not these late people, who bring us close to Dante's visual image. These scarcely deserve attention. B. Berenson.

*'Bildliche Darstellungen zu Dantes Divina Commedia bis zum Ausgang der Renaissance.' Leipzig; Breitkopf & Härtel, 1892.

Correspondence.

A CORRECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Having seen my name mentioned in your notice of 'Twenty Years at Sea,' I was naturally curious to learn in what connection it was used. The book is in such great demand that it is only now that I have been able to obtain a copy of it. I have read with great surprise the story about the "battle of the hats," for no such affair occurred on board. A few men (not of my company F) may possibly have thrown their hats overboard, but I have no recollection of such a thing. If the author had so chosen, he might have narrated an incident of a much more serious character that *did* occur while we lay at Rio, and which would have given an idea as to the enforcement of discipline among the troops on board very different from that conveyed by his amusing story. Francis J. Lippitt.

Annapolis, Md., January 24.

MADAME KOVALEVSKI.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In this week's issue of the *Nation*, in an account of Miss Klumpke's recent achievement in attaining the degree of Doctor in Mathematical Sciences in Paris, occurs the curiously inaccurate statement that "it is nearly a generation since the French Academy of Sciences, on the report of a commission of men, awarded one of its highest prizes to *Miss* Kovalevski for her valuable contributions to the science of astronomy," and later that "a similar though somewhat more definite honor has been conferred on an American student," etc.

As a matter of fact, it is just five years (December 24, 1888) since the Prix Bordin was awarded to Mme. Sophie Kovalevski, then professor of mathematics at the University of Stockholm, while at that very time Miss Klumpke was making observations at the Paris Observatory. Such an achievement should hardly be forgotten so soon, and I may perhaps be pardoned for saying, without wishing in the least to disparage Miss Klumpke's success, of which we as Americans may well be proud, that Mme. Kovalevski's memoir was the product of the mature mind of a mathematician of the first order, and is hardly to be compared with a doctor's thesis, however clever. It was a contribution to pure mathematics rather than to astronomy, and it may be seen that the honor conferred could hardly have been more "definite" when we consider that the Prix Bordin, the second in the list of fifty-nine prizes conferred by the Academy in that year, was specially raised from 3,000 to 5,000 francs, on account of the high quality of the memoir. The committee, in unanimously recommending the memoir which was found to be Mme. Kovalevski's, said:

"L'auteur ne s'est pas contenté d'ajouter ainsi un résultat du plus haut intérêt à ceux qui nous ont été transmis sur ce sujet par Euler et par Lagrange; il a fait de la découverte que nous lui devons une étude approfondie dans laquelle sont employées toutes les ressources de la théorie moderne des fonctions. . . . La Commission émet le vœu que le mémoire couronné soit imprimé dans le Receuil des Mémoires des Savants étrangers."

It seems rather remarkable that this gifted woman, for whom a professorship was created in the University of Stockholm, should have been refused election to the Swedish Royal Academy of Sciences because she was a woman. There lies before the writer a copy of the motion of Prof. Mittag-Leffler, that the word "män" in the constitution of the Academy should be replaced by the word "personer," together with his forcible advocacy of the claims of Mme. Kovalevski to election. Although conservatism won, it has since been recognized that in the premature death of Mme. Kovalevski not only did the world lose one of its most remarkable women, but mathematical science one of its leading exponents, without regard to sex.

Let us be thankful that in Paris at least brains are recognized as brains, whether male or female. How long shall we wait before such is the case in this progressive country? While in Paris, Russian or American, man or woman, may become a doctor if he show the necessary attainments, here a petition must be handed around that Harvard shall allow women who have done the work to receive a real Harvard *A.B.* Harvard is not the only American university that lets women in at the back door. What answer is made to them if perchance they seek a doctor's degree?—Respectfully,

Arthur Gordon Webster.

Worcester, Mass., January 27, 1894.

[The source of our confusion may be discovered in the fact that Miss Corvin-Krukovski (Mme. Kovalevski) won her philosophical doctorate at Göttingen in 1874, at the age of twenty-one.—Ed. Nation.]

DESCENDANTS OF CROMWELL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: When a literary fact lies open to all the world and is apparently overlooked by all the world, one feels the same reluctance to call attention to it which he would to pick up a purse on a crowded sidewalk. If there is anything in it, how did it happen to be left for him? But my own curiosity in this case overpowers my hesitation. I have seen floating through the press for some weeks, and I find noted in your last issue, what is said to be the hitherto unknown fact that a descendant of Cromwell was living till lately—Mrs. Bush, who died in November. But in the preface to 'The Fall of the Monarchy of Charles I.,' published in 1882, Prof. Samuel R. Gardiner says that he is himself a descendant of Cromwell and Ireton. This has always been highly interesting to me as an instance of transmitted genius, though, as so often happens, in a different line; and I am sincerely concerned to know why the press, both of England and America, have unani-

monsly ignored it in this discussion. Has Prof. Gardiner since disclaimed the genealogy, or have others disproved it? If true (and I at least have seen no contradiction of it), it is far more important than the case of a dead lady of no account.

I ask without dogmatism, simply to learn the truth. F. M.

HARTFORD, January 26, 1894.

A CLERGYMAN'S QUALIFICATIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your generalizations in criticism of Mr. Royce in the *Nation* of January 25 do not coincide with what I have learned from my observation, which to be sure is limited. It seems to me that churches do not get, as a rule, men who are essentially "society" men. A very superficial glance shows us that the majority of theological students do not come from that class of families who consider the social amenities important. So, whatever may be the demand for clergymen with social qualities, and however successful a few churches may be in getting such, it is certainly true that the average church does not have the opportunity to choose a pastor from among those who are perfectly at ease in the parlor. At the same time it is evident that the majority of clergymen, however trained in early life, do, from the nature of their position, acquire a certain ease of manner—in the sitting-room, if not in the parlor.

What is demanded is that the clergyman of to-day be a "pastor" as well as a preacher, and this is only a juster way of putting your position. People do require that a minister shall not confine his efforts to the study. If he does that, he is criticised as not being a good "pastor." The experience of the clergyman whom you quote in the last part of your editorial does not seem to me common enough to warrant your generalization. The pastor is, however, expected to make calls, especially on the sick, and adds to his popularity, and may add to his usefulness, if he shows himself willing and able to talk with his parishioners on topics in which they are interested. More personal work is expected of the clergy than formerly, but if this work is of the perfunctory, superficial sort, his people are not satisfied. Men desire in the man at the head of the church some one a little better than they, and one who from his character and ability appeals to their better selves. It is their misfortune that they are not always able to get such men.

You are right when you speak of the importance of executive talent. As the church has seen the necessity of extending its functions on account of the growth of the cities and the desire to reach out more widely, the need of organization has been made apparent. In these respects there has been a transformation. Yet the principal quality still demanded in a minister is that he shall be a good preacher, and the quarrel with Mr. Royce ought to narrow itself down to the question: What, in the eyes of church attendants, is a good preacher? One of the most popular and admired ministers in a certain city of one hundred thousand or more, is notably awkward and lacking in the social amenities; another, in a city of about the same size but of a very different sort, is criticised for his lack of social qualities, but he probably gets the largest salary of any minister in the city, with perhaps one exception. H.

JANUARY 26, 1894.

PROFIT AND INTEREST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of December 28, 1893, p. 491, you quote: "This conduct [abstinence] of which profit is the reward has no name simply because it has no existence"; but in your just strictures on Mr. Cannan's attitude, you silently correct this by saying: "Now, the proposition that interest is the reward of abstinence, etc." Mill's analysis of profit may be supplemented and extended, but can it be disregarded by any one who thinks about such matters, even if it is brushed aside by some who write? Minor differences are naturally of slight importance when profits themselves are to be swept away. There are no wages of superintendence, no compensation for risk, no remuneration for abstinence, in the books of those who are elaborating the political economy of the future. All men are going to be disinterested and intelligent; and, as a consequence, one may hope, willing and able to state their predecessors' opinions correctly. Is not this likely to be, to the socialist State, a source of danger that has been unnoticed hitherto by those who are intent on promoting the intelligence of future ages? Mill himself says:

"Strange that when the greatest embarrassment felt by all who have any considerable number of thoughts to express, is to find a sufficient variety of precise words fitted to express them, there should be no practice to which even scientific writers are more addicted than that of taking valuable words to express ideas which are sufficiently expressed by other words already appropriated to them."

A. I.

NEW BEDFORD, January 24, 1894.

THE MEDICAL ADVERTISEMENT ABOMINATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Many of your readers besides myself must have felt an agreeable emotion run through them when they saw the note in your last week's paper describing the new Society for the Regulation of Advertising in Public Places in England. Even here we may then hope, if the English agitation succeeds. But pending the possible restriction hereafter of open-air placards and inscriptions, it seems to me that the time is already quite ripe to begin to take action in our several States concerning a form of advertisement from which America suffers as no other country ever has been or ever will be cursed. I refer to the medical advertisements in our newspapers. Since nothing important can be accomplished nowadays without the formation of a "society" to carry on the agitation, will not some persons of public spirit, aggressive character, and organizing faculty, form a national association, which should have branches in all the States, for forcing their legislators to impose limits on this truly hideous feature of our latter-day life? Every product of social evolution inevitably proceeds to excesses until it has to be regulated by law for the better protection of the individual. Electric wires are the last case in point; cannot medical advertisements be the next? Their evolution has gone on with ever-accelerated velocity, invention succeeding invention, and discovery following on the heels of discovery as to their susceptibility of wider elaboration, and as to their money-bringing power, until now they literally form the principal feature of our provincial newspapers, and in many of the "great dailies" of our cities play a part second only to the collective display of suicides, murders, seductions, fights, and rapes; while thousands of shameless persons are reputed to add materially to their incomes by selling for publication their portraits with descriptions, sincere or insincere, of their pretended cures.

It seems as if no acuter instance could be found of the way in which, in our country, private greed is suffered to override the public good. For if a justification of these advertisements be sought, absolutely nothing can be alleged save the claim that every individual has a right to get rich along the lines of his own inventiveness, or of that of the cynical literary geniuses whom he may employ. The essays, the anecdotes, the elaborate accounts of symptoms, the portraits of sufferers, are a direct attack of the most efficacious sort upon the public health. They are meant to be such an attack; they have no other conceivable aim or intention than to produce panic, to beget in susceptible readers, by their incessant repetition, the fixed idea and apprehension of disease. Such fixed ideas and apprehensions are among the most potent morbific agents known; and the amount of hypochondriacal misery and actual disease caused by these suggestions would certainly, if it could be measured, prove almost incredibly great. The way in which a certain "kidney" nostrum, which played a pioneer's part in the evolution of these advertisements, was worked, was truly diabolical, and has hardly been rivalled since. And the advertisers have cut themselves off from replying that the reader has his protection in his own hands, for "no one need read these advertisements unless he will," since they have arranged that he shall read them whether he will or no, by their ingenious system of misleading headlines and sham introductions, that begin with something educational or literary and end with liver, nerves, or blood. We buy our newspapers because we need them for other reasons. We find every alternate column beginning with a "scare-head" that suggests momentous news, and we presently discover, coördinated with perhaps a change of ministry in England, the annexation of Hawaii, or the passage of a tariff bill, accounts of Mr. Mingo's kidneys, Mr. Hawkshaw's bronchi, or Mrs. Hecla's skin—on which the grotesque pictures of the sufferers set the seal. Like Ulysses, these worthies have become a part of all that we have met; and all experience is an arch where-through their entrails gleam as it were iridescently upon us, until the world looms to our imagination in a sort of catarrhal vapor, or as if bathed in a cancerous and hæmorrhoidal mist. Such is the education of our young people, and such the indecency of the background, or rather of the foreground, in the full sight of which we all are forced to live.

The evil is increasing with formidable rapidity. It has grown greatly in the past two years. I returned home last September after living fifteen months in countries where most matters here so articulate have not yet found a voice, and I remember that the first sight I got of the Boston *Herald* on the steamer-wharf made me involuntarily jerk back my head and catch my breath, as if a bucket of slops had suddenly been thrown into my face. How much farther the nuisance will go unless legislatively interfered with, it is impossible to predict. It may be a somewhat delicate matter to frame just the right bill, but it seems as if it must in any case be based on a restriction of the amount of space which a medical advertisement shall be permitted to take. In a limited number of lines, details of disease and panicky suggestions cannot be introduced. Being public enemies as deliberate and intentional as they are venomous, the authors of

those advertisements should be treated as public enemies and have no mercy shown. The first steps towards such a society for agitation as I propose might well be made by the medical societies of the several States. The power of ideas over bodily conditions is now so solidly established as a fact, and the doctors have so honorably shown themselves in the character of preventers as well as in that of curers of disease, and are so well recognized as disinterested guardians of the public health, that they need have no fear, when the inevitable cry of professional rivalry and persecution goes up from those whose gains are menaced, that the community will take it up. *Some* day, through *some one's* exertion, the thing is sure to be brought to a stop. It is as certain as anything can be that a generation will come after ours, so conscious of spiritual forces and of health as a public ideal, that when, in the chamber of horrors of their historic museum, they look upon a newspaper of our day, framed upon the wall to show the régime under which our generation lived, they will refuse to believe their eyes, and will consider such a license given to private rapacity as something incredible that never could have been.—I am, sir, truly yours,

WILLIAM JAMES.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., January 22, 1894.

[Prof. James will be glad to learn of the existence of a New York "Act for the more effectual prevention of wanton and malicious mischief, and to prevent the defacement of natural scenery."—ED. NATION.]

THE WHITE CITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There has been some discussion during the past year as to whom is due the honor of having first applied the term "White City" to the World's Columbian Exposition at Chicago. As in Bach men discover, patent or latent, all forms of modern music, so in Emerson all modern ideas seem to be anticipated. Thus, in Emerson's lecture on "The Conservative," delivered in December, 1841, I find the following passage, one clause of which (I venture to italicize it) evidently has a prophetic claim to the priority of the disputed honor: .

"For man is the end of Nature; nothing so easily organizes itself in every part of the universe as he; no moss, no lichen, is so easily born; and he takes along with him and puts out from himself the whole apparatus of society and condition *ex tempore*, as an army encamps in a desert, and, *where all was just now blowing sand, creates a white city in an hour*, a government, a market, a place for feasting, for conversation, and for love." N. H. D.

JAMAICA PLAIN, MASS., January 22, 1894.

"TOTE."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In Lorenzo Dow's 'Journal,' third edition, Philadelphia, 1816, the Southern word "tote" is used in a manner which may indicate its original meaning; hence this communication. At page 173, describing his adventures in Georgia, in the year 1803, Lorenzo says: "I preached in George-town, and set out at eight at night for Augusta; and travelling nearly all night, I came to a camp where some negroes were *toting** tobacco to market." The italics and asterisk are Lorenzo's, and at the bottom of page 174 is the note:

"*The mode of toting tobacco to market is by rolling it in casks, with a wooden axle through the midst, on the ends of which are fastened the shafts for the horse to draw it by; 15 or 16 hundred weight may thus be pressed and carried to market."

As Lorenzo prints the word toting in italics, and adds the meaning in a footnote, it is not unlikely that the word "tote" originally meant this method of hauling tobacco. This is an illustration of the early use of the word in this country which may interest philologists.

F. E. M.

Notes.

THE well-known librarian, Mr. J. N. Larned of Buffalo, President of the American Library Association, has compiled a 'History for Ready Reference,' from the best historians, biographers, and specialists, in their own words. The work possesses a universal character, and is to be published by subscription through the C. A. Nichols Co., Springfield, Mass.; the first of the five volumes is on the eve of appearing. Precise references for all the passages quoted and topics treated will make this History a virtual index to a "select library of ten or twelve thousand volumes." Original historical maps, colored charts, tables of contemporaneous events, and "such a collection of the historical documents of the past and present as the reader may look for in vain elsewhere," are some of the promised attractions of this novel enterprise.

The second volume of Taine's 'Modern Régime' will soon be issued by Henry Holt & Co.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will publish immediately 'Ships that Pass in the Night,' a novel by Beatrice Harraden. They further announce 'Newton Booth of California: His Speeches and Addresses,' edited by Lauren E. Crane; 'Primary Elections; A Study of Methods for Improving the Basis of Party Organization,' by Daniel S. Remsen; and 'The Evolution of Woman: An Inquiry into the Dogma of her Inferiority to Man,' by Mrs. Eliza Burt Gamble.

'James Gilmour and His Boys,' by Richard Lovett, M.A., author of 'James Gilmour of Mongolia: His Letters, Diaries, etc.,' will soon be issued by the Fleming H. Revell Co. It is composed principally of letters from Gilmour to his two young sons while they were at school in England. Many of the letters are to be given in facsimile, and the whole will constitute a quaint and very touching work.

'Marcella' is the title of Mrs. Humphry Ward's forthcoming novel, to be issued by Macmillan & Co., who have also in press 'A Course in Experimental Psychology,' by Prof. J. McKeen Cattell of Columbia College.

Prof. Charles W. Shields of Princeton has written and read publicly on several occasions an essay on the four articles of church unity proposed by the American House of Bishops and the Lambeth Conference. The Scribners will issue it under the title of 'The Historic Episcopate.'

Any one who desires copies, in good print, of Magna Charta, the Declaration of Independence, and the Mecklenburg Resolves, may be recommended to procure the handsome volume, 'The Sons of the American Revolution: New York State Society, 1893-94,' prepared by Edward Hagaman Hall, historian and registrar of that society. He will find, thrown in, a roll of the members, with brief biographical sketches, sometimes of decided interest, accompanied by portraits, views, and facsimiles in many styles of art. There is an index to the Revolutionary ancestors mentioned, but no conspectus of the membership.

At the instance of Dr. Wm. Seward Webb, the correspondence and journals of his grandfather, Samuel Blachley Webb, an officer and prisoner of the Revolution, have been collected and edited by Worthington C. Ford, in three volumes, royal octavo. Col. Webb's part in the first exchange of prisoners as well as in the subsequent negotiations for a general exchange gives prominence and importance to this subject, while the value of his correspondence is attested by his connection with Silas Deane, Gen. Putnam, and Washington. The work is rich in portrait illustrations of a high grade. One hundred of the 350 sets printed are offered for sale to the public through Charles H. Burnett, 51 E. 44th St., N. Y.

One has often to observe a sensuous motive in the publications by bibliophiles, singly or associated, for bibliophiles, both in France and out of it; and this motive is suggested by the new-old edition of D. G. Rossetti's 'House of Life' which the young firm of Copeland & Day, Boston, bring out in a very handsome manner, and, as they say, "in its [1870] innocence and perfection." For various reasons, however, these sonnets and lyrics may be prized and enjoyed, and we do not say they are not worthy of so much typographic painstaking. The full-faced letter may be read without glasses, and harmonizes well with the floreated initials; but the affectation of giving no indention to overlapping lines makes an impediment to understanding and remembrance, of the sonnets particularly. The printer's colophon is an excellent device, and the publishers' mark is also to be praised as a design and for its use; but had it been reduced in scale we think we should have liked it better.

'The Centenary of Louisville' is the eighth of the luxurious quarto publications of the Filson Club of that city (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.). This historical essay by the president, Mr. Reuben T. Durrett, was read in 1880 before the Southern Historical Association, but was printed only in an abbreviated form. It is now expanded with notes and appendices, and forms a starting-point for the municipal history. There are portraits of the author, of La Salle, and of Gen. George Rogers Clark, the founder of the city. Mr. Durrett argues in favor of the year 1669 as the date of La Salle's visit to the Falls of the Ohio, but with a convenient assumption of low water and high water to suit the hypothesis; and he very positively assigns by conjecture to La Salle the famous iron hatchet unearthed at Shippingport in 1808 beneath the trunk of a sycamore tree, whose rings he diminishes in number in order to settle in his way the antiquarian dispute over the provenance of the tool.

The thin volume, 'Bills of Mortality, 1810–1849, City of Boston,' issued towards the close of last year from the Registry Department, is chiefly important as making accessible the mortuary records for the period in question originally published as official broadsides and then copied into the daily press. The main interest, however, lies in the reprint of Lemuel Shattuck's 'Essay on the Vital Statistics of Boston from 1810 to 1841,' which Mr. Whitmore, the Registrar, has wisely prefixed to the burial tables. This essay may still be read with profit; its historical scope in the matters of growth of population and epidemic diseases embraces early colonial days. The chapters on white and colored mortality, on the preponderance of females, on still-births, on infant mortality, on the effect of seasons on mortality, and seriatim on the causes of death, are curious and valuable in the light of the present day. Scarlet fever was first intro-

duced into Boston in 1735, and in that and the following year 4,000 persons were sick with it, and one in thirty-five died. In 1792 Boston had about 18,000 inhabitants, of whom 10,655 were supposed to have had the smallpox when that scourge reappeared. All the rest took it except 262 who got out of town, and 221 who proved not susceptible to it.

The lectures and papers which form the subject of the volume entitled 'The Inventions, Researches, and Writings of Nikola Tesla,' by Thomas C. Martin (New York: the *Electrical Engineer*), represent the work of a young Servian electrical engineer now well known in this country as well as in Europe. Mr. Martin has played the part of a Boswell to the author, and is by no means behind his prototype in admiration for his subject. The work consists of four parts—on polyphase currents; Tesla effects with high-frequency and high-potential currents; miscellaneous inventions and writings; early phase motors and the Tesla oscillators. The second part, on currents of high frequency and high potential, is the one which has chiefly attracted public attention, and which seems to promise most for the future. The other parts relate mainly to motors of the kind known as alternators. While the work contains much that is original and suggestive, there is a general want of completeness about results. The experiments on currents of high frequency and potential were interesting and brilliant, but, so far as we can discover, have up to the present time led to nothing. The other papers are mostly made up of suggestions more or less ingenious, but, we believe, leading as yet to nothing definite. In the case of any scientific invention we need descriptions of apparatus actually constructed and used, and we want perfectly definite and reliable statements about the results obtained. We do not find them in the work before us, or at least to any but a small extent. Meantime, it is only fair to Mr. Tesla to say that much is expected from him, and that his own statements about his work are modest and unassuming.

Nearly fourteen years ago we noticed the second volume of Dr. Friedrich Ratzel's 'Die Vereinigten Staaten von Nord-Amerika,' a laborious and on the whole important work for the information of the author's countrymen. This second part, which he then entitled "Culturgeographie, unter besonderer Berücksichtichung der wirthschaftlichen Verhältnisse," he has worked over very thoroughly in the light of the last census, and now more curtly styles it "Politische und Wirthschafts-Geographie" (Munich: R. Oldenbourg). The scheme is substantially unchanged, but the strictly geographical section has been greatly developed, and under Population our negro problem has been distinctly set forth, especially in view of Mr. Bryce's having left it on one side, thus making, says Prof. Ratzel, "the impression not so much of a breach in his edifice as the absence of an entire wall." The author's good will to this country continues to be manifested, and American women will be gratified by what he has to say of their good looks, amiability, and ambition for culture, and the knightly courtesy shown to them by the other sex. He acknowledges assistance from many prominent American scholars and officials, and gives evidence of having followed closely the periodic press of the United States, if not always with a native's discrimination among his authorities. In addition to a few charts in the text (in Roman characters, by the way), there is a colored map of the United States ingeniously contrived to exhibit a variety of the larger factors in our civilization. And to the two fold praise of a German be it said that there is an index as well as a table of contents.

The annual report of the Geological Survey of Canada for 1890–91, recently issued under the direction of Dr. Selwyn, consists of two heavy volumes with a package of maps. Explorations in the interior of the vast Canadian territory occupy a large number of pages, to which students of that little-known country should turn. The subject of perhaps the most general interest to geologists in this country is the account of the superposition of the Trenton limestone on the smooth surface of the Laurentian gneiss. An excellent photographic plate illustrates this remarkable memorial of an ancient land surface submerged beneath a hardly less ancient limestone-making sea. The report for 1888–89 may be referred to as containing a graphic description of the breaking up of the ice on one of the northward flowing rivers, the Liard, whose headwaters feel the influence of advancing spring while winter still lingers further down its course.

'Certain Climatic Features of the Two Dakotas' is the title of a large monographic report by Lieut. J. P. Finley of the Weather Bureau, called for by a resolution of Senator Pettigrew in 1892. Although prepared in the same year, its imprint is 1893. It is chiefly concerned with the droughts from which the Dakotan farmers have already suffered severely; the loss thus caused in 1887 and 1888 being estimated at $25,000,000 a year. The conclusion reached is, that while deficiency of precipitation is the first cause of droughts, the activity of the hot southerly winds, by which the ground is dried up, is an important second cause. Wind-breaks of trees are therefore recommended, and extensive irrigation is regarded as essential. It is implied that the forests on the Black Hills influence the precipitation there, although no demonstration of this very doubtful conclusion is offered. Tree-planting in the Dakotas must, however, be very useful in checking the winds close to the ground and thus diminishing evaporation.

The topographical survey of Connecticut, executed under the joint control of the U. S. Geological Survey and a local State commission, includes some thirty contoured sheets on a scale of about one mile to an inch (1:62,500). Another map of the whole State on two large sheets on a scale of about two miles to an inch (1:125,000) has just been prepared by the Geological Survey, with contours for every hundred feet of height. Although not on the same scale or in the same style as the reduced maps of New Jersey, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island, this two-sheet map of Connecticut makes a worthy member of the State-map series. It is printed in three colors: contours in brown, water in blue, and roads, boundaries, and names in black. The double-lining of the roads on a map of this scale does not seem desirable, as it gives them an undue prominence. Single black lines would be as easily understood, and would distract the eye less from the physical features expressed by the brown-contour lines and the blue streams, which certainly deserve the first emphasis in a topographical map.

Mr. Wm. Morris Davis, Professor of Physical Geography in Harvard University, is lecturing to the teachers of Rhode Island on the fundamental principles of this subject, drawing his illustrations from the State map, or from countries whose natural features are similar to those of Rhode Island or contrasting with them, etc.—instruction which must certainly make itself felt beneficially in the teaching of geography in the public schools.

The opening article of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for November is taken from a Russian official report upon the distribution of amber throughout the empire. From the accompanying map this deposit appears to be chiefly confined to a belt of country running northwest and southeast not far from the western frontier, though it is also found in the Caucasus, in Siberia, and at several places on the shores of the White Sea and Arctic Ocean. There are continuations of the accounts of the lakes of Celebes and the pampas of Argentina, together with a notice of Sir Thomas Elder's Australian exploring expedition of 1891-92, with a map. The December number contains an article on the distribution of the extremes of heat over the globe, with three charts showing the lines of equal maximum and minimum temperature and the mean absolute variations. There is also an interesting account of observations made in the ice-cave of Szilicze in Hungary, with a reasonable and simple explanation of its peculiar phenomena.

The London *Times* publishes a very suggestive paper read before the Colonial Institute by Miss Flora L. Shaw on the Australian outlook. The editorial comment upon it discloses the fact that this lady was the writer of the remarkable series of letters to the *Times* from the Cape and from Australia which have been published separately and have been favorably noticed in these columns. They were characterized by great descriptive power, clear statement of facts, and intelligent grasp of the subjects treated, whether political or industrial. The same qualities are displayed in this paper, in which Miss Shaw emphasizes the fact that there are two Australias—the temperate and the tropical—each with life, commerce, labor, and hence politics, cast in a different mould. In an interesting passage upon the fruit and wine industry of the south, she says that one of the most striking movements that are to be observed is the "tendency to place upon the land a higher class of intelligence than has ever before been associated with agricultural pursuits"; while in regard to the sugar plantations of the north she does not hesitate to say "that in no country which I have yet visited in any quarter of the globe is the manual laborer so well provided for, so liberally paid, or so carefully safeguarded from oppression, as the South Sea Islander employed in Queensland." The great needs of both sections of the continent are population to develop its marvellous agricultural and mineral wealth, and more and closer channels of communication between the separate colonies themselves as well as with the mother country.

From the table in the *Publishers' Circular* of the English publications for the past year it appears that there was a slight increase over the numbers for the previous year. The various classes of books are, however, not represented in a similar manner. There was a marked falling off, for instance, in theological works, novels, works on political and social economy, the arts, education and medicine. In juveniles there was an extraordinary increase as well as in miscellaneous works, while travels, history, and poetry show but slight relative changes.

—Senatorial courtesy is receiving an extension in many directions. There have just been issued as Senate Misc. Doc. No. 14 two addresses by Hon. James W. Savage (not a member of Congress), on Nebraskan history, delivered before the Nebraska Historical Society in 1880

and 1885. An examination of these addresses fails to show any good reason why the United States Senate should print them, and, in point of time, something fresher might have been obtained if the Senate is going into the business of printing historical addresses of purely local interest. This issue was made on a resolution introduced by Senator Manderson, on December 11, 1893, that "the usual number of the pamphlets," etc., be printed "for the use of the Senate." The issue is certainly unusual, and introduces a practice that should be condemned from the start. Another questionable use of the franking privilege is making the wrapper serve to advertise political doctrine. The law provides that the words "Part of *Cong. Record*" be used on the wrapper of Congressional speeches; but what can be said of this?

PUBLIC DOCUMENT.

United States Senate.

Part of Cong. Record.

Maintenance of the Protective System Necessary to Secure National and Individual Prosperity.

Speech of
HON. J. N. DOLPH.
In the Senate, Dec. 18, 1893.

FREE.

Some enterprising tradesman may use the space for advertising his own wares.

—Time, according to the latest (ninth) published report (1891-'92) of the United States Civil-Service Commission, has brought about a decided increase in the chances for women who wish to enter the public service. The civil-service law practically went into effect in 1883; the report for 1884 stated that while the "law" made no distinction on account of sex, the "appointing power" had thus far used its discretion in the selection from the list of eligibles of less than one-sixth as many women as men, although a larger proportion of female than male competitors passed. During the fiscal year 1890-'91, 147 women were appointed to the classified departmental service (exclusive of 122 printer's assistants in the Bureau of Printing and Engraving); during the same period 776 men were appointed, or a proportion of women to men of somewhat less than 1 to 5. In the year 1891-'92 (the period covered by the present report) the number of women appointed in corresponding departments was 86, and of men 245, showing a proportion of women to men of a little more than 1 in 3, a very decided gain for women. While the Commission naïvely expresses itself as unable to account for this change of animus on the part of the appointing powers, it comments on the fact as one of general interest, and suggests that it "probably shows that the prejudice which has heretofore existed to some extent against the appointment of women to the classified service is gradually disappearing." When, however, the lists and tables of promotions are scrutinized, we feel that the mystery is partly explained. By executive order, December, 1891, promotions were put on the basis of the efficiency records kept in the departments and the close competitive tests which have supplemented these records; these "show that when women in the public service have a fair and even chance with the men they win their full share of the more lucrative and responsible positions; . . . it has been noticed that this is especially true with reference to those who have come into the service through the competitive examinations of the Commission."

—That the extension of the merit system is the main explanation of the remarkable increase in the number of women appointed and promoted in the classified civil service is disclosed by the elaborate tables incorporated in this report. At the civil-service examinations throughout the country a higher general average of marks is secured by women than by men, except in the more difficult technical examinations, where as a rule women do not compete—"when they do, the showing is decidedly in favor of the men." The earlier reports of the Commission did not always indicate the sex of competitors, but a table has been prepared which gives the ratio of women to the whole number examined, as well as their ratio to the whole number who passed the examinations for different branches of the service, from January, 1886, to June 30, 1892. We find that whereas the women were only 12 per cent. of the number examined, over 77 per cent. of women passed as against some 60 per cent. of the men. The men's record is improved, however (the general proportion being raised to 62 per cent.), if we add the examinations for the railway mail service, for which women are ineligible. About 69 per cent. pass of those who are examined for this branch of the postal service, not classified until 1889, and whose record since then may be cited as a typical instance of the value of reform. Indeed, within a few weeks the chairman of the Commission has stated to the President that the classification of the railway mail service "acted like magic in putting a nearly complete stop to changes for partisan reasons," and secured for 1893 "the complete absence of the unseemly exhibitions which accompanied the wholesale removal of railway mail clerks in 1889."

—It seems not inappropriate to mention in connection with these gains for women corresponding recognition of the rights of negro citizens, which the report also enumerates. Previous to the Harrison Administration there had never been a colored woman employed as a printer's assistant in the Bureau of Engraving and Printing; the first one was certified in February, 1890. Up to 1889 there was but one colored clerk in the Treasury Department. Since that time there have come into the Auditor's Department five colored clerks and a colored chief clerk, with a salary of $2,000. Of these, four have been promoted in grade and salary since first appointed. The Treasury has also two negro immigrant inspectors and a chief of division. In the Interior Department the Recorder of the General Land Office is a colored man at a salary of $2,000. There were employed at the end of 1892 in the executive departments and other branches of the Government service in Washington 2,393 colored people, whose annual salaries aggregated $1,370,623.98. Apparently merit has become an "open sesame" to two classes of citizens alike—those politically or socially disqualified by sex or by color.

—Miss Margaret Lee of St. Hugh's Hall, Oxford, has done a real service to students of the English drama by editing "Narcissus" (London: D. Nutt). The play, a burlesque of the story in Ovid's 'Metamorphoses,' was acted at St. John's College, Oxford, in 1602, as a Twelfth Night merriment, and is preserved in a single manuscript in the Bodleian Library. Though destitute of literary merit, "Narcissus" is in several respects a valuable document. It will probably attract most attention for its curious resemblance in one respect to Shakspere's burlesque "Pyramus and Thisbe": the well (*i. e.*, spring) in which Narcissus saw his fatally beautiful face is introduced as a *dramatis persona*. "Enter one with a bucket and boughs and grass," is the stage direction, and then the *Well* speaks, ending with:

> "And thus, lest you should have mistook it,
> The truth of all I to you tell:
> Suppose you the well has a bucket,
> And so the bucket stands for the well;
> And 'tis, lest you should count me for a sot O,
> A very pretty figure called *pars pro toto*."

Miss Lee has done her editorial work pretty well. The notes are disappointing. The introduction is better, but contains one curious oversight: the epigrams of which Miss Lee gives a specimen, and which she seems to think inedited, have long been in print.

—Some months ago a German tribunal in a provincial town sentenced a man to several months' imprisonment for lese-majesty, because he kept his seat while the Emperor's health was drunk. Recently a similar prosecution occurred in another town, but the accused was acquitted, the judge deciding that keeping one's seat under such circumstances could not be regarded in the eye of the law as an insult to his Majesty, unless words were used clearly implying an injurious intent. This view would doubtless be endorsed by the great majority of judicial authorities in Germany; but the number of judges willing to interpret the law in subserviency to the supposed wishes of an arrogant monarch is large enough seriously to imperil personal liberty. In Prussia "there's such divinity doth hedge a king" that even the brute beasts in his service must not be lightly spoken of. The captain of a battery stationed in Berlin recently condemned an artillerist to several hours of extra drill daily as a punishment for "Beschimpfung eines königlichen Dienstpferdes" (insulting a horse in the royal service) by calling the noble animal a "pig." Nothing is more common in the German army than for a subaltern to address a common soldier as a sloth, a hyena, or a rhinoceros, but we are not aware that this vituperative confusion of species has ever been punished or even reprimanded by a superior officer. It is not easy to conceive why "a horse in the royal service" should be supposed to be endowed with a more delicate sense of honor than a man in the royal service, unless it be that the former is the actual property of the king.

SYMONDS'S ART ESSAYS.

Essays, Speculative and Suggestive. By John Addington Symonds. New edition, in one volume. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1893.

Some of the essays in this volume which deal with plastic art are of peculiar interest to the belated reviewer, in that they are devoted to the extended setting forth of a doctrine more than once upheld in these columns and the only true doctrine, as we believe, of the relation of art to nature. This doctrine we have nowhere seen so elaborately stated or so carefully argued as in these essays, and we shall therefore devote the greater part of this review to an analysis of this argument and a statement of our points of agreement and disagreement with it, giving but a brief outline of the other contents of the volume.

The initial essay, on "The Philosophy of Evolution," aims to show how the evolutionary doctrine may aid man to reattain the religious spirit by showing him his brotherhood with nature, and inculcates a modernized pantheism.

Then follow essays "On the Application of Evolutionary Principles to Art and Literature" and "On Some Principles of Criticism," which preach a modified Taineism, allowing more place for the judgment of good or bad in art than does Taine; and these again are followed by the group of essays we intend to consider at greater length. Then come "Notes on Style," which are taken up almost entirely with literary style, and which are rendered difficult of appreciation to the average reader by the fact that they are based on long, untranslated quotations in half-a-dozen languages; "Democratic Art," which deals mainly with Walt Whitman, for whom, it is known, Mr. Symonds cherished a somewhat incomprehensible admiration; "Landscape" and "Nature Myths and Allegories," in which our author's pantheism crops out again; two criticisms of Matthew Arnold's and Walter Pater's critical doctrines; "The Pathos of the Rose in Poetry," and "A Comparison of Elizabethan with Victorian Poetry." There is much of interest in all of these, much that is really "suggestive," but we shall be obliged to pass them by with this slight mention. The group of essays which we shall dwell upon comprises those on "The Provinces of the Several Arts," on "The Relation of Art to Science and Morality," on "Realism and Idealism" and "The Model," on "Beauty, Composition, Expression, Characterization," and on "Caricature, the Fantastic, the Grotesque"; and it is especially with the third and fourth that we shall have to deal.

The first two of this group of essays deal with well-worn ideas, and are sound expositions of uncontested truths. That each of the arts has its own methods of expression and its own proper content, and should not be expected to express other truths or other emotions than those which are proper to it; and that art in general has a place apart from science and morality while it yet cannot escape quite from either, and must, as an expression of man's spirit, say something to man's intellectual and moral nature as well as to his senses—this is their burden. Our only objection to Mr. Symonds's treatment here is that he does not sufficiently distinguish between the ostensible "subject" of a work of art and its true theme or motive, and assumes them to be one. This is not necessarily the case, and is often the reverse of true, and this is why the believers in art for art's sake and the believers in a meaning to be expressed in the language of art misunderstand each other so constantly. Art is a language, say these, and mere beauty of expression is not enough—you must have something to say. Assuredly. The form is all-important, say those, and we care nothing for the subject. And they too are right. For the real meaning of the artist, his true motive, can be expressed in no other language than his own. How Titian painted is the only question of importance about him, because what he felt before a beautiful nude body is inherent in his method of expression and is his message which cannot be translated. "Mere technique" cannot exist, for technique is expression, and the artist's soul is in his handling and not in the catalogue label of his picture. The form is all-important because "the style is the man," and Michelangelo interests us more than "The Creation of Adam." Even in literature the case is different only because the medium of expression, language, is the vehicle of thought for all of us and seems almost thought itself. In so far as writing is art, it is style that makes it so. We know a poet's thought only by its expression, and criticism of art is technical criticism, or it is nothing.

But the misunderstanding between the advocates of manner and the advocates of substance is nothing to the misunderstanding between the realist and the idealist, and both are based on distinctions without differences. That all art is both realistic and idealistic, and that the greatest art is that art which combines in the highest degree the utmost realistic power with the utmost idealistic feeling, is the doctrine that we have preached, in season and out of season, for many years, and it is this doctrine which Mr. Symonds sets forth in the essays we will now examine.

He confines himself to sculpture and painting, saying that "the principles arrived at will be found applicable in some measure to literature." Music and architecture he puts aside as not falling "within the sphere of these ideas." Sculpture and painting are in their very nature imitative arts, and "proceed by imitation of external objects." Realism, thus, "forms the substratum and indispensable condition of all figurative art." But it would be absurd to suppose that an imitation is the better for being a bad one. Nobody wants a portrait which is not like, or an image of a god "which is not as accurately adequate to the human form in which that godhead . . . might have resided, as knowledge and skill can make it." "The figurative arts, by the law which makes them imitate, are bound at every step of their progress to be realistic." But the artist soon finds absolute realism as impossible as absolute idealism. He cannot draw or paint truly. There is not only the limitation of his material, but the limitation of his personality. "No two men see the same woman or the same tree. Our perceptions are necessarily colored by those qualities which make us percipient and impressible individualities, differing each from his neighbor in a thousand minute particulars." Thus, willy-nilly, an artist is necessarily an idealist, and must show not what *is*, but what he sees and feels. And he soon becomes a conscious idealist, for, as he cannot get absolute truth, he must supply its place. He must convey the sense of life by exaggeration of some sort, for he cannot get motion. He must give the sense of light by some falsehood, for he cannot paint with light itself. Flesh will not pulse with blood upon his canvas, and he must make it more colored than it is in nature—marble will not breathe, and it must be more beautiful in form than reality, or it will not look so lovely. Hence it is that "Realism and Idealism are as inseparable as body and soul in every product of the figurative arts," and that "Idealism in art is the ultimate elaboration of that comparative inaccuracy and that imported subjective quality, both of which distinguish the most literal drawing from a photograph." And then Mr. Symonds hits upon the right example, too, "that perfect synthesis which makes the work of Pheidias exemplary," and quotes from Haydon his account of his first sight of the Elgin marbles and his rapture at discovering "the most heroic style combined with all the essential detail of actual life." These figures are, by general consent, the highest attainment of art, and, as we have said before now in these columns, their eternal example to artists is in their "combination of ideal power with a magnificent realism which is unequalled in any work, earlier or later."

Our only objection to this course of reasoning is that it does not dwell sufficiently upon composition—upon the *pattern-making* side of art. This omission is partly supplied in a later essay, but we do not think that Mr. Symonds ever quite recognizes the importance in art of the instinct which leads the savage to cut crossed lines on his paddle-blade. The instinct for ornamentation is as fundamental in humanity as that of imitation, and its base is love of *order*. Art is form-giving, *ordering*, and arrangement is its essence. It is ordered lines that the savage scratches on his paddle, it is ordered steps that make the dance and ordered sounds the song, and the frescoes of the Sistine are a developed pattern. The imitative instinct and the instinct for order work together from the beginning, and pure imitation might be painting or carving but not art, and pure pattern-making art but not painting or sculpture. Now the pattern-making instinct necessarily modifies natural fact in every smallest detail to make it fit into the preordained scheme of the whole, and supplies the lack of perfect imitation, which is impossible, by giving an obvious completeness and order to what seems the fragmentariness of nature. Here, we think, is the true key to the "ideal" in art. All plastic art is both realistic and idealistic, and the highest art is *both* in the highest degree. When art becomes too exclusively realistic, it ceases to be art and tends to become science. When art ceases to be realistic, it tends to become pure decoration. "Within this limit is relief enough," and between scientific draughtsmanship on the one hand and pure ornament on the other, all the artists of the world have found room to develop their special personality and their special style. But, to quote Mr. Symonds again:

"We might parody the famous saying of Pascal, and declare that the consummate artist must be a *réaliste accompli* and an *idéaliste soumis*. In other words, he must use the truest truth of nature, the most scientific grasp of actual form, in the service of imaginative symbolism. He must at one and the same time obey and control the model, departing at no point from its teaching, but utilizing its character and individuality for the further purpose of expression."

This is the whole gospel of art.

THE DIPLOMATS OF 1777.

B. F. Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America, 1773–1783. Vol. XVIII. Nos. 1644–1702. London: B. F. Stevens. 1893.

THE fifty-nine papers of vol. xviii. cover only the time between August 9 and September 26, 1777, but these seven weeks were important in the negotiations busily pending between France and England. With a few interesting exceptions, the strictly diplomatic communications go on uninterruptedly, and show an increased spirit of concession by the French ministry, and still bolder requests, almost demands, by the English, who were at this point encouraged by the surrender in July of Ticonderoga. The most important contention, at this juncture, on the part of Stormont, is in regard to the intended departure of 4,000 French troops to the West Indies, accompanied by five or six ships of the line. Mr. Forth, whom Vergennes, in a letter to Noailles (No. 1667), calls a "great debauchee," seems to have made the discovery of this plan, and also to have learned that the orders regarding this movement had been so ill conveyed by Sartine that the King had declared they should be "the last which M. Sartine would have to convey." Vergennes appears to have heard of Stormont's sources of information, for in another letter to Noailles (No. 1646) he intimates that the English ambas-

sador must "ruin his Court in expenditure for spies," since he "gathers up all the petty absurdities which are retailed at the clubs, and perhaps even in the cafés." By August 13 Lord Stormont had worked himself into such a condition that he virtually urged upon Weymouth an "immediate rupture" in order that a seizure might be made of the whole French Newfoundland fishery, which, by a dilatory policy, in a few weeks might find time to escape a sudden move (No. 1649). Nor was Vergennes dead to the fact that suddenness had its advantages, for, in No. 1651, convinced that Stormont wanted war, he impressed upon Noailles that "twenty-four hours are precious in certain situations." A little later, on August 20, Stormont, after insisting upon a complete sifting of the motives which urge the increase of forces in the French West Indies, is at last almost persuaded that the ministry is really pacific.

In No. 1659 Stormont communicates in agreeable French to Vergennes the news of the surrender of Ticonderoga, assuming an interest which the latter "will be good enough to take in our success"—the nearest approach to humor thus far ventured by the serious Englishman. Immediately follows an interview with Maurepas (No. 1662), in which Stormont declares that he has "had declarations enough," and that he wants "no more words, no more promises"; but, nevertheless, as he writes to Weymouth, evidently baffled, he cannot "reduce their conduct to any system," and doubts if Maurepas has "any regular, uniform plan of deceit." He was, however, of the opinion that the French did not desire war, and therein he was probably right, because the significance to the French of the success or of the defeat of the insurgents was far from evident to the ministry, however clear the situation might seem to the King.

Another letter (No. 1663) from Beaumarchais relieves the general depression of the situation. Full of "honest indignation," he speaks of "terrible finance," as well he might at this time.

The dilemma of the French ministry, just referred to, is seen in a letter of Vergennes to Noailles (No. 1666) on Forth's mission. Forth represented only North and Mansfield, and his object was the return of English vessels taken by privateers. Could such return have been made under other circumstances, it was impossible as matters now stood, because, in the event of the Americans and English coming to terms, the French would only gain the enmity of one side, and would win no love from the other. If obliged to make easy terms with their colonies, the English, as Vergennes shows in his next letter to Noailles, would only find a fresh object of national hatred in France and Spain.

What amounts to an ultimatum is at last pressed by Stormont in No. 1670, when he asks of Maurepas an audience with the King. The same day, September 3, he confers with Vergennes, who mentions pointedly, in reply, the Circular Order to the Courts of Admiralty forbidding sale of prizes, and also another order to the Procureur Général of the Admiralty Court to prosecute violations of this Circular Order; he would not make promises, or at least evaded the suggestion by Stormont that he should sequester or deliver English vessels already in port, but he did, however, admit that the strengthening of the forces in the West Indies was done at the desire of the Court of Spain. Pertinent to this last admission are the two cipher despatches (with deciphers) of September 4, from the Marquis d'Ossun, the French ambassador to Spain, in the second of which it is intimated that recent English demands seem to the Spanish Court both minatory and insulting to France (Nos. 1672, 1673).

The most spirited despatch of the volumes is No. 1674, from Stormont to Weymouth, relating a conversation with Vergennes over the increment of the French fleet in the West Indies. When it came to the question of prizes, Vergennes said, or Stormont states that he said, it was his intention to get rid of "ces gens-là, et de chasser cette Vermine."

Forth's mysterious comings and goings—his frequent embarkings at Dieppe or at Brighthelmstone and other movements—are chronicled in the next number (1675) by Noailles, who characterizes him as "very fit to undertake commissions which may be disowned in case of non-success." Vergennes, on his part, writing to Noailles a little later, points out with obvious truth that the forcing an act of complaisance from France would really prove a damage to the prestige of England, and that the retaliatory measure of sending English troops also to the West Indies might be the very thing which France most wanted. To this latter proposition he says, most graciously, that he has no objection: "Every one can do as he likes in his own house!" Noailles in return (No. 1683) offers a delightful bit of French address, in recapitulating to Vergennes the whole attitude of France to England as polite, gracious, and yet ready to be firm. He cites an anecdote of Lord Sandwich, who some years previous had "let drop a very true remark in saying that none but novices could be pardoned for counting on promises given here [the court of London]."

Stormont (No. 1687) drops, for the moment, statecraft and descends to gossip, derived doubtless from spies. Beaumarchais, he hears, has threatened Sartine as being in his power, but is promptly told that if he lets slip such an expression again, he is to be shut up for the rest of his days. Of Franklin, Stormont goes on to say "he can assume any shape, and nothing is so natural to him as artifice and fraud." Remembering the sources of which Stormont did not hesitate to avail himself for information, and contrasting with this Franklin's perfect openness of conduct, however adroit he may have been in keeping perfectly silent when silence was best, we must fairly admit this remark of Stormont to be one more of his rare indulgences in jesting. His irritation may have been excited by news which he repeats in his next (No. 1688), dated September 17, 1777, to the effect that Vergennes has signified to Franklin and Deane that the Court "has now taken its Resolution for War, which Resolution will show itself soon." Stormont's last important despatch to Weymouth (No. 1697), on September 24, reveals much of the secret sources of his information; he speaks of La Fargue as mentioned in his last confidential letter (probably No. 1696, which is "cancelled," is the very letter). Stormont also speaks with seeming certainty of Franklin's and Deane's growing dissatisfaction with France, especially as regards the privateers. Following this is the "Memorial of the American Commissioners to the Count de Vergennes and Count d'Aranda" (No. 1698), an important document and one never before printed. In connection with this "Memorial" the letter of the Comte de Lauraguais (No. 1691) to Vergennes is of value. He tells, in a somewhat confused way, of a supper with Franklin, Deane, and Lee. "When our good wines had somewhat excited the Doctor," Franklin went on to say something not very distinct, but very good-natured, and ended by offering France the English colonies! Deane and Lee, on the other hand, somewhat reproached France for dilatoriness. The tenor of the Count's letter is to show that England really had more interest in getting control of the French West Indies than in conquering America.

Nos. 1658, 60, 68, 77, 85, 86, conclude the papers captured from the *Lexington*, off Ushant, on September 19, 1777, by Lieut. Bazely of the cutter *Alert*, whose official report to the Secretary of the Admiralty forms No. 1695. A docket of the twelve papers taken makes No. 1689 of this volume. The lot, as a whole, is not a rich "take," for the more important documents were all thrown overboard; Nos. 1677 and 1685, however, were letters to Capt. Johnson from the brave but unfortunate Wickes, who was drowned in the *Reprisal*, off the Banks in 1778.

Two letters, Nos. 1665 and 1693, are from Col. Philip Skene, "Burgoyne's evil genius," as he has been called, to the Earl of Dartmouth. As usual he lauds Burgoyne extravagantly.

One of the interesting features of this volume is a letter (No. 1682) from that sourest of men, Alexander Wedderburn, to William Eden. Replying to some strictures on the limited authority accorded to the management of the royal forces in America, Wedderburn says of recent personal news from New York, that "the peculation which is visible there is very outrageous, that the Hospitals are in a shocking condition, that the Howes grow rich, and that they are charged with Procrastination in order to end the war slowly and by Treaty." However, he concludes flippantly, "Tout va au mieux dans ce meilleur des mondes possibles."

There is a variant of a Franklin anecdote in No. 1648. Lenoir, in giving further details of Hodge's arrest, says that Franklin, on hearing that Stormont had circulated a report that the Americans had been beaten with a loss of 4,000 men, remarked, "Truth is one thing, and Stormont another" (*La vérité et le Stormont sont deux*). Parton, who always makes the best of a story, has it: "It is not a truth, it is only a Stormont."

Reality versus Romance in South Central Africa. By James Johnston, M.D. With fifty-one full-page photogravure illustrations from photographs by the author and map. Fleming H. Revell Co. 8vo, pp. 353.

THIS is an attempt to give a truthful picture of South Central Africa as it appeared to one who travelled through it with a special object in view. Dr. Johnston, a Jamaican physician, determined to learn by personal observation whether the negroes of his island could be profitably employed as lay assistants to white missionaries in Africa. With this single motive he crossed the continent from the Portuguese possessions on the west coast by way of the Zambesi River, Mashonaland, and Lake Nyasa, visiting all the Protestant mission stations on his route. His journey of forty-five hundred miles, through regions inhabited by numerous hostile tribes, though marked by no special incident, is deservedly memorable from the fact that he never fired a shot in anger or self-defence, nor lost a carrier by death—a record probably unique in the annals of African travel, and testifying to great tact and patience in dealing with the natives, as well as unremitting care for his men. It is evident that he took his journey with impressions of the extent and success of African missions which personal observation prov-

ed to be false; and at its close he frankly confesses that at present there is no opening for the Jamaicans in the region which he visited.

This failure of his hopes, together with his disillusion in regard to the prosperity of the missions, has doubtless colored his account more than he is aware or possibly intended. He describes the belt of the continent through which he passed as, with a few exceptions, a comparatively barren wilderness, whose fertility has been greatly exaggerated. Its climate is pestilential, and a white man can live in it only by the greatest care. The missions, even the most prosperous, the American in the west and the Scotch in the east, have not got beyond the initial stage of laying the foundations for a permanent work. With righteous indignation he denounces those missionaries and societies who have published flattering reports of impossible successes, or withheld the unpromising truth for fear of "discouraging contributors." In vigorous terms he brands the so-called self-supporting missions, those established on the "faith alone" plan—an idea largely countenanced in this country—as absolutely mad enterprises, foredoomed to failure, and which have already cost many valuable lives. The substantial truth of all this cannot be doubted, especially considering the fact that Dr. Johnston is a devoted supporter of missions, though regarding them with a certain hard-headed Scotch common sense. Still, it should be remembered that the impressions of a mere traveller, however shrewd and observing, are not always the most truthful representations of permanent conditions, and it may very possibly be that the state of Central African missions is more encouraging than it appears to be in these gloomy pages.

A considerable part of the book is taken up with the recital of the ordinary experiences of African travel; and though the author penetrated some unexplored regions, he contributes little to our knowledge of them, their resources, or their inhabitants. An interesting account, however, is given of the chief of the Barotse, a native tribe on the upper Zambesi, a man of more than common intelligence and capacity, who is convinced of the ability of his people "to learn the various arts and become wise like Europeans. He is by no means an idler himself, much of his time being spent in wood-carving, with very primitive tools, turning out bowls and other dishes of wonderful symmetry, and exhibiting exceptional skill and taste." Dr. Johnston prints a remarkable letter which he received from this African king, hotly accusing the British South African Company of some very questionable sharp practice in respect to a treaty which its agent induced him to sign under false pretences.

Dr. Johnston passed through the territory of another tribe whose king, the well-known Khama, he characterizes as "a noble example of what Christianity and civilization can do for the African." Khama's new capital, Palachwe, was suffering at the time of his visit in March, 1892, from an attack of malarial fever, due to its unhealthy situation and to its unsanitary condition resulting from the habits of the natives. In commenting upon this, Dr. Johnston expresses his surprise that the king, who is so strenuous in prohibiting the sale of liquor to his people, should be so indifferent or blind to other dangers to which they are exposed from their manner of life.

"He lives in one round Kaffir hut himself, and his people must aspire no higher; hence we found whole families with grown-up sons and daughters herded together promiscuously in their small round grass and mud hovels. In no instance have we seen the semblance of a partition, not even a bit of calico hung up to divide the sleeping-places, while immorality is more brazen-faced than among the most uncivilized we have met hitherto."

Mashonaland finds but little favor with this writer as a farming country. "No one," he says, "looking out on the dreary wastes we have traversed during the last forty-five days, could hope to earn even a bare living from the arid soil." So desolate is a part of it that he travelled for twenty-three days without seeing more than a single native village. In Salisbury, bankruptcy was "the order of the day," and the deepest discouragement prevailed among the miners. The only thriving business seemed to be the liquor trade, for "out of a hundred wagons now on the road to Salisbury seventy carry an average of two thousand bottles of intoxicating liquor each."

In one respect Dr. Johnston's book surpasses all other accounts of Africa which we have seen, viz., in the remarkable excellence of the numerous photogravure illustrations, from photographs taken by himself, which it contains. They give the best idea of mission stations, native villages, and especially of the natives themselves, which we have ever obtained from pictures. Some of the representations of scenery, as of the Victoria Falls and of Livingstonia on Lake Nyasa, are of great beauty. A good map of south Central Africa adds to the usefulness of this valuable though depressing book, which we commend to the thoughtful attention of all who are interested in African missions.

Sam Houston, and the War of Independence in Texas. By Alfred M. Williams. With Portrait and Maps. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1893.

We can well understand that Mr. Williams has found it no easy task to write a Life of Sam Houston which should fulfil the requirement demanded by Schopenhauer in a biography—that it should be more interesting than the history to which it renders service, and that to this end it should never subordinate the biographical element to the historical. The biographer admits that the limitations of Houston's character must forbid us to reckon him "among the world's great men," yet he acted a foremost part in the dark and bloody drama which has passed into history as the "War of Independence in Texas." If, in the period of pioneer adventure and of internecine feud between Mexican and American on our southwestern border, he had had all the martial qualities of a Siegfried, he as yet stands too near our epoch to have gathered around his brow the nimbus which in the haze of a distant past has settled on the head of the German hero in the Nibelungenlied. Indeed, the elements of character were so crude and so coarsely mixed in Houston that, even when we regard him simply as "a type of his time and circumstances," we find it impossible to fuse those elements into the symmetry of a heroic figure, albeit that he shared with Austin in the "glory" of founding the "Lone Star Empire," and that, at one time, he fed his fancy and pricked his ambition with vast and imperial schemes of a dominion extending from Oregon down the Pacific coast to the Gulf of Mexico, with Texas for the pivot of the "amalgamating" movement. To this coalition the Rocky Mountains were to interpose no barrier. The glory of the United States was to pale before the rival empire on the Pacific. Nothing short of "annexation" could prevent the fateful decree of "Manifest Destiny." In fact, the briefest retrospect of Sam Houston's career will suffice to show that he was much more at home when leading his band of restless and valiant adventurers, who never valued their lives at a pin's fee, than when he dipped into the future with visions of a constructive statesmanship far removed beyond his ken.

Born in Rockbridge County, Va., on the 2d of March, 1793, young Houston received only the slenderest rudiments of education in an "Old Field School." Placed as a clerk in a country store, he soon absconded and identified himself with the Cherokee Indians. Deserting his Indian tribesmen under stress of debt for powder and trinkets, he returned to such "civilization" as was accessible in the Tennessee mountains, and, cutting "a sour-wood stick" as the baton of his pedagogical office, he taught school for a season. When he was only twenty years old, he enlisted as a private in the United States army. He soon rose to the rank of ensign. He took part, under Gen. Jackson, in the battle of To-ho-pe-ka in 1814, and was severely wounded. He was appointed a subagent of the Cherokees in 1817. He resigned this office in dudgeon because of a rebuke received from John C. Calhoun, then Secretary of War, and because of false charges lodged against him by men who were smuggling slaves into Florida, and whose nefarious traffic he had obstructed. He next studied law and was admitted to the bar. In 1823 he was elected to the United States House of Representatives from the Ninth District in Tennessee. In 1826 he fought a duel with Gen. William White on what his biographer calls "a notable duelling-ground by the name of Linkumpinch, just across the Tennessee line"—in Kentucky. In 1827 he was elected Governor of Tennessee. In 1829 he married a Tennessee lady, but she left him three months after the bridal, and returned to her father. The causes of this domestic *esclandre* are not known. To hide his mortification Houston buried himself in the tribal seclusion of his old friends, the Cherokees, among whom he soon took to himself a squaw-wife, "after the Indian fashion." On the occasion of a visit to Washington in 1832, he assaulted the Hon. William Stanberry in the open street for words spoken on the floor of Congress deemed derogatory to his honor as an Indian contractor or agent. Arraigned before the bar of the House for this ruffianly violence, he was released with only "a mild and perfunctory reprimand" by the Speaker, Andrew Stevenson of Virginia. Returning to his clansmen, he opened among them a trading-post, and sank to such a low depth of degradation, from his drinking habits, that he received from them the cognomen of "Big Drunk."

He left the Indians and went to Texas in 1832, at a critical juncture in the history of that Mexican province. Its American settlers were meditating a revolt from the Mexican confederacy. John Quincy Adams, while President of the United States, had aroused Mexican jealousy against the American colonists by proposing to purchase the territory which they were now occupying. Gen. Jackson was known to be still more eager in these designs of annexation. In 1833 the Texan settlers determined to organize the territory into a State and to petition the central Government for a peaceful separation. Hence the beginning of the intestine feud. The first shock of arms took place in 1834. Then followed, in quick succession, the capture of San Antonio, the fall of the Alamo, the massacre of Goliad, and the decisive battle of San Jacinto, by which

Texan independence was secured. Houston was installed as President of the new republic in 1836. He kept watch and ward against Mexican incursion. He pacificated the neighboring Indian tribes. Building again the family altar by marrying a second wife in 1840, he renounced, through her influence, his habits of drinking and swearing. He was reëlected President in 1841. He favored the annexation of Texas to the United States, and adroitly played his cards to this end by dallying with threats of now an English and now a French protectorate.

On the consummation of annexation in 1844, he was naturally chosen, with Gen. Rusk, to represent the State at the national capitol. On entering the Senate, he provided himself, says the biographer, "with a supply of cypress shingles, and filled his waste-basket during the debates with the shavings that curled from under his sharp knife." When he went to church, his shingle and knife helped him to endure the tedium of the sermon. When he took part in the debates of the Senate, it was always on the side of moderation where slavery was concerned. He opposed the repeal of the Missouri Compromise, and defended the New England clergymen who protested against that breach of public faith. He opposed secession, but yielded at last to the torrent which swept him off his feet. He was Governor of Texas at the time the ordinance of secession was passed. Refusing to take the oath of allegiance to the Southern Confederacy, he was deposed from office. President Lincoln offered him the commission of a major-general in the Federal service, but he declined it. Henceforth he was literally "a man without a country," and he could but wait amid the thickening shadows till his change came. He died July 26, 1863, at a time when his dark forebodings of Confederate disaster and overthrow had been confirmed by the fall of Vicksburg.

Passing from the biography of Sam Houston to the history of the "War of Independence in Texas," we may say that it is concisely told by Mr. Williams. The materials he has selected and the authorities he has consulted are ample for the outline sketch which is all that he could undertake in preparing an historical framework for his biographical portrait. We could wish, however, in the interest of literary accuracy, that more attention had been paid to the proof-reading of the volume. Such a leading character in the annals of Texas as David G. Burnet is doomed (by the proof-reader) to have his name spelled now in one way and now in another. A long account of Houston's "conversion," as given by his pastor in Washington, the Rev. G. W. Samson, D.D., is credited to the "Rev. G. W. Simpson," who reappears in the index with still another *alias* for his Christian name. The index at other points is marred by misprints. April 11, 1844, instead of April 17, 1844, is given as the date of the famous "Raleigh letter" which Henry Clay wrote against the annexation of Texas, to the confusion of his Presidential hopes.

Civilization during the Middle Ages, especially in relation to Modern Civilization. By George Burton Adams, Professor of History in Yale University. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1894. 8vo.

HISTORIANS may be roughly divided into two classes—those who laboriously delve into the original sources for the purpose of elucidating exhaustively some special subject, and those who gather together and coördinate the results of others' labor and reproduce as a whole the story of the past. Both classes are necessary and both are deserving of all honor, although the patient toil of the indefatigable seeker after facts is less apt to win popular applause than the work of him who can arrange those facts in a striking whole and illuminate them with brilliant generalizations and captivating theories. Such a book as that which Prof. Adams has laid before us could not be produced by a writer of the former class, for a lifetime would be insufficient to acquire at first hand the details of the history of the inner life of all Europe from the fifth to the fifteenth century. It is not, of course, that the author attempts to present all these details, but an accurate familiarity with them is essential for his object—the presentation of the philosophy of European history, tracing the relations of causes to effects and the interaction of the multifarious factors which have advanced or retarded civilization and determined the fate of nations.

Only wide reading and considerable thought could have enabled Prof. Adams to perform his task. To what extent the thought is original it would be difficult to say, for he is chary of references, and a thorough acquaintance with modern historians, especially the Germans, would be necessary to determine how far he has thought out the problems for himself and how far he has been influenced by his guides. One of the pitfalls in the path of those who work at second hand is that they are apt to be insensibly influenced by the views of those whom they follow and whose statements they have insufficient means of controlling. In general, Prof. Adams seems to have escaped this danger, and to have given a fairly accurate though uneven account of the modifications through which the institutions of Europe passed during the mediæval period. In some instances he has evidently been misled, as when (p. 234) he tells us, of the forgery of the False Decretals, that "its immediate object was to defend the independence of the bishop against the claims of the archbishop"—a view to which a careful study of the documents would scarce have brought him, especially as it was an archbishop, Riculfus of Mainz, who was the sponsor of the forgeries and busied himself with their dissemination. So a personal acquaintance with the records of the period would have preserved him from the error (p. 273) of classing the Manichean Albigenses with the evangelical Waldenses as making a "clearer demand . . . in regard to practical Christianity." It is perhaps not so easy to explain his assigning (p. 269) the close of the crusades to the expedition of St. Louis to Tunis in 1270, and explaining their abandonment by a change in the "feelings and judgments and desires" of the people, so that "the working mind of Europe could no longer be moved." In fact, among the impelling motives of the crusaders he somewhat strangely omits to mention the attractions of the indulgences so lavishly granted. In the terrors of the mediæval eschatology these continued to be eagerly sought for, but they became vulgarized by being peddled everywhere for money, notwithstanding which they could still for nearly two centuries at any time arouse anew the crusading spirit; if it was no longer directed against the infidel, this was because the Holy See found it more profitable to employ it against enemies nearer home. The expedition led in 1396 by Jean sans Peur to destruction at Nicopolis and the repeated crusades directed against the Hussites, in one of which there was an English contingent under Cardinal Beaufort, sufficiently show that Prof. Adams's view of the period and causes of their decline needs correction. Similar modification is required in the exaggerated estimate of the abasement of the papacy consequent on the so-called Captivity of Avignon. It was by no means, as asserted on p. 398, "almost as sudden and final a destruction of the imperial power of the Popes as the ruin of the Hohenstaufen family had been of the imperial position of the German kings." The proceedings at Rense and Frankfort in 1338 which are cited in support of this have no such supreme significance as is here attached to them. But a few years later, the "priests' Emperor," Karl IV., was elected through papal influence and subjected the Empire to the Church more fully than it had ever previously been.

Partly, no doubt, such lapses may be attributed to the dogmatic tone which is almost inevitable in the attempt to compress within four hundred and fifty pages a sketch of the course of civilization in Europe during a thousand years. Yet this dogmatism, customary in a teacher addressing his students, is carried too far in a book intended for the general public. There is throughout an ease in explaining how everything was the necessary result of what preceded it that is sometimes misleading, inasmuch as it ignores the fact that many questions are still *sub judice*, and that many others are of a more complex character than they are here represented. To accept the *ipse dixit* of any one we must feel implicit reliance not only on his learning, but also on the calm sobriety of his judgment, and this reliance is shaken by inconsiderate remarks which sometimes surprise the cautious reader, as when (p. 172) we hear of "men who would be regarded as weak sovereigns even to-day, when, in general, a stupid king or an insane one is as good as any or even better," or when (p. 397) we come across a remarkable statement about "the forces of modern politics which have reduced the papacy to political insignificance"—an insignificance which Bismarck and Caprivi, Carnot and King Humbert have strangely never recognized. It was not without cause that Bismarck pronounced Leo XIII. the ablest statesman in Europe.

Prof. Adams's style is rather negligent, and at times somewhat obscure. There would seem to be loose thinking as well as loose writing in the assertion (p. 289) that "the Portuguese were able to buy in India several times cheaper than the Venetians in Egypt," and in the apparent self-contradiction involved in the observation (p. 279), "The truth is, the various lines of progress are so interwoven, as has already been said, advance in any is so dependent upon advance in all, that it is not possible to say that any one of them, either in theory or in fact, is a necessary condition of the others."

The Last Day of the Carnival. By J. Kostromitin. Translated from the Russian. London: T. Fisher Unwin.

THE fly-leaf of this little volume bears the announcement: "This work is the first of a series, in which the author intends to give, in a literary form, an important account of present social and political life in Russia." From internal evidence, the author would seem to be a Russian who does not live in Russia, and the translation was made by another Russian similarly situated. The English is, at times, of such a sort that one is inclined to suspect that the author must have assumed all the responsibility of the proof-reading and supplied the money for printing, in his eagerness to get po-

litical tracts, in the form of stories which embody his views, before the public. Certainly, neither style, language, nor literary skill is what we should expect in a book for which Mr. Unwin assumed financial and other responsibility. Yet there is a rude power, a considerable talent of description, which will be more agreeable and comprehensible, no doubt, in later works, when the author learns to be less abrupt, to tone down his bald political sermons, or cast them into the narrative, and to tell his story straight through once, instead of making it lap in incoherent lengths without order.

As the title indicates, it is the history of the last day before the austerities of the Russian long fast begin. The scene is laid in a country town, where every one is bored to death with individual and collective stupidity. If we are to believe the writer, gambling, deep potations, and coarse practical jokes are the only known means of relieving the monotony of existence. The picture he draws is distinctly repulsive. The frankness with which the disagreeable details are set forth is responsible for much that seems, at first sight, exaggerated. Setting aside that frankness, we can see, on reflection, that the foundation facts are not very different from those which underlie an idle society in any country, in any town, large or small, where material pleasures alone are pursued with ardor. In this case, we are called upon to make allowances for people who have no library, it is stated—but who are too lazy to send for books or to read them if they had them, we are bound to add; who are debarred from the discussion of revolutionary ideas, but who, evidently, say and do pretty much as they please after all. It is not probable that this book will be popular, or even that it will fulfil its author's intention of instructing the public. One must have lived in Russia, must know the language, and be intimately acquainted with the character and peculiarities of the people and of these foreign Russians, in order to discriminate between the caricature and the truth here, to comprehend the irregular style, and to gather an idea of the author's meaning, except when he is engaged in downright preaching, most inartistically interpolated. But, for such people, the book has no special value, because all the facts, political and social, are already old to them. The rest of the world will find it a puzzling nightmare.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ambros, W. A. The Boundaries of Music and Poetry. G. Schirmer.
Appleton, Robert. Violet, the American Sappho. Boston: Franklin Publishing Co.
Baker, W. S. Early Sketches of George Washington. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.
Ball, Rev. W. D. Evolution in Science and Revolution in Religion. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Barrows, Rev. J. H. The World's Parliament of Religions. Vol. II. Chicago: Parliament Publishing Co.
Beckman, Ernst. Pax and Carlino. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
Conway, M. D. The Writings of Thomas Paine. Vol. I. Putnams. $2.50.
Davis, J. P. The Union Pacific Railway: A Study in Railway Politics, History and Economics. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. $2.
Demarest, T. F. C. The Rise and Growth of Elevated Railroad Law. Baker, Voorhis & Co. $3 50.
Denison, Dr. Charles. Climates of the United States in Colors. Chicago: W. T. Keener Co. $1.
Eastman, Edith V. Musical Education and Musical Art. Boston: Damrell & Upham. $1 25.
Famous Adventures and Prison Escapes of the Civil War. The Century Co.
Garnett, Richard. Poems. London: Mathews & Lane; Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.50.
Hepworth, G. H. They Met in Heaven. E. P Dutton & Co. 75 cents.
Hobbes, J. O. A Bundle of Life. J. S. Tait & Sons. 50 cents.
Jones, J. L. A Chorus of Faith as Heard in the Parliament of Religions. Chicago: Unity Publishing Co. $1.25.
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Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XXXVII. Masquerier—Millyng. Macmillan. $3.75.
McCosh, Rev. James. Philosophy of Reality: Should it be Favored in America? Scribners. 75 cents.
Mercer, Rev. L. P. Review of the World's Religious Congresses Rand, McNally & Co 50 cents.
Merriam, G. S. A Symphony of the Spirit. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Nichols, A. B. Freytag s Karl der Grosse. Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents.
Parker, Rev. Joseph. None Like It: A Plea for the Old Sword. F. H. Revell Co. $1.25.
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Somoano, José S. Costumbres Yankees: Viajes por la América del Norte. Mexico: *El Correo Español*.
Stendhal's L'Abbesse de Castro. Paris: Lemerre; New York: Amblard & Meyer. 60 cents.
Stevens, B. F. Facsimiles of MSS. in European Archives relating to America. Vol. XIX. London: B. F. Stevens.
Strahan, S. A. K. Suicide and Insanity: A Psychological and Sociological Study. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Strong, Gen. J. C. Wah-kee-nah and her People. Putnams. $1.25.
Stuhlmann, Franz. Mit Emin Pascha ins Herz von Afrika. Berlin: Dietrich Reimer.
Sweet, Rev. C. F. A Champion of the Cross: The Life of Rev. J. H. Hopkins. James Pott & Co. $3.
Tennyson, Alfred. The Coming of Arthur. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 12 cents.
The Banker's Almanac and Register and Legal Directory of 1894. Homans Publishing Co.
The *Converted Catholic*. Vol. X. 1893. James A. O'Connor.
The Dogs and the Fleas. By One of the Dogs. Chicago: Douglas McCallum. $1.
The Partridge. [Fur and Feather Series.] Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Thompson, Francis. Poems. London: Mathews & Lane; Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.50.
Vaux, Baron de. Ecuyers et Ecuyères: Histoire des Cirques d'Europe. 3d ed. Paris: J. Rothschild.
Verne, Jules. Michel Strogoff. Henry Holt & Co. 70 cents.
Warren, Prof. F. M. Selections from Victor Hugo: Prose and Verse. Henry Holt & Co. 70 cents.
Wawn, W. T. The South Sea Islanders and the Queensland Labor Trade. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $4.
White, E. E. School Management. American Book Co. $1.
Wilder, Prof. B. G. Physiology Practicums: Explicit Directions for Examining Portions of the Cat, and the Heart, Eye and Brain of the Sheep. Ithaca, N. Y.: The Author. $1.

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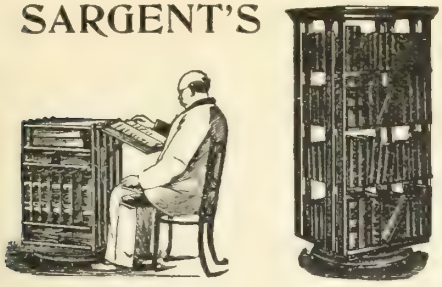

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 8, 1894.

The Week.

THE incorporation of the income tax with the tariff bill was unresisted by the Republicans of the House as a body, although the tax encourages discriminating legislation against the very constituencies which are most strongly Republican. Besides being socialistic, the income tax is sectional and meant to hit the people who, as a rule, are the supporters of the Republican party. When the limit of exemption from the tax was made $2,000 in 1870, there was no concealment of the fact that it was a blow aimed at the rich manufacturing classes of the East. The increase of wealth in twenty-four years has made it necessary now to double that sum so as to make sure of being sufficiently tender of the West and South. In 1867, when the tax was collected on all incomes above $1,000, twice as much was paid in a single collection district in New York as in the entire States of Virginia, Texas, Tennessee, South Carolina, North Carolina, Mississippi, Louisiana, Alabama, Georgia, Arkansas, and Florida. In 1869 seven States, Massachusetts, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Illinois, and California, although containing but 40 per cent. of the total wealth and population of the country, paid more than 75 per cent. of the income tax. Of course this disproportion became still greater when the exemption was increased to $2,000. Fixed now at $4,000, the sectional intent of the tax is obvious.

Mr. Cockran's speech against the income tax was filled with effective points, none of which was more searching than his retort on Mr. Bland. That gentleman had defended the tax on the ground that it would relieve the country from the danger of anarchy. "What does that mean," asked Mr. Cockran, "except to relieve the anarchistic elements of the country from the necessity of indulging in anarchy because we outstrip them in the race of socialism?" If Congress will only single out a class offensive to the anarchists and strike them hard enough, then the anarchists will for a time refrain from throwing bombs. But Mr. Bland ought to know that he will speedily have to increase his dose to make it effective. The socialists will never be content with this mere beginning of spoliation of a class, but will demand more and more, with bombs in their pockets all the while. France has been going in for socialistic legislation as a means of checking anarchy, and has succeeded only in bringing the crash on her head all the sooner.

The action of the House committee on banking and currency in tabling the bill to repeal unconditionally the 10 per cent. tax on State-bank notes is a very wise disposition of that subject. It leaves the door open to amendments of the present national banking law, but it is not likely that anything will be done in that direction at present. Congress and the country have been too much agitated by silver and greenback and "seigniorage" heresies to approach the bank question with calmness at this session. Members are prone, whenever anything goes wrong in the world of finance, to lower their heads and rush at the national banks, with the result generally of doing more damage to themselves than to anybody else. This habit will gradually wear itself out and disappear along with the silver craze. Then the bank question may be approached with some hope of a rational solution. The bill introduced by Congressman Warner, who is a member of the banking committee, and who helped to vote down the tax-repeal bill on Friday last, is a compromise measure authorizing State-bank notes under the supervision and direction of the general Government and prescribing various conditions to be enforced by the comptroller of the currency. These conditions are the very least that can be considered admissible, but it appears to us that the bill would leave to the State banks only a name—*vox et præterea nihil*—the real substance being the national-bank system. It is hardly possible that the advocates of real State banks, like Mr. Cox of Tennessee, would accept a system which was only nominally a change from the present system.

Senator Sherman rendered a real service to the cause of good government and sound finance by his speech on the bond issue last week. He showed that the law of 1875 not merely authorized but imperatively required and still requires the secretary of the treasury to sell bonds, if necessary, to maintain specie payments. This point has been argued so often that it ought not to be necessary for anybody to argue it again; but since the secretary's legal powers have been questioned, it was fitting that the foremost Republican Senator, and the one who had most to do with the framing and execution of the law under which the new bonds are to be issued, should speak decisively on the subject. There are not many men in the Senate now who were there when the bond law and the specie-resumption law were passed. It fell to the lot of Mr. Sherman not only to be actively concerned in the passage of these laws, but also to carry them into execution, since, as secretary of the treasury under the Hayes administration, he refunded the old 5-20 bonds at lower rates of interest and accumulated the $100,000,000 gold reserve for resumption purposes. His speech will blow away much of the froth of declamation that has been stirred up since Secretary Carlisle issued his bond circular; but the Senator added a little froth of his own, as is his wont.

This relates to the secretary's power to use any portion of the proceeds of the bonds to meet current expenses of the Government. Upon this point Mr. Sherman gave his opinion with the solemnity of a Roman augur, that no part of the money could be so used. It must be used exclusively for redeeming greenbacks and possibly the Sherman notes of 1890. Everybody in the Senate and out of the Senate knows that the secretary has already used about $30,000,000 of this redemption fund to meet current expenses, and that if he had not done so the Government would have been bankrupt, and might have been put in the hands of a receiver if proceedings in bankruptcy could be instituted against the sovereign power. Such proceedings are, of course, impossible, but that which happens when a Government becomes bankrupt is generally worse than a receivership, because more disorderly. Every enlightened person would, like President Lincoln, take the risk of violating the law in order to save the Government, but in the present case no such thing is necessary. We have shown in former discussions that the law of 1878, which was passed only a few months before specie resumption took place, expressly required the secretary to pay out his greenbacks after redeeming them. That law is still in force. Why do not the sticklers for regularity in both House and Senate repeal this law, instead of making mouths at the secretary? Because making mouths will satisfy the "deestricks," and will not hinder the secretary from using any money in the Treasury to meet any lawful demands on the Treasury. In order to comply with the letter of the law it is only necessary for the secretary to have somebody present greenbacks and Sherman notes of 1890 at the Treasury for gold, and then pay out the greenbacks and notes for current expenses, as the law imperatively requires. Then, of course, everybody will be satisfied, including the Roman augurs.

While our Government is issuing $50,000,000 new Government bonds at an investment rate of 3 per cent. or under, the French Government is engaged in con-

verting an old loan into an issue at a rate approximating ours. The two largest loans of the French Government pay at present 4½ and 3 per cent., the principal of the two issues being respectively $1,356,000,000 and $3,043,000,000. Early this year the cabinet submitted and carried a bill for the conversion of the 4½s into a loan of equal amount at 3½ per cent. The terms of the conversion are interesting, especially in view of our own experiment. Holders were allowed a week—ending January 29—to demand the principal of their 4½ per cents. If not demanded, the principal after February 16 is to bear interest at 3½ per cent. The 4½s have been selling between 104 and 105, and as their redemption would realize only par, nearly all holders have tacitly agreed to the exchange. This is in spite of the fact that a further reduction of interest is possible after an eight-years' interval, and that other bond issues meantime are currently expected. In the face of this conversion the 3 per cent. rentes are selling at 97. In England, by way of contrast, the 2¾ per cent. consols, reducible to 2½ in 1903, bring 98¾ on the market, and the outstanding 2½s 97⅞. The issue last named is redeemable eleven years from date, and hence will afford a fair comparison with our own new issue. Our present extended 2 per cents, on the other hand, bring 95 on the market, which is a price slightly less favorable relatively than that of the British consols. A curious feature of the French conversion, not wholly remote from our own existing problem, is the fact that when the cabinet laid its plan before the Deputies, it was objected that the profits of conversion (about $13,500,000 per annum) would be used to "fill up a hole" in the budget of Government expenditure, and the socialists therefore insisted that these profits should be reserved to abolish a part of the land tax. The Chamber was clearly in favor of this amendment, but it was beaten on the ministry's threat of resignation.

It would be interesting to know what influences were set to work to induce the Kentucky Legislature to pass resolutions instructing their Senators to vote against the confirmation of Wheeler H. Peckham as judge of the Supreme Court, on the ground that he is not a Democrat, or, to quote the language of the resolution, "who cannot establish his devotion to the organization as well as to the cardinal principles of the Democratic party." This was a most unusual step, and from every point of view was a piece of gross impertinence. In the first place, the Legislature of a State has no means of knowing whether such instructions are obeyed or not. Every Senator has taken an oath that he will not divulge what passes in executive session. Consequently, the Legislature can never learn what the effect of its meddlesomeness has been. It can never obtain any official information, and if it ever obtains any privately, such information must come from somebody base enough to violate his oath. It would be interesting to know, furthermore, through what channel the members of this Legislature learned that Mr. Peckham is not a Democrat, and also how they came to conceive that all appointments to the bench should be of the same party as the President. Mr. Harrison appointed one Democrat to the Supreme bench and two Democrats to the Circuit Court of Appeals. What would these Kentuckians have thought if, when Mr. Harrison sent in the name of Howell E. Jackson to succeed Justice Lamar, the Legislature of Ohio had passed resolutions instructing their Senators to vote against his confirmation, because he was not a Republican? So small a transaction on the part of a Northern Legislature is unimaginable—or on the part of a Southern Legislature, we should think, unless it were under the prompting of David B. Hill. We think we know the kind of judge that would suit all politicians of this class. His name is Isaac H. Maynard.

With its usual artless reasoning, the *Tribune* has set itself at work subtracting the present total of stock-market values from the total prior to the panic of 1893, and presents the difference as the measure of "cost of Democratic rule." It cannot be said that this method of striking the political balance-sheet is either novel or original; nevertheless, it will undoubtedly serve as a useful "clincher" to the arguments of those amateur politicians with whom nothing is so convincing as an imposing array of figures, however obtained. It is unfortunate that economists should scorn this simple method of settling the question, because its convenience and value, if once admitted as conclusive, would be inestimable. By similar processes, the cost of Republican rule prior to Mr. Cleveland's first term might readily be calculated by subtracting from market values before the panic of 1884 the values at the darkest hour of that distress, which came a month before Mr. Cleveland's nomination. The "cost" of Republican rule in the seventies could in like manner be tabulated by a comparison of values in July, 1873, with those of November, 1873. Judgment on Lord Salisbury's administration in Great Britain might as surely be passed by a subtraction of market values at the close of 1890 from those before the Baring panic's outbreak. We shall have to confess, however, that the process has its logical difficulties. The tremendous crash in Australian values early in 1893 must be reckoned in, it would seem, with the present "cost of Democratic rule"; which is a new extension of the creed that "the foreigner pays the tax."

One of the best remarks made by Dr. Parkhurst on Monday before the Senate committee which is investigating Tammany, was that "the legal adviser of the committee should be permitted also to hold himself free from the ordinary rules of evidence, and should be permitted to ask questions which will bring out the truth." Mr. Lexow, the chairman of the committee, objected to this, on the ground that "the rules of evidence were founded on reason and experience." This is true, but needs explanation. The English and American common-law rules of evidence are not rules of the human mind, but of our jury system. They have been slowly built up for the benefit of the class of men who form our juries, and the object is to prevent unlettered minds from being bewildered by masses of irrelevant or only slightly relevant testimony, and to keep the issue on trial clearly before them. They are, therefore, entirely unsuited to the kind of investigation the committee is called on to make. This investigation calls for the kind of evidence which the principal of a banking-house would use in ferreting out fraudulent practices among his employees, or the master of a house in getting at proof of any kind of misconduct among his servants; the kind, in short, which is in use in criminal trials all over the Continent, and particularly in the proceedings before a *juge d'instruction* in France. In all these proceedings everybody is encouraged or required to tell all he knows, and not merely as much as rules of evidence will permit, and it is left to the investigator to weigh it and sift it. There is no reason in the world why this system should not be used on the present occasion, as long as the witnesses are guaranteed against criminal prosecution for any of their admissions. If the rules of evidence are enforced, half the time of the committee will be taken up with arguments on questions of admissibility. The discretion of the committee may be safely trusted to deal with the matter satisfactorily.

Equally important is Dr. Parkhurst's remark that the witnesses will not come forward and tell the whole truth if the examination is public. We are not in favor of secret sessions as a rule, but unless some provision is made for occasional secrecy, we fear a great deal of valuable evidence will not be forthcoming. No guarantee against prosecution will secure all the testimony, because, as Dr. Parkhurst remarked, "it is not the law that the witnesses will fear, but the department." What they all shrink from is the petty persecution

which the police and their cronies among the police justices can bring to bear. Those who have taken any part in getting up anti-Tammany movements in this city know well what this persecution is. In the case of small dealers and tradespeople it can be made almost vexatious enough to drive a man out of the precinct.

When the Louisiana Lottery Company failed in its desperate effort to secure a new lease of life from the people of that State, it was supposed that the country would be for ever rid of this evil with the expiration of its charter on the 31st of December, 1893. When it was announced that a new charter had been secured by the company from the Government of Honduras, and that its base of operations would be transferred to Puerto Cortez, it was taken for granted that the United States had seen the last of it, and congratulations over our good fortune mingled with regrets for the curse thus thrust upon Central America. But it appears that the snake is only scotched, and that there is a great deal of life in it yet. The *Florida Citizen*, the new paper recently established at Jacksonville, has discovered the startling fact that the Honduras business was nothing but a blind, that the real headquarters of the concern have been transferred from New Orleans to Port Tampa City, and that agents of the company secretly "got in their work" on the Florida Legislature at the last session by securing certain changes in the State law regarding lotteries which may afford the swindlers a measure of protection.

The *Citizen* calls upon the people of Florida to resist this assault upon their good name and their prosperity. It points out that an enterprise involving such immense capital will not be content to risk its existence under the operation of doubtful and changing laws, and will seek to secure the certainty of immunity. It shows that, unless checked, its pernicious influence will be felt in every part of the State, and affect every political, moral, and social interest of the people. The whole country is, in fact, concerned in this matter. The Louisiana lottery, with its headquarters in New Orleans, was a curse to all of the other States as well as to Louisiana. Its influence will be as demoralizing and pernicious to the whole nation if its removal to Honduras is allowed to be only a blind for a reopening of operations in Port Tampa City. The public opinion of the country must be aroused in support of those Florida citizens who recognize the threatened harm to their State, and a new agitation must be started which shall not end until the lottery has really been driven out of the land.

Mr. W. D. Howells has an article in the last *North American* seeking to prove that we are all plutocrats *in posse* or *in esse*, a proposition concerning which there is much to be said. He praises the English, whom he calls "the inventors of laissez-faire," for various things, and among them for having "recognized the principle that the miners' wages must never go below a certain sum, no matter how low the price of coal may fall." Now the "English public," being a sensible business public, cannot have recognized this "principle" any more than the principle that every man ought to have $2,500 a year. If every miner got the same wages no matter what the price of coal, and the price of coal was so low that it did not pay the working expenses of the mine, of course somebody would have to supply the difference out of his own pocket. Who should he be? If the mine-owner or mine lessee, of course the wretched man's funds would soon be exhausted, and he would have to go to the workhouse. And what a life he would lead before the end came, seeing his capital wasting away, while forbidden by "public opinion" either to discharge the miners or to cut down their wages. We can recall nothing like his fate in history except that of the Roman "Curiales" under the late empire, the unhappy leading citizens who were held responsible for the taxes of their town whether they were able to collect them or not.

Bnt English opinion is not so daft as to demand anything of this kind. What it has strongly called for is some means of conciliation, in case of disputes between the mine-owners and their men, which shall prevent such enormous waste as resulted from the late strike. That strike is supposed to have cost, in lost wages and in the increased price of coal to various industries, $30,000,000, a sum sufficient to have bought out the mines and handed them over to the miners. It is a great pity the miners cannot own them, for they would then get a valuable lesson in political economy, inasmuch as they would find out the connection between the market price of coal and their own wages. The "living wage" theory—that is, the theory that a man is entitled to a certain rate of wages, without regard to the market for his goods—is another expression of the miners' notion about their wages. But it is the stuff of which dreams are made.

The rumor about Mr. Gladstone's resignation in the *Pall Mall Gazette* shows, we fear, that Mr. Astor's young men are introducing American methods into the conduct of his journal. The repetition of the tale after it had been contradicted on Mr. Gladstone's authority, with the addition that it was done with "a full sense of responsibility," is worthy of our best "newspaper men." The responsibility of such a story amounts to nothing whatever. When it turns out to be untrue, people merely say that the *Gazette* has been lying, and the world and the *Gazette* go on as before. We had an illustration of the same sort of journalism here a couple of years ago, when "One Who Knows" printed a most ridiculous composition as Gladstone's home-rule bill in one of our morning papers. He was promptly contradicted and made fun of in London, but he persisted, and challenged the British cabinet to meet him in the journalistic arena and floor him or be floored by him, and he kept up his noise for several days after he had been disposed of. Mr. Gladstone's age of course makes him a good subject of canards, but, barring a sudden breakdown in his health, of which there is no sign, we may be sure nothing would make him resign without ample notice to his colleagues. The political importance of such a step would be very great, and the notion that he would spring it on the cabinet through the columns of the *Pall Mall Gazette* is something to which nobody outside the office of that paper will pay much attention. We are inclined to think that in any event he will not retire before another election, which is looked for next fall. Should the Liberals come back from that with a good majority, he might well sing his *Nunc dimittis*.

One more proof of the fact that the silver question in this country is in the sleep that knows no waking, is furnished by the utter lack of attention to the new silver commission of Germany. This has been appointed by Caprivi to placate the agrarians, whose votes in the Reichstag are indispensable to him, and is to go at the old problem again of seeing if nothing can be done for silver. Caprivi fairly told them that he did not see how anything could be done, but assured them of his best wishes, and gave them their commission. The principle on which he acted is correctly described by Dr. Ludwig Bamberger as follows:

> "Commissions are for difficult problems of legislation what winter trips to the South are for hopeless invalids: the patients are filled with fresh courage, and their worried physician gets a rest."

But Bamberger very severely and justly condemns the German chancellor for giving any further countenance, even indirectly, to the silver delusion. To allow a bargaining for votes to come into the consideration of a question that must be settled on purely financial grounds, is a demoralizing precedent to set. As Bamberger says, Caprivi might just as well give the agrarians a commission to see what could be done for quack medicines. Bamberger's remarks also obviously apply to commissions on "the labor problem."

THE PASSAGE OF THE BILL.

MR. REED began his speech on Thursday by affirming that the Wilson bill had taken a shape agreeable to neither side of the House. The Republicans were not able to damn it, nor the Democrats to support it, as heartily as they would like. This, in his eyes, is a fatal defect. He believes in party measures which will make his opponents yell with rage and drive his adherents into a delirium of enthusiasm. That was the particular charm of the McKinley bill. Without referring to the way in which the political wisdom of the authors of that law was justified by the event, we may set over against the views of the ex-Speaker those of a statesman whom he himself quoted with approval, and the depth of whose political philosophy time and the consent of men have established beyond question. Says Burke:

"In most questions of state there is a middle. There is something else than the mere alternative of absolute destruction or unreformed existence. This is, in my opinion, a rule of profound sense, and ought never to depart from the mind of an honest reformer. I cannot conceive how any man can have brought himself to that pitch of presumption, to consider his country as nothing but *carte blanche*, upon which he may scribble whatever he pleases. A man full of warm, speculative benevolence may wish his society otherwise constituted than he finds it; but a good patriot and a true politician always considers how he shall make the most of the existing materials of his country. A disposition to preserve and an ability to improve, taken together, would be my standard of a statesman. Everything else is vulgar in the conception, perilous in the execution."

We believe that the Wilson bill, as a whole, answers to this description of safe and constructive statesmanship. It has its blemishes in plenty, from the standpoint of a scientific system of taxation, and it has its dangerous experiment, the income tax. But, all in all, considering the terrific obstacles to any reform whatever, considering the swinish outcries of favored classes and the cynical readiness of many Democrats to throw all their pledges to the winds, considering, above all, the high courage required, in the face of the unexampled industrial depression, to go so steadily on with a work which ignorance and desperate partisanship were asserting was itself the cause of distress, it is as good a bill as any reasonable man had a right to expect. Tariff-reformers will take the bitter with the sweet. If the Democratic income tax of 1894 proves as unfair and fruitless in operation as we believe it will, its repeal will be accomplished as easily as was that of the Republican income tax of 1870. Other improvements can be made as needed. The bill faces in the right direction, and further advance can be made when the necessity and safety of it can be shown. It is, in short, just such a moderate and progressive bill as the Republican party would have enthusiastically endorsed in 1884 or 1890, had its blind leaders given it the opportunity.

That one of those leaders at least, ex-Speaker Reed, now sees his mistake, may fairly be inferred from his speech of Thursday. From McKinley's speech in 1890 to Reed's of 1894 is a terrible fall in protection orthodoxy. McKinley was the ignorant and solemn fanatic whose faith knows no wavering. Protection was something supernatural in his eyes. All foreigners were devils. Political economists were traitors. But Mr. Reed is too blasé and cynical for such crudities, even in his speech bidding for the Presidential nomination. Many things that slipped from him on Thursday give color to the common opinion that he really believes in protection as little as Garfield did, and simply makes a clever argument in its favor out of political stress of weather. He admitted that the foreigner does not pay the tax, which is rank heresy. He was conscious that there are two sides to the question, which is dangerous. He gave some of the credit of our industrial expansion to nature and Providence and the wit of man, which is little short of impious. He showed some reading of political economy, which is always perilous. No apparent soundness on the main article of the creed, that by taxing ourselves lavishly all around we shall get rich, can really make up for such lapses from the true McKinley faith.

The votes in the House and in the committee of the whole must have convinced even the Republicans that the bill will pass the Senate substantially as it is, and, moreover, that the new free list has come to stay. The one straw the Republicans wildly clutched at when the McKinley deluge came upon them was the fact that they had made raw sugar free. They truthfully said that the Democrats would never dare to put that tax on again. Sure enough, they dared not, but did dare to make refined sugar also free and to sponge out the bounty, and to put many other articles on the free list which the Republicans themselves dare not hereafter take off. Free wool and coal and iron will prove as popular as free sugar, and as hard to disturb. Sound in these great fundamentals of free raw materials and duties lowered all along the line, the Wilson bill is the beginning of a fiscal revolution which Republicans themselves will soon recognize as inevitable at this stage of our nation's development, and which they will eventually help to complete.

THE HAWAIIAN "FAILURE."

THE debates on the Hawaiian resolutions in the House have added little or nothing to the general understanding of the question. The Democrats have directed their assault at points which the Republicans, as a rule, refuse to defend, but the latter have always fallen back on the retort that, whatever may be said for or against Mr. Cleveland's Hawaiian policy, it has to be confessed to be a ridiculous "failure." This suggests the desirability of summing up what has been actually accomplished by the present administration since it took up the Hawaiian affair where the Harrison administration dropped it, and asking whether the total result amounts to failure or success, not in point of partisan advantage, but of national policy and dignity.

For one thing, the facts developed by Mr. Cleveland's investigations have left Messrs. Harrison and Stevens without party defenders. Neither in the Senate nor in the House does the Republican minority of the committee on foreign affairs propose by resolution to endorse either Stevens or Harrison or the treaty of annexation. Mr. Hitt of the House committee at one time introduced such a resolution, but afterwards saw fit to suppress it and substitute one severely condemning President Cleveland for what he never did. To the latter, it will, of course, be easy to rally the Republican vote, but it would not be to the former. This has excited comment among Republicans. Senator Dolph has expressed his surprise that the Senate committee should so soon run away from its patriotic endorsement of Harrison and annexation a year ago, and now have not a word to say in praise of one or the other. Congressman Van Voorhis plaintively reminded his party colleagues on Monday that they were turning a very cold shoulder on their own President, and truthfully said that Mr. Harrison had the facts before him when he sent the treaty to the Senate, so that to condemn the treaty and the manner of its negotiation was really to condemn the ex-President. But all this has been of no avail, and Gen. Harrison is left to bear the burden of a scandalous treaty, scandalously negotiated, with his party already refusing to help lift it with one of its fingers.

Another result of the Hawaiian agitation has been to put the stamp of insincerity on Republican professions of regard for the poor and ignorant colored men of the South. From the position which the Republican party has virtuously assumed in that matter since the war, it has shamefully retreated when it became a question of poor and ignorant colored majorities in Hawaii. The case was effectively put by Senator Palmer on Monday when "Bill" Chandler was trying to rouse the flagging zeal of the Republicans in behalf of "the 1,500,000 colored voters in the United States," the sanctity of whose rights as a majority he was maintaining it was necessary to protect by a stringent election law. Said Mr. Palmer:

"We have been recently engaged in a discussion of the Hawaiian question. The total population of those Islands is about 90,000. The white American population is less than 2,000, and yet those 2,000 whites own more than 74 per cent. of the entire property

of the Islands, the natives owning but four-fifths of 1 per cent. of it. And the whites have overthrown the government and have proclaimed, or are about to proclaim, a constitution with property qualifications. I have heard one of the leaders of the Republican party in this chamber declare, a few days ago, that those men there who have overthrown the native government were to be compared with the Washingtons, Russells, Sidneys, and other devotees of freedom. This is the view of the party that now claims to be the champion and preserver of the rights of the colored race."

Many other practical results of great moment have been achieved by Mr. Cleveland's "failure." Annexation of Hawaii, or any other islands 2,000 miles from our coasts, has been killed. A majority of the Republican party in Congress could not be brought to vote for it to-day. Senator Sherman takes this safe occasion to say that such colonial acquisitions have no place in our national policy, though, with characteristic spoiling of his good positions, he thinks it might be well for the State of California to take the Islands. The vaunted "imperial policy" has been checked in its very beginnings, and it will not be heard of, aside from the professional frothings of the incurable Jingoes, for years to come. The effect on our diplomatic service, also, cannot but be excellent. It will be long before we shall again see such a vulgar conspirator as Stevens representing our Government in any country. We may have foreign ministers tempted to intrigue and meddle, as Stevens did, in the affairs of other nations, but the terrible fate that has overtaken him will stay their hands. If they do conspire, they will know enough not to announce their purpose in official letters or to give a "tip" in advance to the editor of the *Tribune*.

But, after all, it will be said, the President's plan of undoing the wrong committed in the name of our Government has failed. The provisional government of Hawaii is still in power, and the Queen remains deprived of the throne from which she was pushed by an illegal use of United States forces. But what was the plan that has failed? It was to express our national love of justice and regard for the weak and wronged. Has that failed? Did that depend upon the willingness or the refusal of the provisional government to give up their stolen goods? If anything has failed, it has been the simple purpose of the President to carry out a fundamental principle of Christianity. That, we suppose, is the reason why the religious papers exult so greatly over the "failure." But it is of the nature of a fine and just action that its merit and real success reside in the intention, not in the execution. A brutal and unjust action has no defence but outward success. The Chilian fiasco, for example, was really ridiculous, because an act of aggression, of assault by the strong upon the weak, came to lamentable failure at the very start. Only a bloody and "glorious" war could have excused that bit of international brutality. But international fairness, unselfishness, generosity, justify themselves, and are independent of the result. When the history of this Hawaiian affair comes to be written, after the partisan clamor has died out, it will be seen that Mr. Cleveland struck a fine note of patriotism and of justice. Those who maintain that this was a "failure," because the practical result he immediately aimed at was not brought about, must be prepared also to maintain that there is no moral argument but that of pike and gun, and that, because incarnate Justice came to death on the cross, it was the most stupendous "failure" in history.

A SUGGESTION FOR SOCIALISTS.

We never read any of these lucubrations of our friends the socialists, or "nationalists," without wondering why they do not go to work at once in the formation of communities like the mediæval monasteries, in which they could carry out their own theories. The monasteries owed their foundation largely to that discontent among good men with the moral and industrial condition of the world, in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, which the socialists and their sympathizers now feel about the condition of the world in the nineteenth century. Competition of the worst kind ruled the earth. The weak and the poor went to the wall. The rich were in possession of nearly all the good things of the world, and were all the time growing richer, the poor poorer. Vast tracts of land had been lying in wilderness ever since the irruptions of the barbarians in the fifth and sixth centuries. The founders of the great orders could bear this no longer. They said to the weak, helpless, and discontented: "Come and live with us. We will dig and delve, and pray, and have everything in common; a sure living for all under the reign of a common law and a pure religion." The poor and weak and helpless went with them, and the great monasteries grew up all over the Continent and England, and flourished until human nature got the better of them.

Now this same resource is open to the socialists. They can found as many communities as they please, in which no man shall be any richer than his neighbors and friends, in which work will be apportioned to capacity and wages to needs, in which the market price of goods shall be of no consequence, in which there shall be neither lawyers, nor pauperism, nor crime, nor prostitution, in which education and libraries shall be gratuitous, and religion shall be "abreast of the times." There are all over the East and West tens of thousands of acres of lands which can be had for a song, and which under careful socialist cultivation could be made to blossom like the rose, and in which streams and coal to provide power for manufactures abound. The great advantages of such communities would be that the members would be of one mind, and full of faith in the experiment. The communities might be of any size, too, without any difficulty of management. None of them would be anything like as large as the State of New York, which the socialists say they could administer without any serious trouble, on communistic principles. In trying to convert the state into a socialist community they are trying to include in their experiment a very large body of stiff-necked and hostile persons, who would have to be forced in by law, and would do their best to make the enterprise a failure. Whenever they try to get hold of all "the instruments of production" for "the state," they are sure to encounter very great moral opposition, even if they do not have to fight for them.

In the socialistic community, on the other hand, the governing body would possess and manage them with the hearty consent of all. By setting up a little state within the state they could have everything their own way. Constant employment would be insured to all workers. There would be short hours, abundant leisure, no panics, and plenty of paper money issued by the community itself for private circulation. They might even have, if so minded, a progressive income tax. Their only connection with the wicked ones outside would be the payment of the taxes on their real estate, and we have no doubt this would gladly be made very light by the Legislature.

If it be said that they do not all wish to go to the country to carry out these experiments, that socialists, like other people, enjoy town life, and want to go to the opera and the theatre and to lectures on ethical culture, we answer that the experiment is equally possible in town. It would be very easy to acquire a large building, or a whole block, in which the new and regenerated society could be started, and in which the services of the best actors and singers could be secured, if the inmates did not choose to go to hear them in the theatres frequented by the monopolists and capitalists. In these establishments every kind of manufacture could be carried on, and every kind of trade practised. If it be asked where the markets for the goods would be found, we answer, within the community itself. There would never be any hard times or slack demand, because the demand would be regulated by the government. The paper money would prevent any currency panics like that of last summer, and nobody would be permitted to retrench. The matter of transportation in the cars and omnibuses would be

hardest to arrange, but this after all is "a mere detail." With a real desire for accommodation, a way out of the difficulty would certainly be found.

Seriously, it is in this direction that all the efforts of socialistic reformers should tend. To win society as at present constituted over to socialism must at best be the work of ages. Socialism on a small scale, which would at once exhibit to the world the virtues of the system, can be had at any time. The faithful have only to come together, pool their money, subdue their passions, and fan their faith, and the thing is done. There must be at best enormous waste of power in trying to convert the unbelievers, in persuading the rich to give up their riches, the fastidious to love promiscuity, the capitalists to surrender their capital, and the men of talent to put their talent in their pockets and live solely for the public. In a community of one way of thinking all this might be saved. Moreover, the believers themselves would in this way be able to find out the weaknesses of their system, if there are any. The "ethical man," for instance, of whose superiority to the "economical man" we have of late been hearing so much, could in such an establishment be placed under observation. At present little or nothing is known about him except what is told us in the socialist writings and lectures. To see him actually working at his trade would, therefore, be a very great advantage. Would he really resist the temptation to take more than his share at the mess? Would he keep the best cuts for himself when carving? Would he work cheerfully all day long beside patent shirks and bummers? Would he enjoy the society of the Crokers and Martins in the winter evenings? Would he carry all his tools with him when he went plumbing and never send the helper for them back to the shop? Would he enjoy making pig iron for the public? Would he cheerfully do his own washing? Would he listen patiently to the public lectures on the folly of growing rich? These are all important questions, and could hardly be answered without actual experiment.

JEFFERSON'S NOTES ON VIRGINIA.—II.

BROOKLYN, January 24, 1894.

AFTER the revision of 1787, which otherwise differs little from the text of 1784, no further revision was printed during Jefferson's lifetime. But in 1797 the truthfulness of his narrative of the death of Logan was questioned by Luther Martin, and Jefferson printed a pamphlet appendix defending his account of that affair. After a careful study of the controversy, it becomes evident that Jefferson's statement, in implicating Cresap, was unfounded in fact, and, had Jefferson confessed his error, he would have acquitted himself of any responsibility, for, as George Rogers Clarke wrote, he merely repeated what was popular rumor of the day "on a subject which I know he was not the Author of." But in subsequent editions the original version is unchanged, and, by Jefferson's suppression of proof against his view, he became truly answerable for the statement. How far this deception was induced by the personal and political antipathy between himself and Martin cannot be decided, but the whole matter was used as political ammunition by both parties, and presumably produced the usual verity that political controversy is famous for.

Yet if Jefferson would not acknowledge his error, it was later made to appear that he did, for his editor, H. A. Washington, in the Congressional edition of his writings, took the liberty of changing the text to please his own view. How far he differed from Jefferson the following extracts will show:

JEFFERSON'S TEXT	EDITOR'S VERSION.
In the spring of the year 1774, a robbery and murder were committed on an inhabitant of the frontier of Virginia, by two Indians of the Shawanee tribe. The neighboring whites, according to their custom, undertook to punish this outrage in a summary way. Col. Cresap, a man infamous for the many murders he had committed on those much-injured people, collected a party and proceeded down the Kanhaway in quest of vengeance. Unfortunately a canoe of women and children, with one man only, was seen, coming from the opposite shore, unarmed, and unsuspecting a hostile attack from the whites. Cresap and his party concealed themselves on the bank of the river, and the moment the canoe reached the shore singled out their objects, and, at one fire, killed every person in it. This happened to be the family of Logan, who had long been distinguished as a friend of the whites.	In the spring of the year 1774, a robbery was committed by some Indians on certain land adventurers on the river Ohio. The whites in that quarter, according to their custom, undertook to punish this outrage in a summary way. Captain Michael Cresap, and a certain Daniel Greathouse, leading on these parties, surprised, at different times, travelling and hunting parties of the Indians, having their women and children with them, and murdered many. Among these were unfortunately the family of Logan, a chief celebrated in peace and war, and long distinguished as the friend of the whites.

Nor is this the only blame to be attached to Washington's text. It is a tissue of typographical errors so serious as to entirely discredit it, as when it prints "recognition" for resignation, "conformable" for conformed, "it should not be deemed homicide" for it should be deemed homicide, "our rulers can have no authority" for our rulers can have authority.

Another text is that printed in the edition of 1853, taken from Jefferson's copy of the edition of 1787, and embodying his MS. corrections and additions. This is naturally an important one, though but little known. Yet even this copy did not contain all the changes of opinion he had undergone. Thus, the original chapter (xix.) on manufactures, commerce, and trade, for which Jefferson has been so severely blamed because of his expressed dislike for them, is unchanged, yet not so was the author's opinion, for, as early as January 4, 1805, he had written to Lithgow:

"I should . . . qualify several expressions in the nineteenth chapter, which have been construed differently from what they were intended. I had under my eye, when writing, the manufactures of the great cities in the old countries, at the present time, with whom the want of food and clothing necessary to sustain life, had begotten a depravity of morals, a dependance and corruption, which renders them an undesirable accession to a country whose morals are sound. My expressions look forward to the time when our own great cities would get into the same state. But they have been quoted as if meant for the present time here. As yet our manufactures are as much at their ease, as independent and moral as our agricultural habits, and they will continue so as long as there are vacant lands for them to resort to; because whenever it shall be attempted by the other classes to reduce them to the minimum of subsistence, they will quit their trades and go laboring the earth. A first question is, whether it is desirable for us to receive at present the dissolute and demoralized handicraftsmen of the old cities of Europe? A second and more difficult one is, when even good handicraftsmen arrive here, is it better for them to set up their trade, or go to the culture of the earth? Whether their labor in their trade is worth more than their labor on the soil, increased by the creative energies of the earth? Had I time to revise that chapter, this question should be discussed, and other views of the subject taken, which are presented by the wonderful changes which have taken place here since 1781, when the Notes on Virginia were written. Perhaps when I retire I may amuse myself with a serious review of this work; at present it is out of the question."

One of the controversies that the 'Notes' involved Jefferson in was his charge that in 1781 it was proposed that the Virginia Assembly should name a dictator. There can be little doubt that this statement was made with the intent of injuring Patrick Henry, who had been prominent in the attempt to impeach Jefferson for incapacity and cowardice in that year, and who had also furthered this project of a dictator. Indeed, in 1798-9, the Jefferson partisans used this in the attempt to crush Henry when he attacked the Virginia Resolutions, and the charge was openly made that Henry had intended to be dictator himself. This led to a denial, from the Henry adherents, that such a suggestion had ever been made, which naturally involved the statement made in the 'Notes.' Jefferson, therefore, sought material with which to bolster his own assertion, and among others obtained a letter from Archibald Stuart, a member of the Legislature in 1781, which has never yet been printed, though a most important historical document. It was as follows:

STAUNTON, Sept. 8, 1818.

DEAR SIR.—I presume you have seen Mr. Wirt's Sketches of the Life of Patrick Henry; and that he denies Mr. H. favored the project of Establishing a Dictator during the revolutionary War. Even doubts respecting events of such recent date tend greatly to impair the credit of History. There are many now living who witnessed the part Mr. Henry took on that subject. After the Assembly was dispersed at Charlottesville in the year 1781 it met in Staunton where Mr. George Nicholas a member of that body, proposed that a Dictator be established in this Commonwealth who should have the power of disposing of the lives and fortunes of the Citizens thereof without being subject to account. In support of this resolution he observed that the Country was overrun by the Enemy and that the Operation of the Govt. was nearly suspended:—That although the powers proposed to be confered were very great the character he proposed to fill the office would remove all apprehensions arising from the abuse of them—That this character was Genl. Washington—That he was our fellow citizen, that we had a right to command his services and that he had no doubt but that on such an Occasion he would obey the call of his country. In the course of his speech he referred to the practice of the Romans on similar occasions. After Mr. Nicholas sat down Mr. Henry addressed the Chair; he observed it was immaterial to him whether the Officer proposed was called a Dictator or a Governor with enlarged powers or by any other name yet surely an officer armed with such powers was necessary to restrain the unbridled fury of a licentious enemy and concluded by seconding the Motion.

"On the other hand it was contended by Mann Page from Spottsylvania and several other Members;—That our affairs were not desperate, That the pressure we felt was but temporary, That the Govt was still efficient,—That the spirit of the people was unbroken, That it was unbecoming in their representatives to damp their ardor by an Act of despair—That they had equal confidence with the mover of the resolution in the Integrity of Genl. Washington, but that he nor no other man ought to be armed with such unlimited powers. That they well know he would not accept the office—That if he was willing to ac-

cept it, he was better at the head of the Army than in the exercise of powers which would render him odious to the people. After a lengthy discussion the proposition was negatived.

"I was present at this discussion and could easily discover that the proposition was not relished by the people. Their feelings were of a different character; had the enemy advanced they would have risen in mass to repel them.

"I communicated these facts to you shortly after they took place.

"I am yours most sincerely
"ARCH: STUART."

PAUL LEICESTER FORD.

EARLY ITALIAN ART AT THE NEW GALLERY.

LONDON, January 6, 1894.

WHEN the managers of the New Gallery undertook to give an annual winter exhibition, they could scarce have realized the difficulties in their way. The Royal Academy long since made good its right to show, every winter, a general collection of old masters; while, from the start, the policy of the New Gallery seems to have been to ignore all contemporary work, save that of a very limited group of English artists. Its January exhibition, then, would be without reason for existence unless it illustrated a special subject or period, unless it represented a prominent man or a particular artistic interest. The resources of the Houses of Tudor, Stuart, and Guelph were speedily exhausted. Mr. Burne-Jones was made the excuse for last year's show, in many ways the most important and timely of the series. This winter the managers have fallen back upon Early Italian Art, certainly not a very novel subject.

Novelty, however, is of small consequence where art is concerned. Both the specialist to whom the tilt of a halo or the length of a finger is of paramount interest, and the student who enjoys a beautiful picture no matter to what artist it is ascribed, can always take delight in much of the work by the early Italians. Moreover, the collection appeals to sculptor and silversmith, to the book-lover and embroiderer as well, since it includes not only paintings, but examples of almost all the arts practised to such good purpose in the Italy of the Middle Ages and the Renaissance. Indeed, the exhibition is, if anything, too wide in scope: it is virtually a small museum, an annex to the National Gallery on the one side, to the South Kensington and British museums on the other, and in nearly every case artists and their work are more fully or more satisfactorily represented in the permanent collections. In the show just opened are few masterpieces of supreme note. But though the nation's treasures attract only the eager tourist and the genuine student, all London flocks to the New Gallery; so true is it, as Mr. Stevenson has said in a very different connection, that, as "long as a thing is an exhibition and you pay to see it, it is nearly certain to amuse."

The pictures, which, necessarily, are the most conspicuous of all the exhibits, represent a long period in Italian art: from 1300 to 1550—from Giotto to Correggio. There are few masters, however, who do not make a worthier showing at the National Gallery, interesting as, here and there, may prove a single example—Botticelli's portrait of Esmeralda Bandinelli, the model for the chief figure in his "Spring," which once belonged to Rossetti, to mention one noteworthy instance. The Primitives, who here occupy two of the large rooms, can never be brought together in numbers without forcing the honest critic to admit their limitations, which their followers to-day would extol as virtues. Besides, as a rule, their pictures were always painted with a definite object. They were meant to fill and ornament a certain space. From altarpiece to altarpiece one turns, wearied by the monotony of gold backgrounds, shining halos, traditional groups and poses; though each, seen in its proper place above the altar and tabernacle, with rows of tall candles flaming in front, might be altogether delightful—a masterpiece, perhaps, which one would travel miles to see. It is the same with pictures designed for household decoration. It was a capital idea to show two beautiful old gilded *cassoni*, with high back, or reredos, just as they stood in palace hall or chamber, since for the ornamentation of luxurious chests just like them were painted so many of the long narrow panels now hanging on the walls. And it is curious to find how the composition, which in ordinary frame seems tedious and bewildering, in its proper place, let in the front or back of a *cassone*, is at once recognized to be altogether right. To look at old work in modern exhibitions is really to misjudge it. It was never intended to stand the test of such surroundings. But now and then one chances upon a painting whose loveliness asserts itself despite every drawback. The catalogue may send one in search of the Giottos and Crivellis, the Lionardos and Raphaels, but the pictures at the New Gallery which charm at the most casual glance, and lose nothing by closer study, are such exquisite litttle impressions of color as Taddeo Gaddi has given in a "Death of the Virgin" and an "Adoration of the Magi," and Masaccio in an "Incident in the Life of St. John Gualbert" and a "Flying Angel"; such fine designs as an unknown artist has produced in a row of "Angels Chanting," or Botticelli (according to the catalogue) in the "Nastagio degli Onesti," a story from the Decameron, by no means typical of his methods, but one of those old combinations of architecture, landscape, and tall slim youths which always prove so eminently decorative. What matter if, in the course of ages, the names of the artists to whom these are attributed have become confused, when the paintings themselves remain to delight? But the strongest work really is in the portraits, which allowed the painters greater freedom than Scriptural and mythological subjects, so long the stock-in-trade of the studios. There is character enough in a strange portrait of a lady with severe white profile and rich brocaded gown, by Pietro della Francesca, or in another, by Beltraffio, of a stately middle-aged woman in rich attire; in both are faces that haunt one afterward. There are some half-dozen more, none of world-wide fame, which are stamped with an individuality and a keenness of observation sought for in vain in the majority of Madonnas and saints.

The number of drawings might, with profit to the student, be far greater. The old men let themselves go in their sketches with a vivacity and vigor too often sacrificed in their finished work, done no less to please their patrons than themselves. The best are contributed from the royal collections, which would be of small use but for these loan exhibitions. Not one but is worthy of special study. Fra Angelico and Botticelli, Signorelli, and Perugino, Lionardo, Raphael and Michelangelo, all are represented; but I think none exceeds in interest the many examples of Lionardo, showing as they do the contrast between his methods when putting in roughly, in chalk, a head or a figure, and when making, in pen and ink and red crayon, more elaborate memoranda of minute details in flowers and foliage. Nor have I ever seen, even in the Sistine Chapel, a composition by Michelangelo more vigorous than a drawing in crayon of men shooting at a mark: the expression of action given in these few inches of paper is tremendous, and the arrangement of muscular outstretched arms wonderfully decorative in its dramatic treatment. The drawing belongs to the Queen.

The section devoted to illuminated manuscripts and printed books reveals the wealth of many of the private libraries in England. There are manuscripts of the twelfth, thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth centuries, the most gorgeous coming from the old Benedictine Abbey of Monte Cassino. And the books begin, in point of age, with some of the publications of Sweynheym and Pannartz while they still ran their printing-press at Subiaco. There are exquisite examples of the Aldine press, among them several very rare editions, notably in Aldus's series of the classics, several of these reminding one that his Greek type was not a whit less beautiful than his Roman. An unusual opportunity is presented to the student of illustrated books, for examples of all the old processes used in illustration have been given a place. The very early folios show illuminated border and initial letters borrowed from the manuscripts, few lovelier than the Bible printed in Rome by Sweynheym and Pannartz. Then there are the very primitive wood-blocks, some reproducing the drawing in bare outline, others, of a later day, venturing upon greater detail, as can be seen in some curious illustrations for a poem by Frederico Fezzi, printed at Florence, and now lent to the exhibition by Mr. Burne-Jones, he evidently being in close sympathy with the artist, whoever the latter may have been. Fortunately several metal engravings used as book illustrations also appear, providing proof unmistakable of the greater freedom and refinement possible for the artist who drew on metal than for the draughtsman who made his drawing on the wood-block and the wood-cutter who tried to follow his lines. Woodcuts printed in color attract now that M. Lepère and other French engravers are making their striking experiments in color-printing. Altogether there is no section of the show more delightful and interesting. Passed by with indifference by the general public, there is still a saving remnant upon whom its attractions are not wholly lost; a remnant presumably growing larger, if one can judge by the unexpected success of the two series of "books about books" published by Messrs. Kegan Paul and Messrs. Bell & Sons.

To attempt to enumerate all the other exhibits would be to make a catalogue. Perhaps most important are the lovely little bronzes, many of them attributed to Donatello and his school. There is a good display also of the old portrait medals, from which Ringel has borrowed inspiration for his medallions, which, in their turn, have influenced so many contemporary sculptors. Small justice is done to Italian embroidery and majolica. Of marbles and terracottas, which were the great glory of the period in question, there are all too few. Jewels, however, are shown in great number, many of them fantastic enough, and the large proportion having but recently found their way to England from the Spitzer collection. Englishmen may reveal incredibly bad taste in the purchase of modern pictures, but the annual loan exhibitions prove the supply of good old work in England to be almost inexhaustible.

N. N.

SABATIER'S ST. FRANCIS OF ASSISI.

PARIS, January 18, 1894.

THE 'Life of Saint Francis of Assisi,' by M. Paul Sabatier, has had five editions already in a short period. In our frivolous time, it is not easy at first to understand the success of a work of hagiography; but M. Sabatier's hagiography is not of the ordinary kind. He is not a Catholic priest, he is a Protestant, and he has applied to the study of Saint Francis the severe method of modern history. He has judged the thirteenth century through our modern ideas, he has perhaps not rid himself enough of these modern ideas. There is some exaggeration in his generalizations, as in these, for instance :

"The great movement of ideas in the thirteenth century is before all a religious movement, which presents a double character: it is popular and it is laic. It proceeds from the entrails of the people, and, with much uncertainty, it aims at nothing less than wresting sacred things from the hands of the clergy. The conservatives of our time who turn towards the thirteenth century as towards the golden age of authoritative faith, make a singular mistake. If it is *par excellence* the century of saints, it is also the century of heretics."

There is some exaggeration also in the affirmation that the mendicant orders formed a sort of Internationalism, stronger than the modern socialist Internationalism. Again, M. Sabatier describes the Gothic cathedrals as the expression and the triumph of communal institutions; he calls them "the lay churches of the thirteenth century, built by the people and for the people, the true communal houses of our old cities—museums, granaries, chambers of commerce, palaces of justice, depots of archives, even 'bourses de travail.'" This expression, "bourse de travail," which is eminently modern, shows that M. Sabatier was not living altogether in the thirteenth century when he wrote his history; fortunately, the historical method, the use of the original documents, has constantly brought him back to the thirteenth century, and has not allowed his imagination or his passion to wander too far from it.

M. Sabatier is right when he says that the saints of the thirteenth century played the part of the old prophets of Israel. They were apostles, like Saint Paul, not in virtue and in consequence of a canonical consecration, but as following the impulse of the spirit. Saint Francis of Assisi was preëminently a saint of this sort; he owed nothing to the Church, and always refused to be ordained a priest. Before entering upon his biography M. Sabatier has a long critical study of the documents which he has used. These are, first, the works of the saint himself, which give, to be sure, very few facts concerning his life, but which give us his ideas exactly. The opuscules of Francis, which are a sort of encyclicals to the Brothers, were not published till 1623 at Antwerp by Wadding. Then come the biographies; the first in date and in importance is that written by Thomas of Celano. There is also a certain number of diplomatic documents, Donations, papal bulls; and finally the numerous chronicles of the order. To the biography of Thomas of Celano we must add also the 'Legend of the Three Companions,' the Brothers who lived on terms of intimacy with Francis, though this legend is only a fragment of the original, which had already been mutilated.

If history has a natural tendency to transform itself into legends even in the case of kings and emperors, how much more must this tendency be marked when the hero is a man like Francis, who deals only with the moral forces of the world. Francis was born at Assisi about 1182. His father, Pietro Bernardone, sold silks and cloths and was a rich man; he travelled much and brought his wares to the great fairs of Italy and France. Francis led a very profligate life in his youth. Thomas of Celano and the three Companions speak discreetly of this part of the life of the saint, but we are led to understand that he acquired a sort of celebrity by his excesses, his prodigalities; he was vain, and tried to surpass all the young men of his age in their vices as well as in their bravery. In a battle fought by Assisi against Perugia he was made prisoner and remained a whole year in captivity. He was twenty-two years old when he returned to his native town, and he recommenced his life of pleasure, spending all his time in debauchery. He finally became ill, and this illness was probably the first step towards his reformation. When his health returned, he left Assisi in order to join at Spoleto a knight who was going to make war in the south of Italy. The evening of his departure, he had a vision which decided him to return to Assisi, notwithstanding the remarks of his companions. He now began to change his mode of life, and wandered constantly in the country round Assisi; he entered into a grotto, where he remained alone for hours weeping, full of horror at the disorders of his youth. One day he invited his friends to a repast, which lasted till the middle of the night. His guests were struck by his melancholy; one of them said: "Don't you see? He is thinking of taking a wife." "Yes," said Francis, with a strange smile, "I am thinking of taking a wife more handsome, more rich, more pure than you can imagine."

No purely ecclesiastical influence had worked on Francis; he was moved simply by remorse as well as by the spectacle of the terrible misery which continual civil wars had inflicted on his country. He was influenced also by the great and mysterious charm of nature, a charm which can nowhere be better felt than in those Umbrian landscapes which have inspired so many great painters. He made a journey to Rome, but Rome did little for him; he was shocked in the basilica of Saint Peter to see how small were the offerings of the pilgrims. He threw all the money he had at the feet of the Prince of the Apostles, exchanged clothes with a beggar, and for a whole day made himself a beggar. His ideal was now formed: it was the total abandonment of all the pleasures and goods of this world. On his return to Assisi, in order to test himself, he became a visitor to the unfortunate lepers, who were living apart. His victory over the flesh was complete.

He could live no longer in his father's house. Bernardone did not understand his transformation, and disapproved of his new style of prodigality, as Francis gave all he had to mendicants. Francis spent most of his time in the little chapel of Saint Damian, near Assisi, on the top of a small hill, amidst pines and cypresses. He had spiritual visions, perhaps hallucinations; he was in the habit of gazing for hours on the crucifix in the chapel. He decided to leave his father's roof, and first set out on horseback for Foligno. There he sold his horse and returned to the chapel of Saint Damian. He hid himself for many days, as his father was looking for him, and came with some neighbors to bring him back home by force. After a while he reappeared at Assisi, in rags, and the children ran after him, screaming, "Crazy man! crazy man!" Bernardone shut him up, and dragged him before an ecclesiastical tribunal. Francis appeared before the bishop; he retired for a moment to another room, and reappeared completely naked, holding his clothes in his arms, with a little money, which he still had. "Hear me all," said he. "I have thus far called Bernardone my father, but now I will serve God. I therefore give back to him this money for which he has tormented me so much, as well as my clothes, which I have received from him, for from this moment I will say only, 'My Father, who art in heaven.'" The bishop had to give Francis a mantle to cover him when he retired. This extraordinary scene, the seriousness, the ardor of Francis, his conversion, could not but produce a great effect in a little place like Assisi.

Francis was now free; he made it his object to restore the chapel of Saint Damian, which was falling into ruin, and afterwards another, the Portiuncula; he became a beggar for God. It is necessary to dwell on this first period of the Franciscan movement; it is the period of inspiration, of enthusiasm, when Francis said to his first disciples what the crucifix in the little chapel of Saint Damian had said to him: "Heal the sick, cleanse the lepers, raise the dead, cast out devils: freely ye have received, freely give. Provide neither gold, nor silver, nor brass in your purses; nor scrip for your journey, neither two coats, neither shoes, nor yet staves." On the little altar of the Portiuncula Francis had abandoned his own self; he had made himself a knight of a new chivalry—the chivalry which was to combat the monster egotism, the chivalry of sacrifice and of universal love, the chivalry of Christ.

After the first years of apostolate, when Francis contented himself with spreading the gospel of charity, and surrounded himself with a few disciples, carried away by his enthusiasm, there came another period of organization. Francis had to deal with the powers of the Church. The first Brothers had no "Rules," but they increased so rapidly in number that it became necessary to establish some regulations. The Bishop of Assisi interfered first; all the clergy were instinctively hostile to the new lay preachers. Francis never thought for a moment of entering into conflict with the Church, he never dreamt of a heresy; he went to Rome after he had established his "Rules," and submitted them to the Pope, Innocent III. These first "Rules" were simplicity itself; they were chiefly constructed out of certain passages of the Gospel. Francis took eleven of his disciples with him to Rome, thinking, perhaps, of the twelve apostles. Giotto, who covered with immortal frescoes the walls of the church of Assisi, chose as one of his subjects the presentation of Francis. The Pope is on his throne and looks with distrust and severity on the pilgrim. Francis was examined and cross-examined; it was difficult, however, not to approve "Rules" which were mere quotations from the Bible. The Pope approved the "Rules," and, after having tried in vain to persuade the new Brothers to enter into an existing order, he allowed them to remain independent, on condition that they should choose a Superior, to whom the ecclesiastical authority would always address itself. Francis was naturally chosen, and thus the new Brotherhood was founded. The lay creation of the first period became an ecclesiastical institution, and, in a certain sense, it can be said that the Franciscan movement was almost immediately transformed.

M. Sabatier gives with many interesting details the story of the life of Francis after his return to Assisi, of the development of the new

order, of the missions of Francis. He always liked to return to the small chapels where he had had his first visions and had felt his own transformation. One of the finest pictures of the modern school is that of Saint Francis carried by the Brethren before Assisi, when he was at the point of death. "He had expressed," says M. Sabatier, "the desire to die near the humble chapel of the Portiuncula, where he had heard the voice of God which consecrated him as an apostle. His companions, with their precious burden, took the path through the plain among the olive trees. From time to time the sick man, who could no longer distinguish anything, asked where he was. When they were half way, in front of the hospital of the Crucigeri, where he had taken care of the lepers, at a point where it is possible to see at a glance all the houses of the city, he asked to be placed sitting towards Assisi, and, lifting his hand, he blessed his native country."

Correspondence.

THE SUPERINTENDENT OF INDIAN SCHOOLS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The retention of William T. Harris as Commissioner of Education has been noted with pleasure by the teachers of the country. This will undoubtedly, as it should, have the effect of removing the incumbency of this important position permanently from the influence of partisan considerations. Another appointment has recently been announced which deserves more than a passing notice. This will also receive the general approval of teachers, as well as of all who take a lively interest in educational progress. My reference is to the selection of William N. Hailmann, recently superintendent of the Laporte (Indiana) schools, as superintendent of the Indian schools. I believe the appointment to be an admirable one. Dr. Hailmann is well known as one of the most progressive and philosophical of the professional superintendents of the country. If the Indian schools could be entirely removed from partisan considerations, and directed for a series of years by such a man as Dr. Hailmann, the result would be immensely beneficial to the "wards of the nation." Let us hope that such may be the case. President Cleveland having shown his disregard of partisanship in educational interests by retaining Dr. Harris, is it too much to hope that subsequent administrations, whatever their party affiliations, will apply the same principle to the Indian schools?

W. P. Beckwith,
Superintendent of Schools.

Adams, Mass., January 29, 1894.

THE UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Several times recently (once in the *Nation*) comparisons have been made between the Eastern (privately endowed) universities and those of the West which rest upon legislative appropriations. In none of these instances has the University of Illinois been mentioned. The following statistics will doubtless show that the omission is hardly just. The attendance in 1888 was 327; in 1893 it was 728, 40 per cent. of which increase has occurred within the past two years. The total income from the founding of the university in 1867 to 1890 was $449,000. The last two Legislatures have appropriated $430,000. Within five years the faculty list has increased from 29 to 61. As the university has no professional schools connected with it, this advance is satisfactory. Within the past two years, also, the courses of study have been rearranged so as to make, it is believed, the best possible solution of the question of requirements and elections. Students have options from the start, but they are kept within judicious limits both as to kind and as to the time during which such options must be pursued. The work of the university is carried on in five large buildings and several smaller ones. Last year a natural-history building was dedicated, the cost of which was $70,000, and an engineering hall is now being constructed at a cost of $160,000.

Under the circumstances it would appear that any mention of the larger and progressive Western State universities ought not to omit that of the State of Illinois.

Charles M. Moss.

Champaign, Ill.

THE TARIFF ON BOOKS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A recent article in the *Nation* prompts me to send you the enclosed cutting, showing how the foreigner pays the tariff. In the present consideration of tariff reform little is said about the duty on English books, although I have never seen a good reason for its existence. You will observe that the American edition of Ewald's 'Diseases of the Stomach,' price $5, is sold by subscription only—that is, without discount. As nothing is said about the price of the English edition (16s.) being "net," it is quite probable it is sold with the usual English discount of 25 per cent.—I am, sir, yours truly,

George Dock.

Ann Arbor, Mich., February 3, 1894.

THE CROWN'S VETO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your review of Prof. Woodrow Wilson's book 'An Old Master' (*Nation* No. 1488) the following statement occurs:

"Prof. Wilson knows, though many of his readers do not know, *that the veto of the Crown has been obsolete for more than two centuries*, and that there is no power that can revise or disapprove an act of Parliament."

The statement in italics is an error, if the authorities are to be believed.

"The prerogative of the crown to withhold the royal assent has not been exercised since the 11th of March, 1707, when Queen Anne refused her assent to 'a bill for settling the militia of that part of Great Britain called Scotland.'" (See Bacon's Abridgement [Bouvier's ed.], vol. ii., p. 672.)

The error is a small one; but, inasmuch as a book review would seem to be one of those "subjects that demand a cautious pen," it may not be amiss to call attention to it.

Respectfully, A. R. Strother.

Kansas City, Mo., January 10, 1894.

[Blackstone, Story, Kent, and Paschal say that the royal prerogative was last exercised by William III. in 1692, though there is a note in late editions of Story which agrees with the citation of our correspondent. If it was, indeed, exercised by Queen Anne in 1707 (and we have no reason to question the statement), it is remarkable that such a fact should have eluded the attention of so many painstaking authors and their many annotators.—Ed. Nation.]

DESCENDANTS OF CROMWELL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I hardly understand the letter on this topic printed in your issue of February 1. Cromwell has many descendants living. About a year ago Mr. James Waylen printed 'The House of Cromwell,' etc., and gave the names of many families descended in the female line from the Great Protector. I should say that the number is to be measured by hundreds. For example: Elizabeth, daughter of the last male Cromwell, married in 1801 Thomas A. Russell and had nine children, six of whom had issue. Anne Cromwell, daughter of Thomas, married in 1753 John Field, a prolific stock. Frances, fourth daughter of the Protector, married secondly Sir John Russell, Bart., and was the "ancestress of numerous and widespreading groups of Cromwellian descendants."

Mr. Waylen's book is ill-arranged, and I do not find the Gardiners noticed therein; but there is no improbability in the alleged descent of Prof. S. R. Gardiner. W. H. W.

Boston, February 3, 1894.

THE ANTI-FOREIGN SPIRIT IN JAPAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: When, about five years ago, the anti-foreign spirit in Japan was becoming intense, thoughtful foreigners who had studied carefully the condition of affairs, looked upon that sentiment as only a natural reaction from the wholesale adoption of foreign civilization, the swallowing of undigested material, which followed the "opening" of Japan. They were also confident that a re-reaction would soon come, which would lead to a policy of selection, adaptation, and assimilation, and would bring about a more moderate rate of progress along the lines of Occidental civilization.

But even yet this anti-foreign spirit, instead of subsiding, has apparently grown stronger. It seems as if never, since the excessive *joi* agitation of the '60's, has this feeling been so intense. It evidently reached a great height in the recent session of the Imperial Diet, which was so disorderly that the Emperor was compelled to resort to dissolution of the House of Representatives. It is true that the disorder in the early part of the session was in connection with disciplining the President (Mr. Hoshi) of the Lower House; but, although that body allowed political feeling to carry it to the expulsion of its President, not even prorogation was employed by the Government until the House of Representatives was on the point of considering favorably an address to the throne relative to the strict enforcement of the treaties. While this subject was proper and debatable, the tone of the address was so intensely anti-foreign that it would surely have caused offence to nations whose good-will it is important to retain. The Government, therefore, twice prorogued and then dissolved the Diet, and has "publicly expresssd its determination to resist all anti-foreign bills."

It is, therefore, at the door of the present treaties, so unjust and galling to Japan in its high stage of advancement in civilization, that the continuance and the excess of the anti-foreign spirit may be laid. The intense pride and patriotism of the Japanese cannot easily endure the thraldom of extra-territoriality and other restrictions. They desire, not without some reasonableness, that the restraints on

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foreigners be strictly enforced; and they go to an extreme, some of them, in the bitterness of their feelings against foreigners. It may or may not be good policy, but it is at least one way to demonstrate the injustice of the treaties, and the necessity, in the interest of all parties, of a revision. The anti-foreign spirit in Japan is regrettable, unreasonable, and unnecessarily violent, and it is excusable only in view of the provocation indicated above.

The elections for members of the House of Representatives will unquestionably be exciting. A friend in whose dispassionate judgment I have the utmost confidence, has just written me from Yokohama: "I fear that there will be much bloodshed." The contest between the Government and the Opposition, even though not sanguinary, will be bitter. Representative institutions are now, in Japan, undergoing a severe test, the result of which will naturally be watched here with intense interest. The Japanese must, however, "work out" their own political "salvation with fear and trembling," as other peoples have done; and, unless the true and best friends of the Japanese have mistaken their character, and have misplaced confidence, they will succeed. But it is not at all unlikely that Japan, like many another nation, will achieve its political salvation "so as by fire."

ERNEST W. CLEMENT.

CHICAGO, January 27, 1894.

Notes.

CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS have in press the second volume of Pasquier's Memoirs (1812-1814) and 'Basal Concepts of Philosophy,' by Prof. Alexander T. Ormond of Princeton.

A thorough working over of an older biography, by the same hand, the 'Life and Art of Joseph Jefferson,' by William Winter, and 'Social Evolution,' by Benjamin Kidd, are announced by Macmillan & Co.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will soon bring out 'Cartier to Frontenac,' by Justin Winsor; 'A Poet's Portfolio,' by W. W. Story; and 'In Exile, and Other Stories,' by Mary Hallock Foote.

The Burrows Brothers Co., Cleveland, have in preparation a handsome reprint of the Lincoln and Douglas debates, limited to 750 copies, sold to subscribers.

No explanation is given of the two American editions of 'The Renaissance in Italy,' abridged from the ample three-part work of the late J. A. Symonds by his friend, Lt.-Col. Alfred Pearson. That of the Messrs. Scribner is a large octavo in the English manner and of English make; that of Henry Holt & Co. is a handy duodecimo, seemingly manufactured here, but a close copy of the other, even *punctuatim*. The frontispiece portraits differ. So discursive a writer as Mr. Symonds lent himself ill to condensation, and so large a subject still less readily. What remains in Col. Pearson's summary has certainly lost the charm inherent in the amplitude of detail with which Mr. Symonds was wont to display his learning and research. By way of compensation, the section on Literature has been so purged, of necessity, that it is now *virginibus puerisque*. The result is something akin to a text-book, with an index.

M. Paul Gaulot's Life of Count Fersen, the fast friend and devoted admirer of Marie Antoinette, has been admirably translated into English by Mrs. Cashel Hoey (D. Appleton & Co.). M. Gaulot has thrown much new light on the characters of the two persons whose lives were so closely interwoven during the terrible years of the French Revolution, and his bright, rapid, easy style of writing has been excellently reproduced by a translator who has given the spirit as well as the form of the original. And what a stirring story it is that M. Gaulot has to tell; even when one knows its incidents by heart, one is attracted by a new telling of it.

George H. Richmond & Co., New York, have brought out in a dainty volume that charming story of George Sand's, 'La Petite Fadette,' translated by Miss Jane Minot Sedgwick. The translation is good, on the whole, often excellent, and the quaint, simple language of the original does not lose much by its transposition into another tongue. The promised translations of 'François le Champi' and 'La Mare au Diable' will be very welcome if they are done as well as this one. But why such a poor portrait of George Sand? It is in nowise like her at any period of her life, certainly less true than Couture's, which is easily accessible, or than the photographs taken in later life. The paper, printing, and general appearance of the book are to be unreservedly commended.

'Essais et Études,' by the late Émile de Laveleye, is the first of two and possibly three volumes, in which the great economist's widow proposes to collect some of the more remarkable articles which appeared at various times in different periodicals. This is simply continuing what Laveleye had begun in his 'Questions Contemporaines,' and the choice of articles in the present volume fully justifies their republication. The more important ones are "Le Mouvement littéraire en France depuis 1830," which originally appeared in 1862, and is well worth reading and pondering over now—Lemaitre's famous "Nous avons la piété sans la foi" is anticipated here; that on "La nouvelle Politique russe"; and that on "Le Protestantisme et le Catholicisme dans leurs rapports avec la liberté et la prospérité des peuples." The last named made a very great sensation at the time, and was translated into nearly every European tongue. It has lost none of its interest at the present day, a Japanese translation having appeared last year.

Homans's 'Banker's Almanac, Register and Legal Directory' for 1894 contains the customary complete and careful summary of banks, private bankers, trust companies, and safe deposit companies in the United States and Canada, with lists of bank capital and surplus, officers, directors, and miscellaneous information. The 'Almanac' is edited, as usual, by Mr. Albert S. Bolles.

The new volume (iii.) of the Johns Hopkins Hospital Reports, independently of its professional value, is noticeable from the fact that for the first time the name of a woman physician appears in its select list of writers. Of the five doctors contributing sixteen papers to the gynecological report (Nos. 7, 8, 9, Report in Gynecology, ii.), Mary Sherwood, M.D., is the only one not officially connected with the medical department, although the investigations for one of her papers, "Potassium permanganate and oxalic acid as germicides against the pyogenic cocci," were carried on at the Hopkins pathological laboratory. Dr. Sherwood is an encouraging instance of the value of training regardless of sex. Having graduated at Vassar in 1883, and been refused admission to the College of Physicians and Surgeons of New York (on the logical plea that "it could not be done, as it never had been done before"), she went to Europe for her medical education, and took the M.D. degree at the University of Zurich in 1890. For the past two years she has worked from time to time in the Johns Hopkins pathological laboratories, and during the summer of 1893 she held, by courtesy, a "substitute" appointment as "assistant resident gynecologist" at the hospital. A recent resolution of the medical board prevents (on the ground of present inexpediency) Dr. Sherwood, or any other woman physician, from holding a bona-fide hospital appointment—this in spite of co-education in the Johns Hopkins Medical School.

The twenty-fourth edition of Rand, McNally & Co.'s 'Business Atlas and Shippers' Guide' presents an enlargement commensurate with the growth of the country in railroads and post-offices. The maps have been materially increased in number, notably in the case of the great cities, the West Indies, and Central and South America. As heretofore, information is compactly given in each map-index as to location, railway, and mail connection, money-order and express facilities, and population. For the United States this is unquestionably the most convenient key to the census of 1890 in respect of inhabitants. It seems to leave nothing to be desired for commercial uses.

The first of the "Papers from the Historical Seminary of Brown University" is by Neil Andrews, A.B., on "The Development of the Nominating Convention in Rhode Island," in which this State seems to have been a pioneer. That the last stage was better than the first can be confidently asserted only in the particular that the masses were satisfied with the change which took nominations out of the hands of a few. A grievance (and no doubt an abuse) was removed, but nominations are still (in Rhode Island and everywhere else) the work of the few, all appearances to the contrary notwithstanding.

It is a pleasure to record the survival of the fittest in the case of *Garden and Forest*, whose sixth bound volume, for the year 1893, lies before us. Whether on the side of horticulture, landscape art, or forestry, its special objects, it shows no falling off from its high standard, and its pictorial selections continue fresh and admirable.

Apropos of the citation from Lorenzo Dow in these columns last week illustrating the use of the word "tote," we observe in the *New England Magazine* for January the thing—the mode of transporting tobacco at the South—described without the name. The relator is a Yankee, Hezekiah Prince of Thomaston, Me., and pardonably unfamiliar with the dialect of Virginia, through which he made a horseback journey just a hundred years ago. In his diary for January 1, 1794, he records: "From Fredericksburg to Bowling Green. . . . Large fields of tobacco all along the way, and the negroes rolling the barrels along the road to market."

The *Illustrated Archæologist* for December, 1893 (London: Charles J. Clark), is an excellent example of this high-class yet popular quarterly. The leading paper, abundantly illustrated, describes the excavation of one of the numerous massive Pictish round towers to be found in Scotland, and touches upon the general question of their construction and use. The paper on the Celtic brooch will attract by its beautiful specimens; here the comparison is with similar ornaments worn by the Kabyles of Algeria. Mr. W. Flinders Petrie contributes a colored drawing of parts of a painted pavement unearthed at Tel el-Amarna, and assigned to 1400 B. C. The action of cattle and of geese rising on the wing is caught with surprising skill and with real decorative feeling.

Means of publication of geological essays are certainly well provided in this country. Besides the reports of the national and the various State geological surveys, besides the proceedings of the scattered scientific societies, there is the Bulletin of the Geological Society of America, edited in Washington, now in its fifth year, the Chicago *Journal of Geology*, which we recently noticed, and the *American Geologist*, a monthly journal published in Minneapolis by an association of editors, now in its seventh year. The Bulletin is the recognized medium of publication for the Fellows of the Society, among whom only geologists of some standing are included, while the *Geologist* serves alike for beginners and more practised hands. Papers by local observers are particularly appropriate in the latter journal; one of the best of this kind is the account of the rock gorges of northern Illinois, by O. H. Hershey, in the November number.

The publications of the Geological Survey of Arkansas still proceed, although the director of the survey, Prof. J. C. Branner, has for more than a year past been resident at the Leland Stanford University. The latest volume is by T. C. Hopkins, on marbles and other limestones, with a pocket of colored map-sheets. This report is on the same extended plan as those by Penrose on the manganese deposits, and by Griswold on novaculites or whetstones; the intention of the director of the survey manifestly being to educate the people as to the utility of their mineral possessions, as well as to inform them of the distribution of useful materials.

The *Geographische Abhandlungen*, edited by Prof. A. Penck of the University of Vienna, (Hölzel), contains a recent number by Dr. J. Cvijic of Belgrade, on the *Karst*-phenomena, for which we have no suitable expression. It is an exhaustive treatment of the topographic forms of limestone regions, including sink-holes, enclosed valleys, and other forms still nameless with us. The freer employment of illustrations would greatly increase the value of these excellent essays.

The French Government has recently established a chair for instruction in colonial geography at the Sorbonne, and the inaugural lecture of the new professor, M. Marcel Dubois, is published in the *Annales de Géographie* for January. He dwells upon the claims of geography to be regarded as a department of education of equal value with history, and quite as essential for the right understanding of history. In an interesting passage at the close he attributes the comparative ill success of the French as colonists to the fact that they are not the slaves of industry and commerce, and are consequently not greedy of gain, less eager (and less prompt because less eager) to develop the resources of countries and peoples; that, consistently respecting the rights of the natives in their foreign possessions to the soil, they have sacrificed wealth to philanthropy. Among the other articles in this periodical, which are nearly all of a purely scientific character, is one upon the geology of the Alps, and one showing the changes in the French frontier in the same region since the sixteenth century, both accompanied by maps. There is also an interesting account of the efforts made to reclaim and colonize the moors of northwestern Germany.

—The February *Atlantic* is rich in matter of biographical and political interest. Senator Dawes gives his recollections of Stanton during Lincoln's administration, and others write of the late Hamilton Fish and of Tammany Hall. To be remarked, also, are Dr. Holmes's verses to the "brave, bright memory" of Francis Parkman, the last of those "that wove their pictured webs in history's loom." Mr. Horace Scudder's statement of what he calls the educational law of reading and writing will be of interest to all who have to do with the training of children in secondary schools. His thesis is that writing, *i. e*, expression, that normal sign of a child's intellectual and imaginative growth, should not be forced at any point of his training; that, as to reading, great literature, and only great literature, should be put into the pupil's hands throughout the common course, and that this should be "read for delight and not as an exercise in grammar, history, biography, criticism, or for any of the minor ends which constantly thrust themselves forward in place of this human joy in great and beautiful things." A view that not only lays such great stress upon this method of training and assisting the growth of the imagination in children, but is so emphatic about the supreme importance of emotional or æsthetic rather than intellectual growth, is strikingly in contrast with recent conceptions, also usually expressed in dogmatic fashion, of the permanent value of training in the observation and correlation of mere facts. Both ideals—the ideal of fiction and the idea of fact—will doubtless be mutually corrective. It is perhaps worth noting, however, that even now fiction plays a singularly large rôle in the reading of pupils who are beyond the secondary schools.

—Besides the usual quota of dialectical fiction the *Century* contains two stories that cannot escape comparison and contrast—the vigorously sketched tale of "Pudd'nhead Wilson," genuinely and solidly American in subject and treatment, and a ridiculous yarn, in the popular pseudo-Oriental manner, which deals with the love and adventures of no less a hero than Abraham, who performs the thrilling acrobatic feat of jumping from the top of a huge heathen altar with Sarah and a baby in his arms. It is at this juncture that Sarah, whose name is pleasantly disguised as Iskah, invents one of the ten commandments, to which Abraham (that is to say, Abu-ramu) shortly afterwards is so fortunate as to add another. This is taking Oscar Wilde at his word when he says that our only duty towards history is to rewrite it as fast as we can in forms more pleasing than the rugged facts will themselves allow. To most people it will seem better taste and better judgment to let the Bible stories alone. At a time when heads of families are still publicly persecuting such as dare to treat the Biblical records as history, it is hard to realize that the younger generation is reading with avidity versions of the same records in the form of sensational fiction *à la* Rider Haggard.

—In *Harper's* and *Scribner's* there is a good deal that is pleasant, but very little that is noteworthy. The former contains a characteristic farce by Mr. Howells, an interesting article by Dr. Samuel Scudder on the curious insects known as walking-sticks, and a beautifully illustrated sketch of Western life by Mr. Remington; the latter an article on Burne-Jones by Mr. Cosmo Monkhouse, a description of the devastation on the Sea Islands, and of the relief work, by Joel Chandler Harris, and the first part of an autobiographical account of voyages made to the West Indies in the early part of the century by Peter Grotjan, then a young German merchant in Philadelphia. Exception must be made, however, in favor of George du Maurier's continued story, "Trilby," in *Harper's*, which is the best fiction of the older school that the magazines have permitted the public to enjoy for a long while.

—Admirers of Bossuet will read eagerly the volume on 'Madame,' or memoirs of the Princess Henrietta, daughter of Charles I. and Duchess of Orleans, by Julia Cartwright (Mrs. Henry Ady). It is by Bossuet's magnificent funeral oration that the lovely Princess is best known, but that masterpiece of eloquence cannot be fully appreciated without a larger knowledge than it affords of Henrietta's singular grace, winning charms, and many talents. This knowledge Mrs. Ady's book gives. She writes sympathetically of Madame, not blind to her faults, but giving them their just weight, and no more, in the composition of the Princess's character. She has been fortunate enough to obtain the complete correspondence between Henrietta and her brother, Charles II., preserved in the archives of the French Foreign Office, and is thus enabled to give it for the first time in its original form. Students of the history of those days will be duly grateful for this part of the work; students of literature will enjoy the many glimpses of the brilliant age of letters in which the young Princess played no small part, having linked with her own the names of Corneille, Racine, Molière, and Bossuet. Mrs. Ady has carefully estimated such evidence as is at hand concerning the sudden and still mysterious death of Henrietta. In spite of the open hostility of the Chevalier de Lorraine, the favorite of the Duke of Orleans, and of the report, generally credited at the time, that, with or without the Duke's knowledge and connivance, he had caused a deadly poison to be administered to Henrietta, the authoress comes to the conclusion that death was due to natural causes acting on an enfeebled frame and aggravated by the Princess's own imprudence. Her description of the death scene is well written, but in that respect is simply on a par with the rest of the book, which is interesting from the first page to the last, and gives the reader a living picture of Madame.

—The latest issue (No. 31) of the "Sammlung Goeschen" (Stuttgart), Prof. Max Koch's 'Geschichte der deutschen Literatur,' is a marvel of completeness and cheapness. It is a neat volume of 278 pages, well printed on good paper, bound in cloth, giving a clear and condensed sketch of the history of German literature from the earliest times to the present day, and costing only eighty pfennigs (twenty cents). The first seventy-eight pages cover the pagan period and the middle ages till the year 1500; about equal space is given to the Reformation and the Renaissance (1500-1748), while the rest of the work is devoted to the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries (1748-1893). An excellent index greatly enhances the value of the whole, and in connection with each subdivision of the book is given a succinct and carefully selected bibliography, indicating the principal sources to be consulted by those who wish to pursue the subject further. We have noticed a few errors in dates, probably misprints, as, *e. g.*, when Ludwig the German is said to have died in 816 instead of 876, and Heinrich (here called Harry) Heine to have been born in 1797 instead of 1799. There are also some serious omissions: in the province of the "Dorfgeschichte" Melchior Meyr deserves a place by the side of Bitzius, Immermann, and Auerbach; and mention should have been made of such origi-

nal writers as W. F. Riehl and Franz Trautmann. There is, however, not much to complain of in this respect, and the little volume fairly sets forth the chief tendencies in German literature, including even the most recent naturalistic school, of which Karl Bleibtreu of Berlin, W. G. Conrad of Munich, the East Prussian Hermann Sudermann, and the Silesian Gerhard Hauptmann, are the most marked representatives. Unlike most manuals of its kind, this is not a dry and tedious compendium; it is written in a necessarily concise but remarkably lucid and attractive style, and may be commended as a literary masterpiece of compressed exposition.

—Wherever public collections exist they should be regarded as an integral part of the municipal or State educational system. Thus far, however, few directors of museums and galleries have been willing to make the collections under their charge really accessible to the public, by simply written, attractive handbooks showing what the art under consideration undertook to express, and what were its principal moments. The directors of the Berlin museums, with Dr. Wm. Bode at their head, are to be congratulated on being the first to show a sense of their position as disseminators of art culture. They are publishing a series of handbooks, admirably illustrated not only with reproductions of the work at Berlin, but also of such other masterpieces as throw light on the Berlin works. The handbooks are in octavo, prettily bound; and in spite of the great number of illustrations, and the excellent print and paper, most of them sell for a mark and a half each. Dr. Bode's volume on Italian Sculpture in this series is by far the best account of the subject that has ever appeared. He has happily avoided most of the mistakes that make his edition of Burckhardt's 'Cicerone' worthless.

THREE AMERICAN ORATORS.

Speeches and Addresses of William E. Russell. Selected and Edited by Charles Theodore Russell, jr., with an introduction by Thomas Wentworth Higginson. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1894.

Speeches and Addresses of William McKinley, from his Election to Congress to the Present Time. D. Appleton & Co. 1893.

Orations and Addresses of George William Curtis. Edited by Charles Eliot Norton. Vol. I. On the Principles and Character of American Institutions, and the Duties of American Citizens, 1856-1891. Vol. II. Addresses and Reports on the Reform of the Civil Service of the United States. Harper & Bros. 1894.

SINCE the great War Governor, Andrew, Massachusetts has had not a few creditable chief executives, and two or three conspicuously able ones, of whom Gov. Russell is by far the most interesting figure. Capacity for leadership has marked his career ever since, in 1881, at the age of twenty-four, he was elected to the Common Council of his native city of Cambridge. As alderman for the two following years; for four more years as a reform mayor of Cambridge; then for five successive years the Democratic candidate for Governor, and thrice elected Governor, after two Pyrrhic defeats, he built up out of the wreck of a dispirited party a purposeful and aggressive organization with purified aims, which has done much for the elevation of the party at large. Mr. Russell's speeches, carefully selected, in the volume before us, not only contain a faithful picture of the man, his purposes and his methods, but show how singularly high the conception of public life remains in Massachusetts.

Mr. Russell does not lack humor, as his first, and delightfully playful, address as Governor to the Harvard alumni testifies; but his usual tone is grave, lit with occasional sarcasm, the bitterer because it is never intemperate or personal. He is not flippant, he does not abuse anecdote, and he is sparing of statistical illustration, but his political speeches are always addressed *ad hominem*, with an eye to the local interests at stake, and there is hardly one which is not enriched by quotation from sources so varied as to show an enormous range of reading and study; of this his Springfield speech on the tariff, his argument for the self-government of towns in his third inaugural, and his Bennington address, are, indifferently, examples.

Mr. Russell as Governor had the unusual privilege of delivering three inaugural addresses to the Legislature, and of addressing as many times his fellow-alumni of Harvard on Commencement Day, though he says it afforded him even greater pleasure to have the opportunity of expressing the good will of the Commonwealth to the Catholic College of the Holy Cross at Worcester, because it so strikingly instanced the growth of Massachusetts in liberality of religious sentiment—a liberality which encouraged the pungent recommendation in his third inaugural for the abolition of Fast Day as a public holiday. His occasional and military addresses show him to be an agreeable, tactful, and versatile speaker, who will not sacrifice his convictions to flatter his hearers. At Atlanta he says of the war: "I should be false to myself, false to you, and disloyal to the sentiment of my State and yours, if I hesitated to say that the issue of that conflict was right" (p. 19). The lucidity and freedom from exaggeration of his political speeches are unsurpassed in the long debate over tariff reform. But it is in his three inaugurals, his veto messages as Governor, and his speech on constitutional prohibition, that the highest measure of the man is to be found. The logic of that speech, ending in the conclusion, "If popular sentiment is behind prohibition, it will at once develop in statute law; if it is not, constitutional enactment will be a dead letter" (p. 14), has a characteristic force and simplicity. His veto messages possess the same quality: "If this provision [*i. e.*, the regulation of the liquor traffic], now existing in law, can be and is enforced, it covers the case sought to be reached by this bill; if it is not enforced, and cannot be, it is not more law, but more enforcement of law, which is needed" (p. 186). And again:

> "I fully sympathize with the efforts of the Legislature to lessen the hours of labor in this [*i. e.*, the fire] department, but I do not believe in the principle that the State, even to accomplish a desirable end, should interfere with the right of local self-government by the city of Boston or any other community, or should undertake by special law to control a department thereof, or to regulate its details. . . . Nor does it obviate this objection that the Act does not take effect until approved by the mayor and City Council. If this leaves to them the same power they now have, then the Act is wholly unnecessary. If it does not, then it is an interference with the right of local self-government" (pp. 214–216).

Gov. Russell's three years' administration resulted in the reform of many old abuses, and his state papers advising the concentration of power and responsibility in the executive, and, as regards the irresponsible committees, boards, and councils which have grown up in Massachusetts to cumber the administration of the laws, advising their total abolition, or, at least, the abridgment of their powers till they survive only "as a harmless concession to a conservative antiquarian sentiment" (p. 193), deserve to be read widely beyond the confines of Massachusetts.

The sixty-five speeches and addresses of Congressman McKinley average ten pages in length, and make a stout octavo which recommends itself in the preface as a contribution to the pending tariff discussion. Scattered in, however, with those which relate to the tariff are a number of more or less formal and premeditated talks on festive occasions, as to his neighbors of the Mahoning Valley, to Mr. Bowen's neighbors at Woodstock on the 4th of July, to the celebrants of Decoration Day in New York, to the alumni of Oberlin, to the Pennsylvania New England Society, to the Youngstown Young Men's Christian Association, to the Ohio State Grange, besides many pension speeches and five memorial addresses on Garfield, Grant, Hayes, Logan, and W. D. Kelley. Perhaps, therefore, we may not unjustly regard this compilation as in its principal intent a Presidential candidate's propitiation of his fellow-citizens. It certainly affords no intellectual interest whatever. The rhetoric is that of an untrained man, with a narrow and thoroughly commonplace mind, deficient in humor, and absolutely devoid of originality or of any elevation of sentiment. Mr. McKinley is a complacent chauvinist, who holds it "a common thing to say, but a good thing to say, because it is true, that we have the best Government in the world," and who defines the Columbian Exposition as, "in its highest sense, the hallelujah of the universe for the triumph of civil liberty and Christian civilization." In extravagant spread-eagleism Mr. Jefferson Brick might have taken lessons of him. "From small beginnings," he tells the Oberlin alumni, "you have reached a rank scarcely second to the best institutions of the country or the world." "General Logan's military career," he affirms, "standing alone, would have given him a high place in history and a secure one in the hearts of his countrymen. General Logan's legislative career, standing alone, would have given him an enduring reputation, associating his name with some of the most important legislation of the time and the century. But united, they present a combination of forces and of qualities, they present a success in both careers almost unrivalled in the history of men."

Passages like these serve to lighten the dulness of Mr. McKinley's oratory; but his tariff argumentation is a melancholy proof of the effect of the protection dogma in undermining the reasoning powers of its advocates. We see the constant tendency to personify abstract ideas and concrete objects which has played such havoc with the American understanding in the case of the currency, *e. g.*: "Our protective system was never in rebellion against the United States; it has always been for the Union, and against its enemies, whether at home or abroad. It has always sustained the flag of the country. It sustained Washington and Jackson, Lincoln and Grant and their armies in their great work for the establishment, safety, and perpetuity of the Union." Any occurrence "under that tariff" (high or low as the case may be) is treated at pleasure as a result of the tariff. Unsupported statements of facts are justified as "history." All the patriotism and economic wisdom of the country is assumed to reside in the Republican party; the Democratic "is in alliance with the manufac-

turers and traders of England, who want the American market. It is the pro-British party." Throughout, we encounter that playing fast and loose with the conception of the tariff which makes it impossible to reason with men like the present Governor of Ohio, and which would inspire distrust of their honesty if atrophy of the logical faculty were not so plainly evinced. Let it be borne in mind that this collection has been "revised" by Mr. McKinley, and then observe the contradictions in the following sequence of extracts:

"What, then, is the tariff? The tariff . . . is a tax put upon goods made outside of the United States and brought into the United States for sale and consumption. . . . If a man comes to our cities and wants to sell goods to our people on the street, . . . we say to him, 'Sir, you must pay so much into the city treasury for the privilege of selling goods to our people here.' Now, why do we do that? We do it to protect our own merchants. Just so our Government says to the countries of the Old World, . . . 'If you want to come in and sell to our people, and make money from our people, you must pay something for the privilege of doing it. . . .' Now, that is the tariff" (pp. 185, 186; Oct. 29, 1885).

"We tell every man in America who wants Scotland's pig iron, if he thinks it is any better and does not want the American pig iron—we tell him, if he must have the Scotch, 'You must pay for the privilege,' and in that way we maintain that great industry" (p. 188; Oct. 29, 1885).

"Under this law [the McKinley bill] the [United States] Government cannot go abroad and buy what it can get at home without paying duty. The result will be that the Government hereafter will buy more at home and less abroad—and it ought to. [Applause]" (p. 511; April 10, 1891).

"They say 'the tariff is a tax.' That is a captivating cry. So it is a tax; but whether it is burdensome upon the American people depends upon who pays it. If we pay it, why should the foreigners object? Why all these objections in England, France, Germany, Canada, and Australia against the tariff law of 1890, if the American consumer bears the burdens, and if the tariff is only added to the foreign cost which the American consumer pays? If they pay it, then we do not pay it" (p. 579; May 17, 1892).

"Last year we paid $55,000,000 out of our own pockets to protect whom? To protect the men in the United States who are producing just one-eighth of the amount of our consumption of sugar. Now we wipe that out, and it will cost us to pay the bounty just $7,000,000 every twelve months, which furnishes the same protection at very much less cost to the consumer. So we save $48,000,000 every year and leave that vast sum in the pockets of our own people. [Applause on the Republican side]" (p. 452; May 20, 1890).

We should not stop here if our object were to confute Mr. McKinley; but we have quoted enough to illustrate the mental confusion of the great latter-day apostle of protection, the most natural, deserving, and probable standard-bearer of his party in the Presidential election of 1896—as may be intimated by the conjunction in this volume of the portraits of Garfield, Grant, and Hayes with his own. It is fair to add that the speeches before us betoken a courteous disposition, and are noticeably free from personal abuse of political opponents. A certain amount of tact is also apparent, as, for example, in Mr. McKinley's remarks at the *Tribune's* jubilee in 1891, when the aberration of 1872 had to be overlooked; but an equally adroit speaker, possessed of a nicer ethical discrimination, would have refrained from alleging that "it [the *Tribune*] has *always* been upon the side of good morals, good citizenship, and good government."

The mind that feels at home among these "Ohio ideas" of Mr. McKinley will be strangely affected by the contents of the handsome volumes enshrining the late G. W. Curtis's contributions to American political thought and reform. Discordant, incomprehensible as in a foreign tongue, will seem these definitions of patriotism, so opposed to the daily teachings at this moment of the *Tribune;* these questionings if all be for the best in the best of republics; and the whole array of arguments in behalf of independence in the voter and of non-partisan consideration in the choice of public officers. On what page of Mr. McKinley's utterances will you look for sentiments like the following?

"Right and Wrong, Justice and Crime, exist independently of our country. A public wrong is not a private right for any citizen. The citizen is a man bound to know and to do the right, and the nation is but an aggregation of citizens. If a man shout, 'My country, by whatever means extended and bounded; my country, right or wrong,' he merely utters words such as those might be of the thief who steals in the street, or of the trader who swears falsely at the Custom-house, both of them chuckling, 'My fortune, however acquired'" (i., 44).

These words had no reference to Hawaiian filibustering; they were spoken in 1856, in discussing with students "The Duty of the American Scholar." The next summer, at Union College, Mr. Curtis's subject was "Patriotism." McKinley was not yet on the horizon, but here he is shown up as in a mirage:

"The whole of Patriotism for us seems to consist at the present moment in the maintenance of this public moral tone. No voice of self-glorification, no complacent congratulation that we are the greatest, wisest, and best of nations, will help our greatness or our goodness in the smallest degree. History and mankind do not take men or nations at their own valuation, and a man no longer secures instant respect and sympathy by announcing himself an American. Are we satisfied that America should have no other excuse for independent national existence than a superior facility of money-making? . . . Why, if we are unfaithful as a nation, though our population were to double in a year, and the roar and rush of our vast machinery were to silence the music of the spheres, and our wealth were enough to buy all the world, our population could not bully history, nor all our riches bribe the eternal Justice not to write upon us, as, with fiery finger, the autumn is beginning even now to write upon the woods and fields, 'Ichabod! Ichabod! the glory is departed!'" (i., 58).

"The Public Duty of Educated Men," "The Leadership of Educated Men"—Mr. Curtis returned to the theme with admirable persistence. "The scholar appealing to experience is proudly told to close his books, for what has America to do with experience?" (i., 317). "The same party spirit naturally denies the patriotism of its opponents. Identifying itself with the country, it regards all others as public enemies. This is substantially revolutionary politics. It is the condition of France, where, in its own words, the revolution is permanent" (i., p. 274). And again, when treating of "The English-Speaking Race": "Party spirit in this country, recalling an old animosity, has always stigmatized with an English name whatever it opposed. Every difference, every misunderstanding, with England has been ignobly turned to party account" (i., p. 396).

If Mr. Curtis prophetically depicts McKinley, not less surely does he foreshadow Cleveland in the peroration of the address named at the beginning of the last paragraph (1877):

"Bolingbroke described a patriot king in England; I can imagine a patriot president in America. I can see him indeed the choice of a party, and called to administer the government when sectional jealousy is fiercest and party passion most inflamed. I can imagine him seeing clearly what justice and humanity, the national law and the national welfare, require him to do, and resolved to do it. I can imagine him patiently enduring not only the mad cry of party hate, the taunt of 'recreant' and 'traitor,' of 'renegade' and 'coward,' but, what is harder to bear, the amazement, the doubt, the grief, the denunciation of those as sincerely devoted as he to the common welfare. I can imagine him pushing firmly on, trusting the heart, the intelligence, the conscience of his countrymen, healing angry wounds, correcting misunderstandings, planting justice on surer foundations, and, whether his party rise or fall, lifting his country heavenward to a more perfect union, prosperity, and peace. This is the spirit of a patriotism that girds the commonwealth with the resistless splendor of the moral law—the invulnerable panoply of States, the celestial secret of a great nation and a happy people."

We have glanced at but a single phase of the first of Mr. Curtis's two volumes, the next most conspicuous being the advocacy of equal rights for woman. The conservativeness of our institutions is strikingly exemplified by the fact that Mr. Curtis's speech on woman suffrage in the Constitutional Convention of this State in 1867 is now reprinted on the eve of a new convention in which the same question will inevitably be brought up. None of the addresses, indeed, on this subject can be called obsolete, though, in the matter of "Fair Play for Women," every one now agrees that "it is not the duty of men to keep women ignorant that they may continue to be women" (i., p. 228). The whole of volume i. possesses an historical value, and not less volume ii., with its annual summaries of the progress of the cause of civil-service reform—a monument throughout to Mr. Curtis which any public man might envy. We need not touch upon the graces of Mr. Curtis's style or delivery, known through the length and breadth of the North at least. In the texture of his discourse, as in beauty of person and charm of manner, he most resembled Wendell Phillips, and, though of milder tongue, had also his experience with mobs, and more than his experience of gross contumely as a citizen who was a man before he was a partisan.

SCOTT'S FAMILIAR LETTERS.

Familiar Letters of Sir Walter Scott. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1894.

THESE letters unequally cover the time from 1797, when Scott, twenty-six years old, was known only as a young barrister of fair prospects and the author of some poetical translations from the German, down to 1825, the year before his earthquake of calamity They are conveniently separated into chapters, mostly of one year each; and at the beginning of each chapter is inserted a little chronological table of family events and literary achievements. The initial letter urges his suit to Miss Carpenter, whom he married on Christmas eve, three months later; and there are two other love-letters, tender, rational, and honest. Announcing his approaching marriage to one of the friends who might be useful to him, he thus describes his *fiancée:*

"A smart-looking little girl with dark brown hair would probably be her portrait if drawn by an indifferent hand. But I, you may believe, should make a piece of work of my sketch as little like the original as Hercules to me."

He wrote in 1810:

"Mrs. Scott's match and mine was of our own making, and proceeded from the most sincere affection on both sides, which has rather increased than diminished during twelve years' marriage. But it was something short of love in all its forms."

The earliest period, extending to the publication of the 'Lay of the Last Minstrel' in January, 1805, is scantily illustrated by three

old-fashioned epistles from Scott (besides the love-letters) and one note. To most of the events of this part of his life there is no allusion. His 'Border Minstrelsy' is referred to in a remarkable letter from Hogg, the Ettrick shepherd, from which we copy the first sentence:

"DEAR SIR: I have been perusing your *Minstrelsy* very diligently for a while past, and it being the first book I ever perused which was written by a person I had seen and conversed with, the consequence hath been to me a most sensible pleasure; for, in fact, it is the remarks and modern pieces that I have been delighted most in, being, as it were, personally acquainted with many of the antient pieces formerly."

In chapter ii., embracing 1805 and 1806, we find interesting correspondence with Wordsworth and Southey. The following, addressed to Miss Seward, is noteworthy because it was written when Southey was approaching his culmination as a poet without having begun his other career, or indeed having written any prose to speak of except his delightful 'Letters from Spain and Portugal,' while Wordsworth, having published only his 'Lyrical Ballads,' had in his portfolio and must have read to Scott both "Peter Bell" and other pieces that have been passionately liked by some lovers of poetry as poetry, but which have not won the suffrages either of the great public or of the fastidious few:

"My poetical friends, Wordsworth and Southey, are certainly men of very extraordinary powers. Wordsworth in particular is such a character as only exists in romance—virtuous, simple, and unaffectedly restricting every want and wish to the bounds of a very narrow income, in order to enjoy the literary and poetical leisure which his happiness consists in. Were it not for the unfortunate idea of founding a new school of poetry, these men are calculated to give it a new impulse; but I think they sometimes lose their energy in trying to find, not a better, but a different path from what has been travelled by their predecessors."

The same letter contains this:

"Many good natured country Tories (myself, for example) take great pleasure in coursing and fishing, without any impeachment to their amiabilities, and probably Jeffrey feels the same instinctive passion for hunting down the bards of the day."

There is a letter from Jeffrey about his recent loss of his wife. It is curious to see this cold and superficial mind under deep emotion. Southey's impressions are thus expressed: "Of Edinburgh society I think very little. Jeffrey . . . is a mere *homunculus*, and would do for a major in Gog and Magog's army. . . . [Compared with Coleridge and Wordsworth] the Scotch *literati* are very low indeed. But Scott is a much superior man." Scott writes to Lady Dalkeith to recommend "our Ettrick shepherd" as a valuer of sheep-land, "in which he has given great satisfaction to those who engaged him, being a remarkably intelligent, clever fellow in the line of his business." The offer being refused, Scott again writes: "I am sure that your sympathy with his situation and extreme delicacy of expression must tend greatly to alleviate his feelings of disappointment, if he, indeed, harbors any."

A letter to Miss Seward (February 20, 1807) gives a bit of criticism with a just estimate of Scott's own verse:

"As for poetry, it is very little labor to me; indeed 'twere pity of my life should I spend much time on the light and loose sort of poetry which alone I can pretend to write. Were all the time I wasted upon the *lays* put together—for it was laid out in long intervals—I am sure it would not exceed six weeks. The last canto was written in three forenoons, when I was lying in quarters with our yeomanry. I leave it with yourself to guess how little I can have it in my most distant imagination to place myself upon a level with the great Bards you have mentioned, the very latchets of whose shoes neither Southey nor I are worthy to unloose. My admiration of Chaucer, Spenser, and Dryden does not blind me to their faults, for I see the coarseness of the first, the tediousness occasioned by the continual allegory of the second, and the inequalities of the last; but, my dear Miss Seward, 'in those days were giants in the land,' and we are but dwarfs beside them."

Another letter to Miss Seward, November 23, 1807, when she was about to write a review of Hogg's poems, illustrates Scott's warmth of favor for every fellow-craftsman in poetry, and also his skill in the fine art of graceful hinting, which was surpassed only by (what, unfortunately, from the nature of things, it is impossible here to illustrate) his wonderful power of expressing a thing in such a way that, of two persons who were to read his letter, the one whom he wished should see what his meaning was and the other not. The whole of this letter to Miss Seward is good, but we can quote only the following:

"I do not at all like the task of reviewing, and have seldom myself undertaken it; on Poetry never, because I am sensible there is a greater difference of tastes in that department than in any other, and that there is much excellent poetry which I am not nowadays able to read without falling asleep, and which would nevertheless have given me great pleasure at an earlier period of my life. Now I think there is something hard in blaming the poor cook for the fault of our own palate or deficiency of appetite. . . . My reason for transporting *Marmion* from Lichfield was to make good the minstrel's prophecy of Constance's song. Why I should have taken him there I cannot very well say. . . . I am quite glad you have seen Southey. Delighted with him you must be, yet in conversation (great as he is) he is inferior to Wordsworth, perhaps because he is a deeper and more elaborate scholar. Southey rarely allows you any of those reposes of conversation when you are at liberty to speak, as the phrase is, 'whatever comes uppermost.' . . . I am a pretty hard worker when I once set about it, and, in fact, my literary life resembles the natural life of a savage, absolute indolence interchanged with hard work."

But Scott made a pretence to indolence—a Tory quality to which he was not honestly entitled.

Next following the above letter comes the first of a series of fifteen from Lady Louisa Stuart, known to the public by her admirable introduction to the works of her grandmother, Lady Mary Wortley Montagu.

'Marmion' was felt by the author as a great effort: "As turnips," he says, "come after wheat according to the best rules of agriculture, I take it that an edition of *Swift* will do well after such a scourging crop as *Marmion*." But when Lady Abercorn suggests that the poem was too hastily written, he hastens to admit it:

"No one is so sensible as I am of what deficiencies occur in my poetry from the want of judicious criticism and correction, above all from the extreme hurry in which it has hitherto been composed. The worst is, that I take the pet at the things myself after they are finished, and I fear I shall never be able to muster up the courage necessary to revise *Marmion* as he should be revised. But if I ever write another poem, I am determined to make every single couplet of it as perfect as my uttermost care and attention can possibly effect. In order to secure the accomplishment of these good resolutions, I will consider the whole story in humble prose, and endeavor to make it as interesting as I can before I begin to write it out in verse, and thus I shall have at least the satisfaction to know where I am going, my narrative having been hitherto much upon the plan of *blindman's buff*."

He tried this plan afterwards, and the result was that he found himself with a manuscript to burn up. All his novels were written in the same headlong way. Of course, they had been thought *about* beforehand; but that they had not been thought *out*, is proved by Scott's positive testimony, backed by demonstration from the rapidity with which they were composed. Another of the world's greatest historical story-tellers, Alexandre Dumas, wrote with even more railroad speed; and though some of his collaborateurs pretended, and perhaps thought, they had written his novels, it is certain none of them unaided could ever write conversations at all like his.

We may add concerning Scott's method of working, what he wrote to Lady Louisa Stuart in 1816 about 'Tales of my Landlord': "As no man that wrote so much ever knew so little what he intended to do when he began to write, or executed less of the little which he had premeditated, I totally altered my plan before I had completed my first volume." Again: "I quarrelled with my story, and bungled up a conclusion, as a boarding-school miss finishes a task which she had commenced with great glee and accuracy." In 1810, he writes: "The truth is there are weeks and months in which I do not only not use pen and ink, but have a sort of horror of the very sight of them." In 1808: "I believe no man now alive writes more rapidly than I do (no great recommendation), but I never think of making verses till I have a sufficient stock of poetical ideas to supply them." Finally: "The enclosed jangling verses are the only effort I have made in rhyme since I came to Edinburgh for the winter. They were written within this hour."

In 1809, the conduct of the *Quarterly Review*, just launched in London, in Tory opposition to the *Edinburgh*, was not Tory enough to suit Scott. He writes:

"A good deal happened when I was in London to show me that Gifford wants much of that tact which is necessary to conduct with spirit the work he has undertaken. . . . There is a lame and cowardly caution which prepares all the world for the defeat of the combatant who exhibits such a suspicious symptom. When the sword was once drawn I would have hurled the scabbard into Thames. . . . All Gifford's excellent talent, and no less excellent principle, will do little to save the *Review* unless he will adopt a more decisive tone of warfare and greater energy in his mode of conducting it."

However, after the circulation of the *Quarterly* had passed 5,000, Scott never, in this correspondence, again refers to Gifford at all. The 'Lady of the Lake,' begun, apparently, in September, 1809, and finished the following January, was composed with more care than the 'Lay of the Last Minstrel' or 'Marmion.' Yet when Scott's friend Morritt remarked that, after a great fuss had been made over the birth of Brian, it was rather disappointing not to hear of him in the dénouement, the poet makes a reply which shows the inconsiderate manner in which even this poem was written. He says:

"Your criticism is quite just as to the Son of the dry bone, Brian. Truth is, I had intended the battle should have been more detailed, and that some of the persons mentioned in the third canto, and Brian in particular, should have been commemorated. I intended he should have been shot like a *corbie on a craig* as he was excommunicating and anathematizing the Saxons from some of the predominant peaks of the Trossachs. But I found the battle in itself was too much misplaced to admit of being prolonged by any details which could be spared. For it was in the first place *episodical*, and then all the principal characters had been disposed of before it came on, and were absent at the time of action, and nothing hinged upon the issue of consequence to the fable."

Concerning the dramatization of it, he writes:

"As for the metamorphosis of the *Lady of the Lake* into drama, or rather three dramas, for the same adventure is to be tried at Dublin, London, and Edinburgh, I would not willingly have you believe either that I affect or possess stoicism enough to be insensible to the applause of a crowded theatre; on the contrary, I think that of all kinds of popular plaudits this is the manner in which an author has his most satisfactory, and perhaps intoxicating, draught of success. But I shall have no more honor, supposing any of these attempts successful, than the cook who roasted a turkey yesterday has for the caporota (I think housewives call it so) . . . presented us to-day out of the reliques of the feast."

If a *capitolade* was really called a *caporota*, that would seem to settle the derivation of the word.

In 1811, not yet moved to Abbotsford, Scott brought out the 'Vision of Don Roderick.' The Spenserian metre being objected to, he writes September, 1811: "I agree with you respecting the lumbering weight of the stanza, and I shrewdly suspect it would require a very great poet indeed to prevent the tedium arising from the frequent recurrence of rhymes." In the following January, the first two cantos of 'Childe Harold' appeared; whereupon Lady Abercorn asks Scott how he likes it. He replies: "Very much. There is more original strength and force of thinking in it, as well as command of language and versification, than in almost any modern poem of the same length that I have happened to meet with." Miss Baillie thought "Lord Byron has Walter Scott perpetually in his eye."

In December, 1812, 'Rokeby' appeared and was treated as a wonderfully great poem by Scott's Edinburgh worshippers. In 1813, he published anonymously the 'Bridal of Triermain.' July 7, 1814, was the date of the publication of 'Waverley'; and now for several years the letters fall off in quantity, and still more in quality, while Scott is fresh at his new *métier*. In January, 1815, appeared the 'Lord of the Isles,' in February 'Guy Mannering'; then a 'Memoir of the Somervilles' in two volumes, a description of the 'Field of Waterloo,' in November 'Rowland's Poems,' and in December 'The Ettrick Garland.' These, with two articles for the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' and a review of Miss Austen's 'Emma,' did not suffice for his year's work, for he also began 'Harold the Dauntless' and wrote 'Paul's Letters to His Kinsfolk' and the 'Dance of Death.' In 1816 came 'The Antiquary,' 'The Black Dwarf,' and 'Old Mortality,' with several other things. He also wrote "Pibroch an Donnuil Dhu." This will suffice as a specimen of the years when the novels were appearing.

The second volume contains four letters of Lockhart to Sir Walter, chiefly about the affair of John Scott, and the duel which resulted. There are also seven letters from Lockhart to his wife, Scott's daughter. These are full of incident if not of wit. The following is characteristic of describer and describee:

"This morning met Sir Humphry Davy, in the highest glee, and a spick and span new white waistcoat, on his way to Commerra, etc., to fish. Broad-brim white Beaver, lined green as of yore. He told a story of an Irish steward of a steamboat from Holyhead, who was endeavoring to be very polite to a distressed Lady passenger. He said the best thing was whiskey. Lady said she had an idea that whiskey *could* not agree with her stomach. 'And is that against it?' quoth Paddy; 'won't your Ladyship have all the pleasure of tasting it over again in its way up?' . . . He told *once more* the story of the late Pope asking him, in 1811, if he thought there was anything in his (the P.'s) power to do for the good of the government of England in testimony of his gratitude. Sir H. wrote Mr. W. Hamilton to tell Castlereagh now was the time if they wished to get the Pope to give the King the nomination of the Catholic Bishops of Ireland; but they were busy, and nothing done. Probably 'Sromfridevi' overrated the value of his Holiness's pretty words; but it may be otherwise."

We will close with another specimen of Lockhart's epistolary power:

"We [Scott, daughter Anne, and himself], with Wordsworth and his daughter, went to Keswick, he spouting his own verses very grandly all the way. It was a fine sunshiny day, only too hot, and we certainly saw and heard many fine things. This I remark once for all, that during all these rides, etc., the Unknown [Scott] was continually quoting Wordsworth's Poetry and Wordsworth ditto, but that the great Laker never uttered one syllable by which it might have been intimated to a stranger that your Papa had ever written a line either of verse or prose since he was born. . . . Wordsworth spoke kindly, I think on the whole, of Hogg, . . . of Byron contemptuously; of Shelley well and rightly, saving that (as is the custom of all one-edition clubs) he said Shelley was a greater genius than Byron (*i. e.*, a less successful one). . . . Wordsworth says Crabbe is always an addition to our classical literature, whether he be a poet or not."

A CRITIC OF THE CRITICS.

Founders of Old Testament Criticism: Biographical, Descriptive, and Critical Studies. By T. K. Cheyne, M.A., D.D. London: Methuen & Co. 1893.

One does not naturally go to a book dealing with Old Testament criticism to be amused, but one who takes up this book of Dr. Cheyne's with that object in view will not be disappointed. The amusing feature is an intense self-consciousness and self-satisfaction which have their illustrations upon almost every page. We find ourselves asking, Was this the Oxford professor whose essay could not be printed because the capital I in the manuscript was not correspondingly innumerous in the font? He never doubts the interest of his readers in his personal disclosures. We had a curious proof of this in the introduction to his Bampton Lectures on the Psalms, where his confidence was amply justified, so instructive was the story of his critical development. In the present volume the justification is much less complete. We cease to be amused and are just a little wearied with the Doctor's references to his own opinions and achievements; but we smile again when he takes this or that other scholar to task for not having read his books or articles, or for not having made due reference to them, or for having failed to appreciate their significance. The tone is so patronizing and superior in dealing with contemporary critics, especially with Dr. Driver, that Mr. Whistler might come here for fresh illustrations of his book 'The Pleasant Art of Making Enemies.'

We reach the height of the ridiculous in Dr. Cheyne's consciousness of a scientific courage vastly superior to that of his contemporary critics. Over and over again, dozens of times, we find him accusing Driver and others of compromising with conservatism and tradition. We must have none of this. But Dr. Cheyne makes a distinction between the compromises of scholarship and those of teaching. For the scholar no compromises are allowed; for the teacher and the preacher certain compromises are necessary. It is here that Dr. Cheyne's courage seems to halt. But to his own thinking he is still as brave as a lion and as scientific as Huxley. It was not always so. Formerly his plan "was to *adapt* Old Testament criticism and exegesis to the prejudices of orthodox students by giving the traditional view, in its most refined form, the benefit of the doubt, whenever there was a sufficiently reasonable case for doubt." He finds a good deal of this *Vermittelung*, as the Germans call it, in Driver's Introduction. He is himself persuaded that "a perfectly free but none the less devout criticism is, in short, the best ally both of spiritual religion and a sound apologetic theology." Always that dying fall. Criticising the compromisers for intruding the consideration "what orthodoxy demands" into the critical field, does not his own scientific posture lack something of completeness through his firm persuasion that a perfectly free criticism must be consonant with a progressive evangelical theology? It is true that Dr. Cheyne's evangelical theology is worn with quite a difference from that commonly so called. Nevertheless, to have one eye upon the truth and the other glancing sidewise at the prospects of "evangelical truth" or "a sound apologetic theology" is not exactly scientific, while Dr. Cheyne's concession of the method of compromise to the teacher and preacher as distinct from the student and the scholar suggests that the union in one person of critical and ecclesiastical functions is not a happy one.

The title of Dr. Cheyne's book is evidence that he does not think the higher criticism has yet reached its crowning height. If Kuenen and Reuss and Wellhausen have been only founders, there will be giants in those days when the superstructure rises splendidly on their foundations. He brings to his subject an exhaustive knowledge of the whole course of Old Testament criticism. If his skill in presenting his matter were equal to his acquaintance with its data, his book would be much better than it is. It suffers from comparison with Pfleiderer's treatment of the same line of development, the indication is so much less clear of each successive critic's contribution to the solution of Old Testament problems. At the start there is a hint of insularity, which at times recurs, in the slight mention of Spinoza and Astruc as compared with Geddes, whose Roman Catholic connection made his studies of even less account than they would otherwise have been. Passing to the German critics, we find a sign of how much the times have changed (and the orthodox manners with them) in the respect and admiration accorded to Eichhorn, whom even the Unitarian Andrews Norton fifty years ago held up to general loathing and contempt. The chapter on De Wette, which has a postscript on Gesenius, is one of the most interesting in the book, for not only was De Wette's argument for the late date of Deuteronomy the most radical departure ever made from the traditional view, but his personality was exceedingly engaging, and his experience, as that of Ewald afterwards and many other German critics, made good the saying of Christopher North, "A man who speaks the truth will find himself in sufficiently dramatic situations." It is an interesting fact that De Wette's criticism of Deuteronomy was a production of his youth, a dissertation offered for his doctor's degree in 1805, when he was twenty-five years old. His 'Introduction to the Old Testament' was translated in this country by Theodore Parker, and his 'Introduction to the New Testament,' by Frederic Frothingham, another Unitarian minister, and no German critic did so much to liberate the Unitarian body from the traditional point of view.

The account of Ewald is fuller than that of any other critic except Driver, but it is singularly lacking in articulation, and, with an

abundance of particulars, gives no general impression of Ewald's critical position. The judgment of Pfleiderer, that his influence was distinctly reactionary in the main course of critical development, is probably a judgment that will stand. His stormy nature had a painful correspondence in the storminess of his career. When Dr. Cheyne writes, "At first there was only a vague danger that a naïve self-confidence might develop into a tormenting intolerance," we wish he might apply the fable to himself, but apparently he has not in him anything like Ewald's root of bitterness. Stanley's 'Jewish Church' is dismissed in the briefest manner as a too obvious reflection of Ewald, but it was additionally vitiated to an incalculable degree by the passion for saving as homily and picture what had been critically lost.

In Vatke as in De Wette we have a real epoch-making critic. In 1835, the year of Strauss's 'Leben Jesu,' he published a work which contained the germ of Kuenen's doctrine of the late origin of the priestly legislation of the Pentateuch, and his conception of the prophets as furnishing the starting-point of Old Testament criticism. That he "even went to the extreme of refusing all readers who did not understand the Hegelian terminology," did much to limit his influence; but hardly did he seem to appreciate the value of his own discovery. The vehement enthusiasm of Ewald thrust it out of sight, but in 1834 Reuss had suggested the same things to his classes in Strassburg, though he did not develop them till much later. Two of his Alsatian students, however, Graf and Kayser, kept the sacred fire, and in 1864 it burned up in Graf's important work on the historical books of the Old Testament, and in 1876 in Kayser's study of the pre-exilic books. Before the latter had appeared, Kuenen had made Reuss's intuition that the Prophets are earlier than the Law, while the Psalms are later than both, the keynote of his 'History of Israel.' His first impulse to this view had come from Colenso's showing that "the very documents which most expressly put themselves forward as authentic, and make the greatest parade of accuracy, are in reality the most unhistorical of all." A second impulse came from Graf, to whom Kuenen successfully appealed so to change his theory that the narrative parts of the Priestly Writer should not be separated, as more venerable, from the Laws. Dr. Cheyne finds Kuenen as moderate and circumspect in his most radical conclusions as in the conservatism of his youth. He also finds him thoroughly religious, though not evangelical. What he writes of Colenso is in singular contrast with the average tone of churchmen thirty years ago. While "his positive conclusions," he says, "were always too moderate," his negative criticism served a useful end and his character was worthy of all praise.

A chapter on "The Modern Period" deals more expansively with Robertson Smith than with any other critic, and with much warmth of approbation, but the pages upon Sayce have "something against him" as straight out as Paul's rating of Peter. It is that Sayce has been popularizing his Assyriology for "the spread of theological prejudice and historical error." Strangely enough, there is only the most casual mention of Wellhausen, of whom Dr. Cheyne has a high opinion—though he is not more modern or less of a founder than others who are named. It would seem that he had been robbed of his due space in order that 125 pages might be given to Dr. Driver's 'Introduction to the Old Testament,' a space out of all proportion to its critical importance. But Dr. Cheyne's volume gains in value more than it loses in symmetry by this arrangement. He takes up the different sections of Dr. Driver's book in their order, and his criticism varies from the warmest commendation to the most chilly reprobation. If Dr. Cheyne's courage is less perfect than he imagines and his science less complete, in both of these particulars he is evidently far in advance of his colleague. Dr. Driver is to him "a very clear-headed and slowly moving scholar, who stands a little aside from the common pathway of critics." He finds him often guilty of compromising with tradition, but would Dr. Cheyne himself have been anything like so ingenious in treating of the origin of Deuteronomy if it had not been included in the canon from which, somewhat peremptorily, he excludes Ecclesiastes and Esther? Mr. Gore, one of the 'Lux Mundi' writers, suggests as a test of literary forgery that we should find out "whether the writer of a particular book could have afforded to disclose the method and circumstances of his production." Dr. Cheyne accepts this test as valid, and, measuring Deuteronomy by it, decides that it was not a forgery: "Such conduct as that of Hilkiah, [who "found" the modern book in the temple and brought it to the king as a Mosaic writing] is, I maintain, worthy of an inspired teacher and statesman in that age and under those circumstances. It is also not without a distant resemblance to the course of Divine Providence so far as this can be scanned by our weak faculties." And then we have an elaborate defence of Deuteronomy as "the Law of Moses," whipping the devil round the stump in this ingenious fashion: "In so far as it was historical it was 'Mosaic,' because the facts which it recorded were based on *traditional* records which the author *believed* to have come from Moses or his circle." Could Cardinal Newman's recipe for working up credulity into certainty be more adroitly matched? And to any one who is thoroughly scientific will not this kind of thing appear about as far from the sincerity of science as Dr. Driver's concessions to tradition appear to his courageous friend?

Christopher Gist's Journals; with Historical, Geographical, and Ethnological Notes, and Biographies of his Contemporaries. By William M. Darlington. Pittsburgh: J. R. Weldin & Co. 1893.

Most people of fair intelligence, if asked, Who was Christopher Gist? will answer, We never heard of him. But if told he was Washington's pilot on the threshold of the latter's career, when he had been sent West in 1753 to order the French to keep off the Ohio, the same persons will remember more than one crisis in the young hero's most perilous adventure when he must have perished but for Gist or a man like him as an auxiliary. Gist kept a journal of his expedition with Washington, and of two others which he had before made over much of the same routes—thanks to which experience he had acquired a special fitness for the service which Washington so much needed. These previous journeys were several times longer, both in time and in distances traversed, than that with the young Virginian major. They stretched beyond the Ohio even to the Miami, almost to the falls at Louisville, as well as through all Kentucky eastward from that point. Undertaken in the interest of a land company in which the Washingtons had a share, this exploration gave the earliest report from a competent observer concerning the agricultural capabilities of a vast tract west and south of the Ohio. These journals were compiled a score of years before Daniel Boone told his stories of Kentucky, and nearly two score before Marietta rose as the morning star of the West.

Mr. Darlington has rightly judged that these pioneer notices of two great States ought to be kept before the people. The first journal first appeared in London in 1776. We ought rather to say it was then hid away in the appendix of a folio entitled 'Topographical Description of North America by Governor Pownall,' a work so rare that an annotated copy sold for $53 in 1854. The second journal Mr. Darlington is first to print, and the third, in his opinion, had been printed only by the Pennsylvania Historical Society. It is, however, also found in the Massachusetts Historical Collections (3d s. vol. v. p. 102, *et seqq*). The value of maps contemporary with each historic era is perfectly understood by Mr. Darlington. At least seven such maps illuminate his work. Several of them were copied for him from originals in the British Museum. His notes fill more pages than the journals themselves. His biographies and other illustrative papers fill more than twice as many. Historic side-lights abound. Pennsylvania Quakers are shocked at Puritan dealings with Indians—as when Judge Sewall, in 1690, sent from Maine "a barrel marked with ink S. S., containing four Indian scalps—one for Mr. Charles Morton, one for Mr. [Rev. Increase] Mather if acceptable," etc. But as we learn from Mr. Darlington, when certain Indians, fifty-eight years after that, sent a French scalp to the President and Council of Pennsylvania, they received from that body thanks for the present. Let not the pot call the kettle black.

We remember no work enriched by so many and so satisfactory etymologies of noted Indian names, such as Ticonderoga, Muskingum, Wyandot, Kentucky, Scioto, Youghiogheny, Monongahela. In fact, Mr. Darlington's monograph is so good that it ought to be better. The text of the journals is totally without any references to the notes. Hence we read them all the while desiderating what we did not discover till the last. The references in the notes to the text would be easier to trace if made by pages and not by days. The account of Gist himself should precede his journals. Placing these first is putting the cart before the horse. The table of contents lacks a list of the excellent maps—indeed, makes no mention of any map. But the omission which we mark with most surprise and regret is that Mr. Darlington did not also print for us Washington's Journal, and that, perhaps, side by side with that of his companion Gist. Each was characteristic and each supplements the other. They would each, like lamps, or gospels, lend and borrow light by mutual reflection. Concerning their moving slowly, when Washington deals in generalities Gist says horses straggled away, or that he must kill deer for food. At Murderingtown the one learns secrets of state by grapevine telegraph, the other gets a viaticum of corn and dried meat. When horses were slow, and the major insisted on a foot-march, it is only from Gist we learn that, after a tramp of eighteen miles, Washington was exhausted and betook himself to an Indian cabin. When business demanded haste, we wonder that Washington lingered to pay court to an Indian queen; but Gist tells us that on that day no horses could be had. Nothing could be more suggestive than to compare the two narratives article by article.

A Short Account of the Land Revenue and its Administration in British India. With a Sketch of the Land Tenures. By B. H. Baden-Powell, C. I. E. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

FEW literary works combine the characteristics of the practical handbook to a highly specialized profession with those of a more or less "epoch-making" contribution to the discussion of a great historical problem. Whether it be that Mr. Baden-Powell has interests unusually wide for an ex-official, or simply because he has known how to seize the happy minute, this is certainly the significance of his recent works on Indian land.

In 1882 Mr. Baden-Powell prepared, under the orders of the British Government, a 'Manual of the Land-Tenures and Land-Revenue Systems of British India' for the use of civil servants. Soon afterwards great changes were made in the law, and the author had also an opportunity to make further investigations into the historical side of his subject. The old book was therefore allowed to go out of print, and it was not till 1892 that Mr. Baden-Powell's *magnum opus* appeared from the Clarendon Press—'The Land Systems of British India,' in three portly volumes. To meet the wants of students, he has since prepared the 'Short Account' now before us. During the interval Mr. Baden-Powell has certainly benefited by criticism; he has realized more distinctly how the matter is likely to strike the non-professional reader, and the sort of questions he is likely to ask. The new book has, therefore, not only the advantage of brevity, but also the merit of producing a more consistent and complete mental picture of the conditions with which Indian administrators have to deal.

The 'Short Account' is, as we have already indicated, intended, like its predecessors, primarily for students preparing for the examinations of the Indian civil service. It abounds, therefore, necessarily, in details of legislation and procedure at which the general reader can only cast a hasty glance, with a growing feeling of the complexities and diversities of Indian life. We have read enough, however, to feel able to congratulate the future "collectors" and "magistrates" on the possession of a handbook so thoroughly informed by general principles, so cautious in statement, so devoid of unnecessary detail.

To the non-professional reader the interest of the book lies in its bearing on the large question of the history and development of property in land. During the last twenty or thirty years a great part has been played in popular as well as in scientific discussion by the idea that land was originally not the property of individuals, but of some larger group of persons. And indeed the phrase "tribal ownership" may serve tolerably well to describe the conditions of many savage races of to-day as well as of early society, although it would be misleading to institute a comparison between such tribal ownership and modern private property without more careful scrutiny than is commonly given to the ideas alike of "tribe" and of "ownership." But the idea of communal property has very commonly also come to assume the form of a belief in what is known as the primitive "village community" owning in common the lands it cultivated. And one of the causes which, in the early '70s, contributed to popularize this idea and give it general currency, was the discovery which Sir Henry Maine believed he had made of this sort of village community in India, and the close parallel he drew between "Village Communities in the East and West"—as the latter were described by certain authorities. Yet Sir Henry Maine had, after all, but a superficial acquaintance with Indian history and literature, and the value of Mr. Baden-Powell's works is that therein we get for the first time a detailed and quite trustworthy description of Indian conditions looked at by one who is quite aware of their supposed resemblance to the early European institutions imagined by modern theories, and also quite aware—as Sir Henry Maine could not be—of the very insecure foundation upon which those theories themselves rest.

Now what Mr. Baden-Powell makes very clear is that, putting one side certain outlying districts concerning which our information is incomplete, the villagers who till the soil do not regard themselves as in any way joint holders of a whole area, or as holding in any sense *shares* of a whole belonging to them all. They are either independent owners (in the so-called *Raiyatwari* settlement of Madras and Bombay), or the separate tenants of superior owners (as in the *Zamindari* settlement of Bengal). Where there is a village proprietary body, as in the northwest provinces, this "community" usually consists of non-agricultural castes, and the land itself is cultivated by their tenants. And there is no reason to believe that these "landlord-villages," as Mr. Baden-Powell calls them, represent a form of primeval land-tenure from which all other forms were descended. In a very large number of cases we can actually trace the way in which such a landlord community has grown up *over* the previous village of cultivators by the multiplication of the family of some person who managed to obtain rights over it, in comparatively recent times; and all the other instances are readily explicable as due to similar causes. Moreover, so far as the previous village of cultivators is concerned, there is no sort of Indian evidence for the supposition that there was ever any holding "in common." There is nothing of the kind at present among those peoples in India whom we can regard as surviving from pre-Aryan races; and there is no such indication in the earliest Hindu records.

"Whatever be the date of the 'Laws of Manu' representing the custom as established in Northern India, the only kind of village known to that author is the *raiyatwari* village. . . . The only title to land known is the right by first clearing the jungle. It is to me quite incredible that if a really earlier and universal form of village existed, in which the right was a common right, marked by periodical exchange of holdings, and that the families exercised their joint ownership by virtue of inheritance or birthright, not the faintest trace of such a common holding or such a claim or title to land should be found in Manu."

These are considerations, not perhaps absolutely conclusive, but such as no future student of "the comparative history of institutions" can safely leave out of account.

My Life and Times. By Cyrus Hamlin, Missionary in Turkey, author of 'Among the Turks,' etc. Boston: Congregational Sunday-school and Publishing Society. 1893.

THERE are not many names more widely associated with missionary work in Turkey than that of Cyrus Hamlin, but those who take up this autobiography with the hope of learning something of his specifically missionary labors will be disappointed. It may be pleasantly, for the book is interesting in its freedom from the anticipated pieties of the ordinary missionary narration, in its surprises of executive ability on the part of Mr. Hamlin, and in its revelation of his hale and genial personality in and between the lines. We are taken into his confidence to a remarkable degree, which is explained by the fact that the book was originally written for his children, and to them all with familiar, direct address. This has been changed, but many things have been allowed to stand which probably would not have been written if the book had been intended for the public from the first.

His father, Hannibal Hamlin, was the brother of Cyrus, who was the father of Hannibal, the Vice-President. These had four older brothers, named Europe, Asia, Africa, and America. After this burst of geography and history, the patriarchal Eleazar fell back on the Old Testament for the names of the other eleven of his children. The mother of Cyrus was one of eleven children. He was her third child, born in 1811 in a new clearing in Waterford, Me. The story of his boyhood, on which he lingers long and lovingly, will be the most attractive part of the book for those who can look back to a simple, hard, and frugal early life. The father died, but, of course, the boy went to college. That was the rule where there was the least to eat and wear. The college was Bowdoin, where in 1831 Longfellow was a professor, but we get nothing about him of importance. From Bowdoin young Hamlin went to Bangor Theological Seminary, and then, after a year's impatient waiting, to Constantinople. Mr. Hamlin may have been a good missionary, but, when he made himself one, he spoiled a better railroad builder or civil engineer or something of that sort. He had great fertility of invention and great energy for carrying out his plans, and, always, what he prides himself on is not his plucking of brands from the burning or the educational work to which he was assigned, but his shrewdness and economy in practical enterprises, such as building seminary and college buildings and making bread and washing clothes on a large scale. The two last-named employments were incidents of the Crimean War. He had started a bakery to give employment to Armenians under ban. He made good bread, and the English, who were getting the poorest for their hospitals, wanted it. Beginning with 250 pounds a day, he went up to 6,000 for one hospital, one of several which he supplied. All this was for the glory of God and the treasury of the Board of Missions, into which he turned $25,000. The story of the experiments he made and the obstacles he overcame is full of interest. But bread-making did not exhaust his energy. The clothes from the hospitals required washing, and there was no laundry at hand. Mr. Hamlin extemporized a mangle out of a beer barrel, and, as "the poor little church in Bardezag was in need of a church building, he proposed to wash out one for them." "It cost nearly $3,000, and yet I built it entirely out of an English beer barrel."

The building of Robert College was the great achievement of Mr. Hamlin's later years in Turkey. For a long time he could not get permission, and, when he got it finally, he could not imagine why it came. It turned out that fear of Admiral Farragut, who had been visiting Constantinople, was the moving cause. He might come over with a monitor and take part with the Cretan slow-bellies. Here was one of those "deliverances of divine Providence" which Mr. Hamlin found "so wonderful that no flesh can glory in His presence." His relation to Robert College reached at length a tragical conclusion. He had come to America to raise money for it, and was about to return, when Mr. Robert, the founder and principal benefactor of the college, told him, with many tears, that he could not go back. There is no

explanation. Mr. Hamlin had differed with his colleagues as to methods of teaching. That may have been the root of bitterness; or it may have been that a man of so much practical ability was thought unfit for missionary work. His later years have brought him much pecuniary anxiety, but he has had the best of friends, and his lines have often fallen to him in pleasant places. Evidently he has a fund of cheerfulness and courage that has served him well, and will unto the end.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Barrett, Frank. The Woman of the Iron Bracelets. J. S. Tait & Sons. $1.
Baring-Gould, S. Cheap Jack Zita. J. S. Tait & Sons. $1.25.
Beers, Prof. H. A. Selections from the Prose Writings of S. T. Coleridge. Henry Holt & Co. 35 cents.
Benner, Samuel. Benner's Prophecies for 1894. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. $1.
Benson, E. F. Dodo. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Beresford-Webb, H. S. German Historical Reading-Book Henry Holt & Co. 90 cents.
Bierce, Ambrose. Can Such Things Be? Cassell. 50 cents.
Bindley, Rev. T. H. Tertullian's Præscriptio Hæreticorum. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Birrell, Augustine. Men, Women and Books. Scribners. $1.
Black, W. The Penance of John Logan, and Two Other Tales. Harpers. 80 cents.
Blackie, Prof. J. S. The Ideal of Humanity in Old Times and New. F. H Revell Co. $1.
Blümner, Prof. H. The Home Life of the Ancient Greeks. Cassell. $2.
Bourinot, J. G. Our Intellectual Strength and Weakness: A Short Historical and Critical Review of Literature, Art and Education in Canada. Montreal: Foster, Brown & Co.
Boyesen, Prof. H. H. A Commentary on the Writings of Henrik Ibsen. Macmillan. $2.
Briggs, F. H. Boys as They are Made, and How to Remake Them. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. 25 cents.
Bryant, Mrs. Sophie. Short Studies in Character. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Bumpus, Prof. H. C. A Laboratory Course in Invertebrate Zoölogy. 2d ed., revised. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Cameron, A. G. Contes de Daudet. 2d ed. Henry Holt & Co. 80 cents.
Campbell, J. D. Samuel Taylor Coleridge: A Narrative of the Events of his Life. Macmillan. $3.
Carpenter, Mrs. W. B. Fragments in Baskets. J. S. Tait & Sons. $1.
Carroll, Lewis. Sylvie and Bruno, Concluded. Macmillan. $1.50.
Clark, Arnold. Beneath the Dome. Chicago: Schulte Publishing Co. $1.25.
Coffin, C. E. The Gist of Whist. J. S. Tait & Son. 75 cents.
Cook, Prof. A. S. A First Book in Old English. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.60.
Crane, Walter. Illustrations to Shakspere's "Tempest." Boston: Copeland & Day. $6.
Crump, C. G. The Longer Prose Works of Walter Savage Landor. Vol. II. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Dawson, Sir J. W. Some Salient Points in the Science of the Earth. Harpers. $2.
Dodge, Prof. C. W. Introduction to Elementary Practical Biology. Harpers. $1.80.
Doyle, A. C. Memoirs of Sherlock Holmes. Harpers. $1.50.
Emerson, A. W. Rules for Essay-Work. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. 40 cents.
Engineering Education: Proceedings of Section E of the World's Engineering Congress. Columbia, Mo.: E. W. Stephens. $2.50.
Eve, H. W. Delavigne's Louis XI. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents.
Foerster, F. W. Der Entwicklungsgang der Kantischen Ethik bis zur Kritik der reinen Vernunft. Berlin: Mayer & Müller.
Forbes-Mitchell, William. Reminiscences of the Great Mutiny, 1857-59. Macmillan. $2.50.
Fortier, Prof. Alcée. Histoire de la Littérature Française. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Fortier, Prof. Alcée. Louisiana Studies: Literature, Customs and Dialects, History and Education. New Orleans: Hansell & Bro. $1.50.
Frapan, Ilse. God's Will, and Other Stories. Cassell. 50 cents.
Freeborn, F. W. Morceaux Choisis d'Alphonse Daudet. Boston: Ginn & Co. 85 cents.
French, A. D. W. Notes on the Surnames Francus, Franceis, French, etc., in Scotland. Boston: The Author.
Garden and Forest. Vol. VI. *Garden and Forest* Publishing Co.
Garnier, Edouard. Dictionnaire de la Céramique. Faiences—Grès—Poteries. Paris: Librairie de *L'Art*; New York: Macmillan. $7.50.
Garnier, R. M. History of the English Landed Interest. Modern Period. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
Goodwin, Gordon. The Poems of William Browne of Tavistock. 2 vols. London: Lawrence & Bullen; New York: Scribners. $3 50.
Gollancz, Israel. Lamb's Specimens of English Dramatic Poets. 2 vols. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $4.
Haldeman, Rev. I. M. Theosophy or Christianity. Which? Croscup Publishing Co. 40 cents.
Hale, E. H. The Sons of the American Revolution, New York State Society. The Republic Press.
Halévy, Ludovic. Parisian Points of View. Harpers. $1.
Hamerton, P. G. Rembrandt's Etchings. [*Portfolio* Monographs.] London: Seeley & Co; New York: Macmillan.
Harper's Bazar. 1893. Harpers.
Harper's Magazine. Vols. 86 and 87. Harpers.
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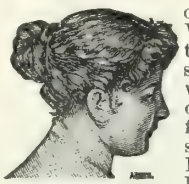

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 15, 1894.

The Week.

THE decision of the Senate committee on finance not to grant hearings on the tariff bill is most judicious and cheering. It will cut off the earnings of a lot of lobbyists and attorneys, but will injuriously affect no other industry whatever. What could the committee "hear" that it and everybody else in the country has not heard a thousand times already? It would do just as much good to all concerned if the protectionists were allowed to set up an apparatus of the nature of a Buddhist praying-machine in the committee-room, inscribe on it their well-known mottoes, "We shall be ruined," "Give us protection or we die," "Pity the sorrows of an aged infant industry," set it going, and then set themselves going on the way home. The Senate has now a fine chance to reinstate itself in public esteem and vindicate its right to be considered a body for the despatch of public business, and not merely a harbor of refuge for the filibuster and the crank. The committee on finance seems disposed to do its part, and it can securely count upon the backing of all sections of the business world in trying to force prompt action on the Wilson bill. Everybody is agreed that the bill is ultimately to pass, and even protectionist business men are clamorous for the thing to be done quickly. If the Senate cares to save the last remaining shreds of public respect which it still possesses, it will reduce the palaver and delay to the smallest possible limits.

The passage by the Senate of the House bill repealing the federal-election laws, and its signature by the President, ends a long agitation. While all of the Republicans in the Senate but one opposed repeal, there is nothing like such unanimity among the members of the party. The more candid admit that the laws in question have utterly failed of their purpose, and in many cases have led to the grossest abuses. In short, where these laws have not been useless, they have been worse than useless, and it will be a gain to the cause of good government to remove them from the statute-book.

In the year 1873 the price of silver in the London market was 59¼d. per ounce. The fluctuations were very slight, and this was the average price throughout the year. The London quotation a week ago to-day was 29⅝d. In other words, the price has fallen 50 per cent. during the past twenty years. Each of our silver dollars has the metallic value of half a dollar. The continuous decline of the metal attracts very little attention here, as our Uncle Samuel has gone out of business as a pawnbroker, and is no longer making advances on the metal. In India, however, the trouble continues because the Government undertook to make a fixed rate of exchange between the rupee and the sovereign, or, in the language of the street, it attempted to "peg the market." The task was too great. The upset price of 16d. per rupee was not maintained a week. The rate fell to 15¼d., and lingered there for some weeks, but finally the public refused to buy Council bills at that figure. Sales ceased and the Government began to borrow money for current expenses. By and by borrowing came to an end, and the authorities having charge of Indian finance were compelled to face the reality and sell Council bills for what they would bring. The price is nearly 3d. higher than the selling rate of silver would justify if the Indian mints were open. In fact, the rupee has a scarcity value, but not such a scarcity value as was anticipated for it when the demonetization was ordered. The metallic value of the rupee still governs its exchange value to a considerable extent, though not entirely. Although Indian finance is thus disturbed, we hear nothing of the crash of British finance which the international bimetallists predicted as a consequence of the decline of silver. We must do Mr. Bland the justice to say that he never "took any stock" in that crash or in international bimetallism anyway. He looked upon it as humbug from the very beginning, and so did his allies in the silver-mining States.

The debate in the House on Friday brought out the fact that the aim of Mr. Bland's seigniorage bill, so called, is to cause a suspension of gold payments in a roundabout way. The plan is to retire and cancel all the Treasury notes of 1890 and substitute silver certificates for them, and then refuse to redeem the silver certificates in anything except silver dollars. All this proceeds upon the theory that the act of 1890, which declares it to be the established policy of the Government "to maintain the two metals on a parity with each other upon the present legal ratio or such ratio as may be established by law," does not include silver certificates. Gen Tracey was entirely correct when he said in the debate that silver certificates were, under this clause, redeemable in gold, the same as Treasury notes. It is true that the practice of the Treasury Department under Secretary Foster was to redeem the Treasury notes in gold, but not the silver certificates. This practice was adopted under the influence of a Treasury Department panic and with a futile idea that it would tend to check the exportation of gold. It had no such effect. The practice adopted by Mr. Foster was followed by Mr. Carlisle simply because it was an existing practice, and because the Department does not change its rulings until somebody asks it to do so. Nobody has asked it to change this ruling, because nobody has had any interest to do so, but it is plain to the simplest understanding that the clause which we have quoted from the act of 1890 makes no discrimination between different kinds of paper, but speaks only of metals. Therefore, whatever rule applies to Treasury notes applies to silver certificates. Mr. Bland's plan for forcing upon the public two different kinds of money by his seigniorage bill will fail. If it should succeed, the better kind would be in the hands of the rich, and the worse in the hands of the poor, and Mr. Bland would probably be mobbed by his victims. The *Journal of Commerce* has very positive information that the President will veto the Bland bill if it passes, and that the veto will be sustained.

The agents of the Pocahontas Coal Company of Philadelphia address a letter to the *Engineering and Mining Journal* setting forth the disastrous way in which Nova Scotia coal is going to rob American coal of "the Eastern market" in case the Wilson bill becomes a law. They state that the Whitney syndicate has issued a prospectus from which it may be inferred that Nova Scotia coal can be put on board at Louisburg at $1, despite the fact that the official Government report gives the actual cost as $1.30 a ton. The thing is to be done, it seems, by the employment of "coolie labor"; and when we add that other nefarious practice of foreigners, a base resort to "tramp steamers" for the sole purpose of getting low freights, it will be clear that the gloomy prospect of seeing coal sold at their docks at $2 a ton is now before the people of Boston. Nothing can prevent such a calamity from befalling them, as the Pocahontas agents patriotically point out, but the retention of a duty of 75 cents a ton on coal and the saving of "the Eastern market" for Pennsylvania.

But the editor of the *Engineering and Mining Journal* replies to the Pennsylvania patriots in a truly heartless fashion. He reminds them that their own coal can be mined at a cost of 50 to 55 cents a ton, with or without coolie labor, and is cruel enough to quote the boast of their own shipping agent that Pocahontas coal had been sent

to Quebec, "going past the Nova Scotia mines, and competing with them in their own market." Finally, he cites the figures of our exports of bituminous and anthracite coal to Canada and to other foreign countries, setting them beside the corresponding statistics for Canada, and comes to the conclusion that Canadian coals cannot possibly compete with ours, even under free trade, "except in a few markets near her own mines." Right there is his fatal error. In no part of the home market must a foreigner be allowed to sell his unsanctified coal, as Senator Hoar calls it. The old idea that it was a fine thing for a city to have a good harbor and ready access to foreign markets by the sea, has long since been exploded. It is right in the teeth of democratic equality. What right has Boston to get coal any cheaper than Cincinnati? Protection is the great democrat that levels up the opportunities of all cities and sections of the country, and leaves them all in perfect equality as the victims of monopoly.

The *Independent* is dumfounded at the extraordinary fact that "the religious papers which defend the President's action in reference to Hawaii seem to be representatives of the colored churches." Nearly all the white religious papers, like the *Sun* and the *Independent*, are in favor of international robbery and of disregarding the rights of the native majority in the Islands, but these perverse religious papers of the colored people are refusing to follow those who have "the right to be their trusted advisers." But it is precisely because they are acting upon the principles taught them by their trusted advisers, lo! these many years, that the religious papers of the blacks are several shades whiter morally than the religious papers of the whites in their treatment of the Hawaiian question. They are simply maintaining that it is as true in Hawaii as in the United States that human rights do not depend upon the color of the skin, and that for a handful of white men to trample upon the rights and desires of great numbers of black men is as wicked and tyrannous in Honolulu as it is in Charleston. It is the trusted adviser who has gone wrong, and has left the first principles of morality to be expounded by his former pupils.

A new development of election frauds has been reached in Michigan, where it appears that two amendments to the Constitution, voted upon in different years, were reported as carried, although in each case a majority of the ballots actually cast was against the proposed change. Each amendment contemplated an increase of salary, and in the second case two of the Board of Canvassers were officials whose pay would be raised if the change were made. In 1891 the question of increasing the attorney-general's salary from $800 to $2,500 was submitted to the people, and reported by the canvassers to have been carried in the affirmative; whereas it now appears that the returns from one county where a heavy adverse vote was cast were thrown out on a merely technical objection, and the returns from other counties were altered so as to increase the vote in its favor. In 1893 another amendment was submitted which proposed to increase the salaries of the Governor, secretary of state, and treasurer, and was returned as carried by about 2,000 majority, whereas it is now shown that there was an adverse majority of a great many thousands, the returns from twenty-five counties having been changed to produce this result. In Wayne County, which includes Detroit, the votes of dozens of precincts were changed in each year by placing the figure 1 before the true figures, so as to make 39, for instance, 139. Both parties are involved in these frauds, the Democrats having controlled the State government in 1891 and the Republicans being in power last year. The present Governor is a Republican, and he has taken prompt action in the matter, appealing to the Supreme Court to see whether the vote can be recanvassed, and calling upon the members of the State Canvassing Board, under whom the last fraud was perpetrated, to resign their offices, with the threat of removal in case of their refusal.

There is more trouble over the color line in Ohio. Six years ago the Legislature repealed the "black laws" discriminating against the negroes, and opened the public schools to white and black children alike. No sooner had this been done than a serious difficulty occurred in the town of Felicity, whose population consists of nine whites to one negro. When the negro children applied for admission at a white school, they were refused entrance, and when a negro father accompanied his children, he was roughly handled by white men. Finally the blacks were forced to accept an offer by the whites to provide separate schools for them. A year later the negroes made another effort to secure seats for their children in the regular schools, but they were again repulsed. The negroes then took the matter into the courts, and instituted proceedings against certain white persons who had obstructed negro parents when they tried to take their children inside the building; but two juries refused to convict the offenders, and the negroes had to surrender again. This time the trouble has broken out in Chillicothe. In order to keep the black children from association with the white, the board of education constructed a "shoe-string district," with the avowed intention of keeping all the colored children in one building, no matter how far they might be forced to walk to reach it. The negroes held indignation meetings and sent protests to the board, but without effect. Now they propose to appeal to the law and see if they can secure redress of their grievances. This action has provoked the whites, and has resulted in a combined movement against the blacks.

No one will suppose that the actual number of the unemployed in this city is accurately shown by the figures turned in by the police; yet we should be thankful for such an approach to accuracy as they furnish. They at once dispose of the exaggerated estimates which have been current—running all the way from 100,000 to 300,000—and give the charitable organizations of the city a more definite idea than they otherwise could have had of the problem before them. That 67,000 persons are out of work in New York city is a serious thing to consider, yet it cannot now be said that the situation here is essentially worse than in other cities of this country or Europe. In London, at the beginning of the year, 108,000 were in receipt of indoor and outdoor relief, and, of course, the numbers of the unemployed, counting in those who did not need assistance, must have been much greater. Distress of like proportion is reported from Berlin and Paris and the cities of Spain and Italy. It is no local phenomenon with which we have to deal, nor can the cause of it be merely local. Meanwhile, the immediate duty is to afford relief to the necessitous in such a way as not to impair their self-respect or deaden their spirit of self-help, and, in public affairs, to hasten action on the tariff so as to take away the uncertainty which now stands in the way of business improvement.

President Eliot of Harvard made a brief address at Boston last week in which he gave his view of the relations between Radcliffe College, as the Annex is hereafter to be called, and the University. Recalling a remark by George William Curtis in the "Easy Chair," that "it is settled that *Juliet* may study, but shall she study with *Romeo*?" he said that "we have learned in the last twenty-five years that young women are quite as capable of the higher studies as young men." He pointed out that, although there has never been any official connection with Harvard, the Annex never has had any teachers but Harvard professors and instructors, and its students have always had the same examination papers as Harvard students. He said that there were two reasons why the governing boards of the University had refused to

give the women college degrees outright. One was that the business of the University is constantly increasing, and is already a load upon the Board of Overseers and the Corporation; and the other, that the institution cannot at present offer women all the advantages that are now offered male students, and that "until the University can give with assurance a degree with its privileges to all alike, we cannot undertake to give it at all." President Eliot thought this "a prudent and conservative state of mind," which "simply says we are not ready now," but "looks forward"; and he said of the future:

"We do not yet give the degree of bachelor of arts, but we do guarantee the quality of instruction, and just as much, subject by subject, as is given in Harvard College. This relation between the Annex and Harvard University is firm, formal, and official. This is a long step forward, and it leaves the way open, very wide open, for further steps when the time comes."

While this is a denial of the petition for the granting of Harvard degrees to women upon the same terms as men, it indicates that the time is coming at no distant day when the governing authorities of the University will feel constrained to take this "further step."

Mr. Gladstone has again disposed of the report that he was about to retire from office immediately. He has returned to London in improved health. What, under these circumstances, becomes of the "full sense of responsibility" of Mr. Astor's young men, when they were telling their story, and repeating it in defiance of authorized reports from Biarritz? Is not "journalism" the oddest thing in the world? Of course Mr. Gladstone is liable to retire at any moment. A man of eighty-five lives in the hawk's shadow. In the twinkling of an eye the golden bowl may be broken and the silver cord be loosed. But everybody knows this. Nobody has "exclusive information" about it. There is no warrant in it for the assertion that the hour has come.

The English Liberals seem to have been waiting for the action of the House of Lords on the parish-councils bill and the employers'-liability bill to commence an attack in force on that body, without apparently giving Mr. Gladstone time to return to his post. He has always shrunk from an attack on the House of Lords, partly through reverence for the old traditions of the government, and partly, doubtless, through the feeling that the reform of that body was too great a job for his time of life. That the House of Lords needed mending has, ever since the passage of the Reform Bill, been acknowledged by everybody. When the Peers filled one hundred and fifty seats in the lower house and were looked up to as great men, the two houses found no great difficulty in working together. But when the House of Commons became a popular representative body, it was easily foreseen that collisions would multiply, and that sooner or later the existence of the upper house, as at present constituted, would be endangered. That they have managed to get along together for so many years — now over sixty — has been very surprising, considering that the majority in the Lords never changes its politics, no matter what changes occur in the Commons. This has always been exasperating, but the middle class would probably have borne it for another half century. The extension of the suffrage to the working classes is rapidly bringing on a crisis, which the Lords might have postponed indefinitely by simply giving up the hereditary principle. It is now questionable whether this will satisfy the Radicals—that is, whether they will be willing to have a second chamber composed of peers elected by the whole body of the peerage, which is what the Conservative reformers have always suggested. The Irish and Scotch peers are elected in this way now. But if reform comes soon, it is probably this shape it will take. If delayed, it may result in the relegation of the peerage to that region of barren and impotent titles in which the Faubourg St.-Germain in Paris has lived so long.

What the French are to do with their anarchists is doubtless a puzzling question, but there can be little doubt that the plan of executing them steadily after the commission of their crimes is one which cannot fail to wear them out. The hanging of the four in Chicago has given peace to that city ever since. The notion that the anarchists differ greatly from other men, except in love of notoriety and dislike of labor, is undoubtedly incorrect. Those who hold that they do not fear death, forget that they try to run away when they throw a bomb, and hide as vigorously as they can. They generally belong to the species we call "tramps," that is, semi-criminal loafers, who have been persuaded that "society" is in some manner responsible for their miserable condition. Not one really unfortunate man—that is, a man for whom good character and capacity have failed to obtain work—has yet turned up among them. Vaillant had been several times convicted of larceny, and had tried all sorts of occupations unsuccessfully, because fitfully, and Ravachol was little better than a wild beast. There is probably a good deal of substance in the theory that anarchism is a wave of insanity passing over Europe like an epidemic, and that it must soon exhaust itself if it be unflinchingly met. Curiously enough, however, there was for a few days a little danger that Vaillant would not be executed, a sentimental reaction in his favor having set in. One of the pleas made for him was that his motives were good, and that in throwing his bomb he really had in view the regeneration of society, so that his execution would be, in some sort, that of a philanthropist. Any yielding, however, to any such view would probably lead to terrible destruction of life and property at the hands of other reformers.

The Paris *Temps* discourses mournfully on the inroads which the office-seeking mania—that scourge of democracy—is making on the time of the French ministers. It says that in addition to the disquiet which it diffuses among the officials, it threatens to paralyze completely the most laborious and active ministers. Their ante-rooms are filled all day long with senators, and deputies, and councillors-general, to get promotion for a substitute, or a forester, or to have punishment inflicted on some functionary who has made himself obnoxious to the local electoral committee; and this goes on every day and at all hours, so that the minister is never free except when he is sitting in the Chamber or in the Senate. There is no getting away from it. Were he to shut the door on his pursuers, he would make them all his enemies, and they would "go for" the cabinet in the Chambers. Not only must he see them, but he must be pleasant and polite to them. The least sign of impatience would be taken as a declaration of "war." Moreover, the enemy does not come down on him as single spies, but in big battalions. The whole delegation of the department waits on him about the smallest matter, so that any sign of indifference would lose him eight or nine votes. This, in a body in which the majorities of the ministry are so small and fluctuating, is very serious. What is curious about the trouble is that nobody complains of it so much as the Deputies themselves, but the remedy each proposes always is that the minister should not pay so much attention to somebody else. The *Temps* itself does not see where the cure is to come from. The disease seems to be one which all democracy has to pass through, like children's measles. When the people first find themselves really in possession of the government, as with us under Jackson, their first uncontrollable impulse seems to be to get a living out of it somehow. After this has been tried for some time, they begin slowly to perceive that only very few can get a living out of it, and that the public service is being sacrificed to these few, and then we have an agitation for reform. The number of office-seekers diminishes, the absurdity of trying to live on the government becomes more apparent, and gradually the rush subsides. This has been our experience, and we presume it will be that of the French.

EIGHTEENTH-CENTURY POLITICS.

GEN. DRAPER of Massachusetts has an idea about the Hawaiian question which ought to be more generally understood. It was developed in his speech in the House on Saturday week. It embraces also his ideas of foreign trade. The General is a protectionist of the Chinese-wall variety. Still, he believes in trade with foreign countries if you can drive it into them with ironclads and drive other people's trade out in the same way. Here is a brief exposition of it:

"Samoa and Hawaii have been ripe to our hands for years. They are most advantageously situated for our needs, as bases from which our cruisers could work in time of war to protect our own trade and break up that of an enemy. The moral force of the United States is all that has kept European hands off these two groups to the present time, but should a strategic necessity for their occupation by either of those powers arise, moral force would lose its power, and we would have to be prepared to then fight for them or to retire at once from the absurd dog-in-the-manger position we have so long occupied."

Every student of history knows that these ideas dominated the politics of Europe in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, and led to most of the wars which disfigured and brutalized the nations in that time. The prevailing belief was identical with that which has taken possession of Mr. Draper, namely, that colonies are desirable for purposes of trade provided you can keep the ships and goods of other nations out of them. In order to do this you must have the largest navy afloat, and must seize everything that can help to make your navy efficient. In this scheme every island or convenient promontory becomes a "key" to something else, and when you have seized all the " keys " that you can hold, then you must always be armed to the teeth in order to hold them. The Caribbean Sea was reddened for two centuries with the blood of England, France, Spain, and Holland. The East Indian lands and waters were fought over for the same reasons. The American Revolution was, in large degree, a protest against the enforcement of that doctrine. The Napoleonic wars grew out of the colonial conflicts of England and France. They would hardly have been possible without the treasured hostility of a hundred years of colonial rivalry and clashing.

After sufficient blood and treasure had been wasted, and the nations were sufficiently exhausted so that they had time to think, they began to discern the truth respecting colonies and " keys." Great Britain especially found her advantage in studying the question without the smell of gunpowder. She came to the conclusion, not all at once but by slow degrees, that the exclusive trade of a colony, if you have to fight for it, is not worth having. It costs more than it comes to. She found out also, and chiefly through the American war, that colonists have rights, and that restricting their trade is a provocation to revolt. So, little by little, these colonial shackles were thrown off until now any nation may trade as freely with any British colony as Great Britain does herself. There is no differential duty and no restriction applied to French or American goods that is not applied to English goods. Therefore " keys " are no longer wanted by England to bar the door to anybody else, but only to prevent people of eighteenth-century notions (like Mr. Draper, for example) from barring the door against her.

Following the line of Mr. Draper's argument it is observed that he counts on his fingers all of England's keys, Gibraltar, Malta, Aden, and so on to Hong Kong, then around Africa and through the South Pacific, then back to the Antilles and Canada. We study his speech in vain to find out what it all comes to —what is the significance of this world-embracing chain of posts. He has not the hardihood to say that these " keys " are used to keep us from trading with any of the countries named on equal terms. Not at all. What does it all mean, then? Why all this congressional industry and display of geographical learning? Simply this, according to Mr. Draper:

"The foresighted statesmen of Great Britain have had a full understanding of the fact that the preservation intact of the circulation of British ships in the great arteries of trade is an absolute requisite to the well-being and even life of the British empire; and this it is which has guided them in the establishing around the world a complete chain of guarded stations, from which her commerce can be supplied and succored, whether peace or war prevail."

Now, if that were exactly true, we should see nothing in it except voluntary police duty on the part of Great Britain, and we should say that if she were inclined to keep so many different lands and seas in order at her own expense and oppose no obstacle to our trade with any of them, we should be much obliged. But it is not quite true. It was not British foresight which established this chain of posts. It was British blundering and blind fury in the eighteenth century—the same which Mr. Draper wants us to imitate now—that saddled the British treasury and taxpayer with the cost of fortifying and policing these posts and maintaining the navy which protects them. The posts and places being now British territory, national pride demands that they be kept, or at all events not surrendered to hostile hands. They are sometimes surrendered to friendly hands, as the Ionian Islands were surrendered to Greece and as Heligoland was bartered to Germany. What Great Britain would do now if these posts were unoccupied virgin territory we need not speculate. Of one thing we may be certain: she never would plunge into the wars of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries in order to acquire them. No statesman of the Draper school would ever gain her ear.

THE REPUBLICAN WAR.

THE conduct of the *Tribune* in the present crisis in its party's history is so remarkable, and so mystifying to the casual reader, that we feel called upon to attempt some explanation of it. The Republican party in this State found itself, after the election of last November, in the presence of the best opportunity that had been given to it since 1885. In that year, it will be remembered, the Republicans had an excellent candidate for Governor in Mr. Davenport, and they would have elected him over Mr. Hill but for the treacherous conduct of the Blaine Republicans, under the leadership of the *Tribune*, in refusing to vote for him because the Mugwumps were supporting him. That this was the cause of Mr. Davenport's defeat was confessed with pride after election by the Hon. Whitelaw Reid, both in his paper and in private conversation. The people of the State owe to the *Tribune* and its editor the subsequent nine years of David B. Hill's degrading rule.

Now that the culmination of Hillism, embodied in the nomination of Maynard, has put the Republican party again in power, with the opportunity of increasing and retaining that power indefinitely, the same editor of the *Tribune*, working in unison with the party's other evil genius, "Tom " Platt, comes forward again to turn the party from its only honorable and successful course, and to deprive the people of the city and State of the benefits which would follow from an honest and intelligent administration of public affairs. For several weeks after the election, the *Tribune* itself was voluble with advice in this direction. It told the party that its future success depended upon its devotion to the public interests. It called for wise legislation at Albany, for a reformed ballot-law, for increased safeguards about the ballot-box, for the overthrow of bossism, for the destruction of the petty local bosses who had " sold out " the city so many times to Tammany—for everything, in short, which would make the Republican party one that self-respecting men, who were sick unto death of Tammany rule and Platt rule, could belong to and work with for the regeneration of the State.

Suddenly all this fine talk began to cease in the columns of the paper. Platt captured the organization of the Legislature and had it arranged in the interest of " deals " with Tammany rather than in the interest of good government. No protest came from the *Tribune*. There were loud demands for a thorough and sweeping investigation of Tammany Hall. Platt said he was not in favor of them. Again there was deep silence in the *Tribune*. Platt had a bi-partisan Police Board bill introduced, and at once there came from the Chamber of Commerce, the City Club, and all the representative centres of the best sentiment of this city, a pro-

test against it, and a demand for a single-headed commission. Then the *Tribune* broke silence, and came to the support of Platt with the plea that the "mandate" of the people in the election was clearly in favor of a bi-partisan board. From that time to the present, all its influence, editorially and in its news columns, has been exerted in favor of Platt's plans. A very carefully drawn ballot-reform bill has been forwarded to Albany, with the approval of all the best political and non-political organizations in the city, including the Union League Club, the Republican Club, and the City Club, but not one word in its favor has appeared in the *Tribune*.

While these events were passing, the best elements of the Republican party in this city, acting in concert with the Union League and Republican Clubs, formulated a plan of reorganization which abolished the district bosses who had so often betrayed the party in the past, and provided a new system which, they believed, would make the organization an honest and creditable and effective working force. The *Tribune* had not a word to say in favor of this plan, but at once began to give its encouragement to a rival plan put in motion by one Milholland. This plan was really Platt's, and its object was to give him the same autocratic control of the party organization in the city which he had of that in the State. In due season Platt came out openly and gave his approval as boss to the Milholland scheme. On the day that he did this, the Hon. Whitelaw Reid, who had refrained studiously from all approval of this plan, wrote with his own hand and published in an out-of-the-way corner of his paper a defence of Platt against his critics, and a plea that "Republican politics and discussion should revolve about other subjects besides Platt." This open alliance with Platt has split the party in twain from one end of the State to the other.

Milholland is a young gentleman in Mr. Reid's employ, who endeared himself to his chief by snatching from the Republican National Convention, in a moment of confusion, its nomination for Vice-President. Milholland did this with the aid of the Typographical Union, which he had brought into harmonious relations with Mr. Reid after years of conflict. The same Milholland secured through Platt, during the Harrison Administration, the office of supervising immigrant inspector at this port, and began at once to use that as a basis upon which to build up a Platt organization in this city. His indecent political activity caused Secretary Foster to remove him. In the present instance he is working as the agent of Reid and Platt, who endeavored to conceal that fact for a time in order to make their "approval" more impressive. In Monday's *Tribune* Platt persuades Reid to take the position that the Milholland movement is the regular Republican movement, and that the committee of thirty's plan is the irregular or bolting one, knowing very well that the latter was started immediately after the November election, and was well under way before the Milholland plan was devised. He persuades him to turn upon the members of the Union League Club and the committee of thirty, and rebuke them for assuming that they are better entitled to reform the party in this city than Mr. Platt of Tioga is. The passages in which the Hon. Whitelaw Reid performs this service for his partner are in his best and most delightful manner. He accuses them of "turning their backs to the common enemy," of throwing "all their energies into a rancorous and frantic attack on Republicans and friends," and asks: "What is the meaning of this sort of folly? Who are these leaders? We *hope* they will stop. We *advise* them to stop. We *warn* them to stop. Smashing heads is a foolish business for sober and responsible men to engage in—especially heads in our own ranks, instead of heads in the ranks of the common enemy—and they must reflect that in such affairs there are blows to take as well as blows to give." Platt must have fairly chuckled with delight when he read this passage, putting upon the regular wing of the party the responsibility for the fight which the firm of Platt & Reid have deliberately instigated.

THE DISMAL SCIENCE AND THE DISMAL TIMES.

It is not unusual for people who, in firm health, have had contemptuous things to say of the guesswork and quackery of physicians, to be among the loudest in crying for medical aid when disease gets its grip on them; and we believe it is the common experience of doctors that there is nothing like a widespread epidemic to heighten the general respect for their persons and their profession. Somewhat parallel has been the experience of economists during the present world-wide business depression. No class of men was more scornfully flouted during the flush times of three and four years ago. Paul Leroy-Beaulieu was nothing but a puttering old pedant when he predicted the coming crash, and the London *Economist* but a disagreeable scold. But when the immense destruction of capital in the Panama quagmire and in the Argentine sink-hole began to have its inevitable effect in dislocating credit and commerce, when our own silver madness had run its fatal course, people in general began to rub their eyes and to suspect that there was something in political economy after all.

The dismal science had, in fact, been subject to such an amount of damning and banishing to another planet during the past thirty years that, if it had had a particle of sensitiveness about it, it would have taken itself off long ago. But it is a tough and hardened science, and stayed on. Carlyle and Ruskin might show it the door with the greatest emphasis, but, like the poet's nature expelled by a fork, it always came back. An ugly presence not to be put by, it has been scowled at and cursed without stint, but has kept on about its business, refusing to be dismissed with a superior smile, until now the dismal times have brought the dismal science into something quite like repute again.

For an obvious instance of its new recognition as an authority in practical affairs, one need only turn to the modern methods of charity and poor relief. What has been put into operation in the various forms of charity organization and plans for furnishing help and work to the temporarily needy is simply the method of the economist—that is to say, careful analysis of the facts and tendencies involved and a distinct setting forth of causes and effects. The case was excellently put in the last presidential address before the British Economic Association:

> "The emotionalist is influenced by the impression made on him by what he sees and feels—the visible, the palpable, the direct. The economist looks beyond—not at the present only, but at the future—and is swayed not only by the visible and the direct, but by the invisible, the more remote. The one is mainly impressed by the fact, the other by the consequence of the fact. The economist is not less philanthropic, not less altruistic, not less concerned with the greatest good of the greatest number; nay, rather, the emotionalist may be said to be more individualistic, while the economist ranges over a wider field. There is no field of sympathy, no department of human feeling or social obligation which does not come within the range of the economist. The emotionalist is moved by an immediate impulse at the sight of poverty to indulge in charitable relief, and that charity is often exercised without discrimination. No one will blame him. But it is the duty of the economist to point out the indirect and invisible effects of such action, and this information is needed in the interests of a wider community than that to which the charity is extended. And yet, on no field of sentiment, in no department of human feeling or social obligation, has the economist been more attacked as non-ethical than in respect of charity and the poor-law; and yet his labor has been fruitful of the best results in arresting demoralization and the weakening of self-dependence."

It makes little difference whether this is called sociology or philanthropy or what else; in fact, it is nothing more nor less than an application of the methods of political economy. The facts are studied as they exist, not on the planet Jupiter, but right here on the earth. Human nature is investigated and watched in action, and no ideal theories of man, as pure angel or as pure devil, are allowed to come in to disturb the play of economic and social forces. Attention has been called to the great number of paupers in London to-day—over 100,000 were in receipt of relief from the city at Christmas time. But what is not so often remembered is, that the

number was even greater when the population of London was not half what it is now. This vast improvement, amounting to a reduction of pauperism by as much as 50 per cent., is attributed to the effects of an act of 1867 which gave London a sèparate poor-law.

How came that act to be passed? At the instance of men who had studied the problem in the spirit and by the methods of the dismal science, the Poor-Law Board, and men like Mr. Charles Villiers and Mr. Gathorne Hardy. They exposed the workings of the old poor-law, in which the emotionalist had full swing, and showed how it multiplied and intensified the very evils it was designed to abolish, how the country poor came swarming in to the feast of fat things spread for them in London, and all the rest of it. By consolidating some agencies for relief and abolishing others, by enforcing better discipline and more careful inquiry, the evil has been reduced to one-half its former proportions.

Now, the thing to remember is, that you cannot consistently approve of such methods and results and continue to curse political economy. This *is* political economy. It is only one of its many applications; but the same instruments of investigation are employed in this department of human activity as in those others known as production and commerce and finance. Yet a great many persons who think political economy repellent and its conclusions horrible, would say it was only common sense and good judgment to act in charitable relief in the ways indicated. They are economists themselves without knowing it; and if they would look into the teachings of economists in other fields, they would find there just as much common sense and good judgment. It is not really the economist, it is common sense, that stands in the way of the airy visions of some of our socialistic writers. Political economy can be nothing but a dismal science to them, and if ever they manage to get their schemes going, it will be dismaller than ever, and so will the times, for them and all the rest of the world.

WOMEN AT THE GERMAN UNIVERSITIES.

NEW YORK, February 8, 1894.

ALTHOUGH the German universities are not as yet formally open to women, nevertheless in several of them women are and have been for some time admitted to many of the courses of lectures. This is especially the case at Leipzig; but at Heidelberg, too, at Freiburg, and quite recently at Berlin, women have been permitted to pass the portals so long sacred to the male sex. The conditions under which the rule excluding women may be thus infringed—for it must be borne in mind that it is an infringement of rule—are restricted, even humiliating. The woman student is not recognized as such except by courtesy. She is not recognized at all officially. She is not permitted to take a degree; she is not allowed even to register her name on the university lists, or to claim in any way connection with it. She may even be ordered off its premises, if caught going into the lectures by any officer of the university or any member of its faculties who is hostile to the presence of women there—and in one case within the writer's knowledge this was actually done. She is usually allowed, however—though not always—to pay her fees; and when her money is accepted, the professor concerned will give her privately the regular examination that the male student is put through, and his personal certificate testifying to her proficiency. Indeed, the arrangement, in this particular at least, is not greatly different from the back-door method by which the students of the Harvard Annex, or Radcliffe College, as it is now to be called, extract their certificates from unwilling Harvard.

In the German universities the whole matter is entirely optional with the individual professor as an individual teacher, and to him, not to the university that retains him, the would-be woman student applies. If he is not personally opposed to the higher education of women, sometimes even if he is, he will readily, often cordially and kindly, consent, for the German *Gelehrter* is generally a most good-hearted man. There is, however, in this matter of admitting women to their lectures a considerable difference among professors, and it would seem to be even more a *Fach* than an individual difference, though in this case the *Fach* may express the man no less than the man the *Fach*. For instance, the professors of art, political economy, history, mathematics, literature, the classics, and philosophy properly so called, would seem to be favorable to women about in the order named, and admission to the lectures on these subjects may almost invariably be obtained, especially at Leipzig, the least difficult of any of the universities so far as admitting women is concerned. The medical lectures, on the other hand, are quite impossible for women, though there is a larger proportion of professors in favor of admitting them in this than in any other faculty. In this case, however, something more than the option of the individual teacher is necessary to set aside the rule. Law and theology are, of course, even more absolutely closed. Indeed, the lecturer on ethics in the theological faculty of one of these universities refused a woman who wished to hear him, on the ground that ethics was a subject quite out of woman's sphere. It is to be hoped that he would not maintain the same of the practical side of his subject, and hold that morals, too, are quite out of woman's sphere. It is only fair to add that the stand taken by this *Gelehrter Herr Professor* was exceptional, and is, perhaps, best explained by the remark of another professor in the same university, but not the same faculty, to whom the woman in question related the incident: "Das war ja nur zu erwarten, mein liebes Fräulein: der Kerl ist ja ein Theolog."

The consent of the professor being the *sine qua non* of her admission, the woman student's first step is to obtain it, and she must do this in person. A proxy or even a letter is almost sure to be fatal to her hopes, whereas the application in person is almost sure to succeed. This indispensable performance is sometimes, particularly to the new hand, not a little of an ordeal, but it may have its amusing features too. Repairing to the professor's house at his *Sprechstunde* (the time he devotes to such business), the woman student will generally find a number of male students there—indeed, she is more likely than not to be ushered into a room full of them—whereat an astounded silence will fall as they realize the situation, a mental gasp as it were, then one or two, perhaps even four or five, will recover sufficiently to spring up and offer chairs, and every pair of German eyes in the room, generally rendered more formidable by glasses, will proceed to "size up" the *Emancipirte*, not rudely—the German student is seldom rude—but with the curious wonder one has for the strange beasts in a menagerie. By the time the Herr Professor's study-door is opened, however, and he stands ready to receive the next visitor, the youth whose turn it is will invariably and most gallantly insist on yielding his place to the lady, and, if this be her first experience, she is apt most gratefully to accept.

Alone with the professor, the affair is simple enough. She states her errand in the best German she can command, and if she have her mother wit about her, as well as sufficient of his mother tongue—he seldom speaks hers—she may even add that she has crossed the sea for the sole purpose of hearing him, or some such phrase, which is very apt to make him look flattered and give his consent without more ado. Not always, however, does this sort of diplomacy produce such a softening effect. There is one professor, a noted psychophysicist, who, though he does admit properly qualified women to his courses, cannot be brought to anything like a cordial agreement to do so. "If you choose to attend my lectures, no one will interfere with you," is the non-committal sort of reply with which the applicant to him must be content.

After the professor come the lectures, and the first two or three are a test for the woman student, and, still more, for the Germans, whose customs, traditions, opinions, and prejudices she defies by intruding herself among them. They could have her ejected if they chose, but they do not. They simply stare, some aghast, some in wrath, some in ridicule. Then they observe her critically: if she takes notes, those who are near her look over her page. But by the third or fourth lecture they have made up their various minds about her, and she is generally left for the rest of the term unnoticed and in peace. If she happens to be pretty, the wonder lasts longer, for a German student cannot conceive why a pretty woman should want to be wise. *Blaue Strümpfe* and personal plainness are necessary corollaries to him, and it is a severe shock to his preconceived ideas to find the "blue-stocking" less plain than prejudice painted her. An American girl who happened not to be plain, coming out of her lecture one day, was met by two students, one of whom had evidently brought the other there to see her. "She a student!" exclaimed the one as the other nudged him. "Impossible! she's *pretty!*" and his astonishment, voiced in tones so loud she could not but hear, betrayed how hard it was for him to reconcile the apparent contradiction.

As a general thing the German student does not thus obtrude his remarks or himself, and his manners, both in the lecture-room and out of it, are very good. He will often, indeed, show, by little acts of kindness, genuine good feeling for the *Fräulein Studentin*. She need never, unless she wish, meet her male comrades personally at all, but such acquaintances are sometimes exceedingly agreeable as well as useful to her, and it is a very good thing for the German student to be given such an opportunity of finding out for himself that a woman may pursue the same severe course of study

that he does, and yet be a woman still – a view he does not commonly hold.

As a social being the woman student will generally receive from her professors, too, some, often a great deal of, attention. It is the proper thing for all students, male and female, to call socially at the beginning of the semester on their professors and their families; if the professor is not married, the woman student does not call. An invitation to dinner or supper—usually for a Sunday—will soon follow, as an acknowledgment of the call and an assurance that further acquaintance is desired. On these occasions the wives and daughters of the professors will be met, and very ordinary women they are. There are, of course, exceptions, but as a rule the German *Gelehrter* is content to dwell at home in the dullest sort of domesticity with his ill-educated women. As his wife is, he lets his daughter grow up to be, whereas to his son he gives the liberal education he himself has had.

To return to the more serious side of the subject, the profit to any student of a course at a German university may be immense; and though the limitations at present imposed on the woman student undoubtedly diminish hers, she nevertheless may also derive a goodly share. Perhaps in no other way is the lesson of thoroughness in things intellectual to be learned so well. The German *Gelehrter* exhausts his subject, and when you have heard him through on it, you may rest assured that you have got all that there is to get in regard to it. Often, indeed, in their insistence on thoroughness, they sacrifice completeness. Instead of condensing their lectures to fit the length of the course, they plod laboriously and conscientiously on through all the details, and leave the lectures as a whole unfinished at the end. There was a certain course of the late Professor Zarncke of Leipzig University that never had been read through to the finish, having been originally written too long even for the longer semester. But this made no difference to the genial old man, who regularly began again at the beginning with the beginning of the term, and read as far as the time permitted, leaving his students to find out the rest for themselves from the guides he gave them. These and other defects of the lectures the male student can make up by means of the *Seminar*—the real class-room of the German university—but from this the woman student's sex bars her out, and she must do all the special work of her course by herself, or with a tutor, who, however, may be a member of the *Seminar*, and thus enable her indirectly to share in its advantages. It is precisely this independent work that the woman student must do that benefits her most. Forced to rely on herself and to get what she wants under difficulties and in spite of opposition, she applies herself as she otherwise might not, and consequently her acquirements generally represent more real work than do those of the male student.

For the American woman at least—and most of these pioneer women students are Americans—the advantages of such a course are quite as great as they are for the American man, and the initiated know what that means. For her, as for him, the fact of having studied in Germany enhances—often quite disproportionately—her intellectual value in the estimation of those who have not done so, while, by those who have, it is accepted for what their own experience has made its worth to them. If she means to teach, her chances, like the man's, for a good position are by so much the more increased.

It may be considered by the conservative unwarrantably bold in American women thus to push themselves abroad as they could not at home—for instance, at Johns Hopkins or Harvard—but it is not by passively waiting for them that such things come, especially to the individual; and it is undoubtedly due, in part at least, to these pioneer women that the agitation is so general now throughout Germany in favor of admitting women to the universities on the same terms as men. J. B. S.

THE SELECT COMMITTEE ON THE IRISH LAND LAWS.

DUBLIN, January 25, 1894.

IN view of the proposed inquiry by a committee of the House of Commons into the Irish land laws, a sketch of the past legislation on this subject may be of interest. The reason for exceptional legislation in Ireland rested chiefly on the essential difference between the landlord and tenant systems in England and in Ireland. In 1845 the Devon Royal Commission reported that the introduction of the English system would be extremely difficult, if not impracticable. The difference, it said, between the English and Irish systems

"consisted in this, that in Ireland the landlord builds neither dwelling-house nor farm offices, nor puts fences, gates, etc., into good order before he lets his land. In most cases, whatever is done in the way of building or fencing is done by the tenant; and, in the ordinary language of the country, houses, farm buildings, and even the making of fences are described by the general word 'improvements,' which is thus employed to denote the necessary adjuncts to a farm without which in England or Scotland no tenant would be found to rent it."

Thirty years later, John Bright summarized the matter by saying that if the land of Ireland were stripped of the improvements made upon it by the labor of the occupier, the face of the country would be "as bare and naked as an American prairie." This fundamental difference between the English and Irish land systems has never been fully appreciated in England, where the landlord's expenditure on buildings, fences, drainage, farm roads, etc., and on maintenance absorbs a large part of the rental.

Reform of the Irish system began in 1870. Before that time little had been done to protect the Irish tenant except to forbid evictions at night, on Christmas Day, on Good Friday, and the pulling off the roofs of houses until the inmates had been removed. The Land Act of 1870 recognized, in principle, the tenant's property in his improvements by giving him a right to claim compensation if disturbed or evicted. This was not what the tenants wanted, viz., security of tenure. The results of compensation suits by "disturbed" tenants were uncertain; compensation for improvements was limited in various ways, and the animus of the courts administering the act was distinctly hostile to the tenants. Many works necessary to the existence of tenants on small farms were not improvements in the eyes of the landlord, of the law, or of the judges; it was often impossible to adduce legal evidence of costly works done little by little, and at intervals, representing the savings of labor embodied in drainage, reclamation, or fencing. Buildings and other works of a superior character might be adjudged "unsuitable" to small farms, and therefore not the subject of any compensation; moreover, it was expressly laid down that the use and enjoyment by the tenant of works effected wholly at his expense were to be accounted compensation to him by the landlord, and that, therefore, by lapse of time, the tenant's improvements became the landlord's property.

The act of 1870 tended to make capricious and heartless evictions expensive and therefore less common; but it gave no security of tenure, and left the landlord still at liberty to raise the rent of improving tenants. It left the tenant still in a state of dependence and servility; it gave him no security for his expenditure, for the landlord's right to keep the rent continually rising was freely exercised. Even if the act had been liberally administered, it would have failed to give contentment, satisfy the demands of justice, or encourage the expenditure of capital by tenant farmers. Measure after measure proposed by Irish members for further reforms were rejected by Parliament between 1870 and 1880, and discontent continued to increase.

The Duke of Richmond's commission on agriculture extended its inquiries to Ireland in 1878, and its assistant commissioners reported that discontent was "justifiable" and agitation "natural" under existing circumstances. So desperate appeared to them the condition of affairs in 1880 that they said: "If nothing is done to grapple with this question, we should not be at all surprised to see an organized attempt next spring to destroy landlords. There may be on a particular night, when the potato crop shall have been consumed, an attempt to destroy a very large number of them." This was probably an exaggerated apprehension, but that no such attempt ever took place is indirect evidence of the restraining effect of the Land League organization.

The Land Law Act of 1881 was based on the Report in 1880 of the Bessborough Royal Commission, but many of the most useful suggestions made were disregarded. This act purported to give the Irish yearly tenants (1) the right to sell their tenancies and improvements; (2) the right to have a "fair" rent fixed by the land courts at intervals of fifteen years; (3) security of tenure arising from this right to have the rent fixed by the court instead of by the landlord. The law, in fact, conferred upon those tenants who came within its provisions a perpetually renewable tenure, at rents variable every fifteen years, to be fixed either by agreement or by the Land Court. No definition of what constituted a fair rent was embodied in the act, but what is known as the Healy clause provided that "no rent shall be allowed or made payable in respect of improvements made by a tenant or his predecessors." The language of common sense could scarcely be clearer or more explicit than the words of this clause, but when the Irish courts came to interpret it, they held that the term "improvements" meant only that interest in his improvements for which the tenant might have obtained compensation under the Land Act of 1870 if he had been disturbed or evicted, and that the time during which the tenant had had the use and enjoyment of his own expenditure was still to be accounted compensation made to him by his landlord, so that by mere lapse of time the tenant's improvements became the landlord's property. As, under the Land Act of 1870, there were many improvements for which, and many circumstances in which, a tenant could not obtain compensation, so correspondingly were there many instances in which, under the Land Law of 1881, the courts held that the tenant was expressly liable to pay rent in proportion to the increased letting value which he had conferred on his farm. In fact, the right, under the Land Law Act of 1881, of a tenant to exoneration from rent on the value

of his own labor and expenditure was made to depend on the result of a hypothetical suit for compensation under the Land Act of 1870. The effect of these judicial decisions has been to maintain generally the rack-rent of farms with all their buildings and equipments made at the tenant's expense as equivalent to the fair rent under the Land Law.

In view of the continually falling prices of agricultural produce and diminishing farm profits, the operation of the land laws has not brought about peace between landlords and tenants. The latter naturally fail to comprehend the "case law" and the ingenuity which the courts have shown in interpreting the statutes so as to give them a completely different meaning from the grammatical meaning and from what was intended by the authors of the Land Law of 1881. In the course of the debates in 1881, Mr. Gladstone said that under that act "the tenant's improvements were the tenant's own property, and he would not admit the principle that the time during which he enjoyed them was any reason for their passing away from him"; again, that "it was nothing short of impossible that the court should imagine or adjudge that to be compensation by the landlord which never cost the landlord in any shape a single farthing." Nothing, however, was impossible to the Irish courts, and their construction of the Land Law has reduced many of its provisions to rank absurdities. In a well-known English leading case Lord Justice Selwyn said, "It is not the duty of a court of law to be astute to find out ways in which the object of an act of the Legislature may be defeated"; yet, whether from the natural conservativeness of lawyers or from political bias, this is what the Irish judges have done, wholly disregarding the public evils to remedy which the act of 1881 was passed.

In 1887 the Cowper Commission reported that the 200,000 rents which had been fixed were too high in consequence of the continued fall in prices. As a result of the report of this commission the fair-rent provisions of the law were extended to leaseholders holding for less than sixty years; but the courts still adhering to their former methods of interpretation, numbers of leaseholders who had made and maintained all the buildings, improvements, and equipments of their farms found themselves either excluded on narrow and technical points, or expressly rented on their own expenditure. In 1891 the fair-rent provisions were further extended to leaseholders holding for more than sixty years by the Redemption of Rent Act, under which long leasehold tenants could compel their landlords either to sell to them, or allow a fair rent to be fixed on their farms.

The successive steps in reform of the rent system thus were—

(1) In 1870, compensation for disturbance and for improvements made by yearly tenants; (2) in 1880, establishment of fair rent courts for yearly tenants; (3) in 1887, admission of short leaseholders to the fair-rent courts; (4) in 1891, admission of long leaseholders of certain classes to the fair-rent courts.

The three first reforms were preceded by waves of popular agitation; the representatives of the National party in each case protested and voted against the measures enacted, as insufficient remedies for the existing evils, and against the machinery by which they were administered; the House of Lords emasculated each measure before it became law; and judicial decisions drew the fang-teeth of the acts, insufficient as they were to affect the objects aimed at. The actual operation of the law, moreover, is very different from the theory, and is in direct contravention of the letter of the more recent statutes. Large numbers and classes of tenants are excluded from the benefits of the Land Law, on technical grounds, although the circumstances of their farms and tenure are in the main the same as those of tenants who are admitted. "Fair rents," fixed by the courts, include, wholly or partly, the value conferred on the land by the tenant's expenditure; and, owing to the continued and unanticipated diminution in farming profits, many fair rents are not earned and cannot be paid. Fair-rent suits are costly and their results uncertain, depending as they do on technical questions of "case law." Lastly, the farm tenure established is so uncertain and unsatisfactory that neither landlord nor tenant would be justified on grounds of prudence in investing money in permanent improvement of farms.

Concurrently with these attempts to place the relations of landlord and tenant on a peaceful and equitable basis, a system of State loans to enable tenants to buy their farms has been in operation. There were many persons who thought that providing facilities for litigation between the two parties would lead to no final settlement of the land question, and that the interests of landlords and tenants were irreconcilable. In 1869 the tenants of church lands were given the right of preëmption of their farms, subject to the condition of providing themselves one-quarter of the purchase money; seven or eight thousand tenants purchased under this act. In 1870, loans of two-thirds of the price were permitted to be made to other tenants buying voluntarily from their landlords. Out of £1,000,000 provided by Parliament, only £500,000 was thus applied during the ten years 1870–'80. The prices demanded were too high; legal obstacles, delays, and costs made the purchase provisions of the land act almost inoperative. In the Land Law of 1881 there was a further extension of the principle: tenants buying from their landlords could obtain three-fourths of the price from the Land Commission if the security was sufficient and the title satisfactory. In the succeeding five years only £250,000 was thus advanced; landlord sellers could generally impose what terms of purchase they liked upon their tenants, and very few tenant farmers were able to provide the necessary fourth part of the price in cash. In 1885, a Land Purchase Act was passed which enabled loans of the whole price to be made to purchasing tenants, and buyers were practically exempted from the former burdensome scale of costs. Many judicial rents having been fixed under the "fair rent" provisions of the Land Law of 1881, and the demand for landed estates by outside investors having altogether ceased, prices generally ruled lower, although landlords were still often able to extort excessive prices by pressing for arrears of rent. On the other hand, bankrupt landlords, pressed by their creditors, sometimes sold at a low figure. A new feature in the loan system introduced by the act of 1885 was the retention by the Land Commission of one-fifth of each loan, as a guarantee against loss by default in payment by the borrower. This "guarantee deposit" was invested, and the income arising from it paid to the landlord, unless default was made by the tenant purchaser. It is not repayable to the landlord until the tenant's annuity on his loan has been paid for eighteen years. Nearly £10,000,000 has been advanced under the act last referred to and subsequent extending measures. Under the different acts passed since 1869, about 25,000 tenants have become owners of their farms, subject to terminable annuities to the Government in repayment of the loans made to them. With some few exceptions, the loan annuities have been fairly paid, in spite of continually diminishing profits and low prices.

In 1891 another Land Purchase Act was passed, under which about £30,000,000 may be advanced to tenants purchasing from their landlords. Sellers are, however, no longer paid in cash, but in "Guaranteed Land Stock" bearing 2¾ per cent. interest. There are various complicated guarantees for payment of the interest on this stock, but it is ultimately guaranteed by the consolidated fund of the United Kingdom. The stock has usually been salable at about 98, and, being up to a certain amount exchangeable for consols, is only fractionally lower than the market price of that stock. Less than £1,000,000 of this land stock has as yet been advanced, and, owing to the many complicated provisions in the act, its operation is necessarily slow. A guarantee deposit is still retained out of each loan.

In 1886 the Liberal party proposed, as an adjunct to their home-rule bill, a measure which would have enabled every landlord in Ireland to sell his estate to the Irish state authority for resale to the tenants—the landlord might in fact compel his tenants to buy, but no corresponding power was given to the tenants. In 1891 the Liberals opposed the Conservative Government's Purchase Act on the grounds of the impolicy of making every individual tenant purchaser a debtor directly to the English Treasury, and of the injustice of imposing a guarantee tax on the county rates without the consent of the taxpayers.

It is now proposed to have an inquiry by a select committee of the House of Commons into (1) the principles adopted in fixing fair rents, particularly with respect to tenants' improvements; (2) the system of purchase and security offered for the loans of public money; (3) the organization and administrative work of the Land Commission—a department which has cost the country about £100,000 a year since 1881. The popular demand for inquiry and reform comes as much from the Protestant North as from the Catholic South. Although the landlords may not wholly approve of an inquiry initiated by a Liberal Government, they are nevertheless anxious to have many changes made in the existing law. In 1895 the first judicial term of fair rent will expire, and, unless some change is made in the law, every landlord may find himself a target for as many lawsuits as he has tenants. Apart from politics and agitation, economic causes have greatly reduced the revenue derivable from landed estates. If, in priority to the support of landlords, mortgagees, tenants, and laborers, a horde of lawyers, surveyors, valuers, and officials are to live on the revenue of Irish estates, the condition of Ireland, where the chief industry is farming, cannot be satisfactory. If rents are to be periodically revised, the problem for the select committee to solve is how this can be done without an expensive lawsuit in each case. Proposals are frequently made to vary rents at triennial or quinquennial periods in proportion to the variation of prices of produce, but the elementary fact that the earning of rent depends upon profits and not upon prices is overlooked. The payment of rents varied according to prices could be secure only if the initial rents to be varied were low ones, and this is not the case generally with the 350,000 rents which have been judicially fixed since 1881. The state of unrest and insecurity existing under a tenure by which rents are

subject to periodical revision on uncertain principles is calculated to prevent farmers spending money on permanent improvement, and the mere expenditure of money on valuable and permanent works may under the present law have the effect of excluding a tenant from the act, or bring an increase of rent in consequence of the expenditure.

With regard to the vast amount of money to be advanced for purchase of farms, Parliament has laid down no principle as to the security except that the Land Commission is to be "satisfied with it." The tendency has been to interpret the purchase acts as liberally as the rent acts have been narrowly interpreted. It is very much easier for officials to say "yes" than "no" to applicants for public money. Decisions as to loans approved of cannot be questioned in the higher courts, and, until repayments have been in progress for many years, it will be difficult to judge whether there has been overlending of the funds. An agreement by a landlord to sell and by a tenant to buy would in ordinary circumstances be prima-facie evidence that the particular farm was worth the price named; but, apart from cases of collusion between seller and buyer, the price may include arrears of rent, and, so far as the price includes a past loss by the tenant, who has not earned or who has otherwise spent his rent, and a loss by the landlord who has not received his rent, there is no income-producing asset at the back of the loan. The Land Commission cannot fix the price; it may refuse to lend and the landlord may appeal against a refusal on the ground of insufficient security; but the tenant-purchaser is estopped from any appeal by his own agreement, which is presumed to have been entered into voluntarily. In the existing circumstances, the select committee might usefully suggest some restrictions on improper loans and some safeguards against overlending on doubtful securities.

The inquiry will be watched with great interest in Ireland, and the findings and suggestions of the committee awaited with anxiety. Royal commissions, of which there have been many on the Irish land laws, are often only a device to shelve a question which Government is afraid to handle, but the report of a committee of the House of Commons is not so easily disregarded, and is likely to be followed up by legislation. AN IRISHMAN.

IN THE BALEARIC ISLANDS—VII.

VALLDEMOSA, January, 1894.

WITH people who are not in a hurry the fact that there is no railroad in Menorca is no cause for grievance. On the contrary, nothing could be pleasanter than to be allowed to share the driver's seat on the diligence, unless it be to amble along on a well-mannered donkey with a soft sheepskin for saddle. More than one good word should be said for the hard, smooth roads, kept in perfect repair, which help to make travelling in the Baleares a delight. For a country labelled "backward," Spain shows a remarkable forwardness in the thoroughness with which these highways are made comfortable for man and beast, and in this respect these little islands put to shame our own country, with its vastly greater resources. The noticeable absence of Roman roads after an occupation of more than five hundred years has been explained on the ground that the Balearic Romans possessed a good navy, with which they could readily transport troops from one part of the island to another. In 1715 the English Governor, Kane, completed a military road the whole length of Menorca, which has been a serviceable highway ever since, but a new and much superior road is in process of construction.

Out upon the old road our diligence clattered one bright day on its way to Ciudadela, at the western extremity of the island, passing by the ancient gate of Barberousse (which takes its name from the bold corsair who captured it, and is the only portion of Mahon's old walls now standing), along the alameda skirting the harbor, and up through the valley of the little stream whose brown waters trickle down to the bay—the rich but solitary garden spot about Mahon. Alayor, the first of the three towns on the route, lies a little to the south of the highway, on a slight elevation, and with its windmills, church towers, and white houses glistening in the sunshine, attracts attention while yet in the distance. The dashing arrival of the diligence, three horses abreast, urged into a mad gallop by the driver's wild, Arab halloo, is the daily excitement; and ten minutes' wandering about the streets, while the post bags were being exchanged, failed to discover that the town afforded much else in the way of diversion.

Beyond Alayor the country grows more fair, and when, on mounting a wooded hill, the beautiful valley of Mercadal, with the little town nestling beside its rock-bedded streamlet, came unexpectedly into view, there was a spontaneous chorus of delight. Monte del Toro to the north, crowned with a ruined monastery, is the most conspicuous feature, being the highest elevation (a little over 1,000 feet) in Menorca, and set impartially in the middle of the island. From Mercadal to Ferrerias the landscape has the gentle beauty of the Scotch lowlands—undulating, the hills clothed with pine and evergreen-oak, interspersed with patches of tall heather, pink and purple. The predios scattered here and there lack the picturesque, mediæval character of the farm habitations of Mallorca, but they have an air of homely comfort which is very attractive. They are not unlike the large colonial houses still to be seen in some parts of New England, and the shrewd, intelligent countenances of the farmers bear no slight resemblance to those familiar on any New England country road. But while so scanty a soil must needs make the farmer's life here a strenuous one, the kindly climate favors a character more open and genial than that of his transatlantic cousin.

Nature has painted the region about Ferrerias with strong contrasting colors, which the local passion for whitewash intensifies. The town takes its name from the iron-impregnated soil, of a deep, rich red, in which the Aleppo pine, with its peculiarly vivid green, flourishes. On the other side of Ferrerias the country is dull, but before descending to the plain of Ciudadela, the mountains of Mallorca rose across the blue water glowing with the brightness of the setting sun.

Until the period of the English domination, Ciudadela was the capital of Menorca, and a portion of the town retains an air of old-time dignity and quaintness. Broad arcades line the principal street, which leads past the fine thirteenth-century cathedral out to the little park where stands an obelisk commemorating the defenders of the town against a Moorish invasion in 1558. Some of the narrow streets were melancholy with the cry of quails imprisoned in tiny cages at almost every door, a fashion also prevalent in Palma. Some years ago an unwonted burst of energy broke against the city walls, and led to their demolition, but, as so often happens in these first steps in civic reform, the wave had spent itself before virtue could be given the added grace of beauty, and the line of the old ramparts is marked by dreary, treeless avenues bordered with ugly, rectangular buildings. Occupying one of these new spaces is the Fonda Feliciano, happily named. It bears no outward sign, but it needs no bush. Our minds were made up on stepping into the hall, with its polished floor and staircase, with tall clock ticking leisurely on the landing, even before we caught a glimpse, at the end, of the spotless kitchen with its tiled range and rows of shining platters, presided over by the beautiful Feliciano maidens. From its cleanliness and general air of refinement, it merits the appellation bestowed upon it by our intelligent *cochero*, of "fonda única."

The quest for prehistoric remains has such fascination for amateur antiquarians that we found ourselves before sunrise setting off on a talayót expedition which led over no royal road. Ploughed fields, and innumerable high stone walls, sometimes topped with brambles, had to be crossed before our goal was reached. Yet there were compensations other than the discovery of ancient monuments. That renewal of spring which here takes the place of the aftermath of summer that we call Indian summer, brought the violet, crocus, and jack-in-the-pulpit to play havoc with our calendar, while the soft, clear air was laden with the fragrance of rosemary, and melodious with the song of birds. This sense of vernal joy and activity was enhanced on emerging from the dark chambers whose huge stones have kept their secret for unknown ages. One of the most impressive of these grim structures is the *naveta* of Els Tudons, which certainly resembles a boat, keel upward, the sides slightly curved, the bow distinctly marked, and with an indefinable air about it which produces a singular effect. A low, square-cut doorway in the stern admits into the interior, where archæologists have found proof that these *navetas* were used as ossuaries. The stones both of the exterior and interior are of immense size. But however far the mind may go woolgathering into the past, its bodily associate has an acute sense of the present, and recalled us to the fact that we were some fifteen kilometres from dinner. As we were scaling the last wall that separated us from the highway, a peasant driving a mule and cart loaded with sweet potatoes manifested a lively curiosity and some concern about the señora. His invitation to a seat on the potato sacks was thankfully accepted, and our slow and somewhat uncomfortable progress was beguiled by the insular naïveté of the carter and his amusing struggles to locate the United States.

For Americans, Ciudadela has an historical interest that touches our own times. The archives of the city show that the ancestors of Admiral Farragut were domiciled there at least as far back as 1558, for among the four thousand captives carried off by the Turks, who made a successful inroad upon the city in that year, are recorded the names of Antonio Farragut and his whole family. The Farraguts were afterwards ransomed and returned to Menorca. The reverend custodians of the ecclesiastical records obligingly took down their time-yellowed volumes and showed us the baptismal entry of George Farragut, father of our admiral, made on the 30th of September, 1755. When quite a young man, he, with many others, emigrated to America, "instigated," as a chronicler says, "by the English, who then ruled over Menorca, and who wished

to people their vast American continent"; adding naïvely, "also compelled by necessity to abandon their dry and unproductive land." But though apparently lost in the great wilderness of the New World, the American Farraguts were not forgotten, and we were told of the enthusiastic public welcome given to the admiral on his visit to Ciudadela in 1868; how soldiers were stationed along the highway to do him honor; how the alcalde and other officials together with prominent citizens went out to meet him four miles from the city gates, and what a mighty shout went up from the people crowded on the ramparts when he finally came in sight. The whole city was given up to rejoicing. Señor Oléo, son of Rafael Oléo y Quadrada, a local historian, showed us a photograph and autograph letter carefully preserved among his father's collection of papers concerning the Farragut family, and related the anecdote that when his father and the admiral met, the embarrassment arising from their ignorance of each other's language was overcome through the medium of Latin.

Accepting an invitation to visit the predio of Torre den Gaumes, in the southern part of the island, we crossed a verdant *barranca* containing the first orange trees we had seen in Menorca. Beyond this ravine the country appeared more arid than before; the stone structures erected for the use of cattle, which imitate the talayóts, adding to the look of sterility. Lean cattle wandered about in search of pasturage, and in some places the soil that had been washed down into the gutters by the infrequent rains was being scraped up and replaced upon the fields. The farmhouse, an ancient structure, built for defence in perilous times, stands on a slight eminence facing the sea, and with three talayóts in line forms a striking picture. Its isolated position necessitates domestic independence, and a great out-of-door oven supplements the wide-mouthed kitchen fireplace, while skeins of flax hanging in the storeroom told of busy distaffs. The happy relations manifest between the cultivated family of the proprietor and that of the tenant recalled the best side of our Southern life in early days. This glimpse into family life in Menorca, where modern refinements and a simple patriarchal spirit seem to be united, was one of our pleasantest experiences.

The map of the northern part of the island looked so attractive with its headlong promontories, deep bays, and surrounding hills, that we determined to visit the fishing village of Fornells, the only one on that coast. As there is no diligence service, the problem of getting there was solved by Jaime *nou* (*i. e.*, the new James) and a strapping horse named by absurd contradiction Pequeño, between whom existed a rare good-fellowship. Jaime knew the country well, and good-naturedly permitted us to explore promising byways, where novel sights sometimes greeted us. In one field a man was ploughing with an ass and a bullock; in another, advantage was being taken of birds of passage weary with their long flight from the mainland to ensnare them in large nets. A donkey with a towering load of household furniture trudged sedately along, and women perilously seated in high chair-saddles nodded serene salutations. A driving storm set in before we reached our destination, which gave us just the opportunity we wanted of seeing "the breaking waves dash high" on that wild shore. A small village, scrupulously clean; dismantled fortifications on a height which sweeps the bay; the ruins of an historic castle on a rocky islet in the harbor—and you have the outlines of Fornells. The bay lacks but little of equalling that of Mahon in size, and, with its background of rocks and wooded hills, rivals the latter in picturesque beauty. Fornells is seldom visited by strangers, and our arrival was a welcome diversion to the weather-bound fishermen gathered at the little *fonda*. The wind, which sometimes drives the salt spray clear across the island, howled all night, but the morning broke as fair and mild as May, and we started on a pilgrimage to San Cristóbal, in whose vicinity are some curious ancient monuments. On the way we ascended Monte del Toro, over which legend has shed a sacred lustre. The chapel on its summit contains the black Virgin, miraculously discovered by aid of the bull from which the mountain is popularly supposed to take its name. A more prosaic explanation, however, is contained in the suggestion that the Moors called it El Tor, the height. The view from the top is charming, the altitude softening blemishes while not obscuring details; the whole island lying below spread out like a chart. Through the misinterpretation of a signal given from one of the talayóts near San Cristóbal we lost Jaime and Pequeño; but "it's an ill wind that blows nowhere," and we were blown by this seeming misfortune into a deep *barranca* of primeval loveliness guarded by frowning crags. It is these sudden transitions from the parched fields so painfully cultivated by man to Nature's affluence that give a rare flavor to by-way travel in Menorca. Restored to our conveyance, it was a matter of only a few hours across-country to Ciudadela, from whence an elegant little steamer runs to Soller in Mallorca. The palms and windmills, and *casas de recreo* along the sloping banks of the little port make the approach to Ciudadela from the sea far more picturesque than from the land; and as we made our slow way out the city took on a fresh interest as we remembered its survival of many vicissitudes, from fires, from invasions, by which it has earned the name of "The Immortal." Hardly are the shores of Menorca lost sight of when the mountainous coast-line of Mallorca appears, and so close does the steamer run in shore that we could clearly see every rugged detail of those grand forms, resplendent with hues of red and orange. As we neared Soller, orchards terraced the steep sides and hung over the dizzy precipices; and rounding a point we entered the narrow passage which leads to the lovely port embosomed in the mountains. S. G.

Correspondence.

THE ENNEACRUNUS AT ATHENS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The German Archæological Institute has just completed, under the direction of Dr. Wilhelm Dörpfeld, the first of a series of important excavations, which are to determine, if possible, the situation of the *agora* of ancient Athens. Last Thursday afternoon, in a drizzling rain, just northeast of the spot near the Pnyx where the Boulevard des Philhellènes, as marked on the map in the Guide-Joanne, makes a sharp turn to the north, the workmen uncovered the opening of a great conduit tunnelled in the native rock and running from this point east. Dr. Dörpfeld confidently believes this to be the artificial channel which was constructed by Pisistratus, in the sixth century B. C., to supply water to the fountain that in the time of Thucydides, as he himself relates, was called Enneacrunus, or the Nine Conduits, but originally, before the springs were covered in, Callirrhoë, or the Fair Stream. The moment of discovery was one of lively interest; and when, after the débris that obstructed the opening had been hastily shot aside, the genial first secretary of the Institute, who is in more ways than one a large man, disappeared from view in the opening, we grew excited. When he presently reappeared, after a journey of twenty-five metres under ground, in ruined clothes but with a smiling face, who will wonder that we "gave him our hands"?

The present excavations began in January, 1892, and continued until March. They were resumed in November, and continued until March, 1893; they were again resumed in January of the present year. Their object was to determine whether the much-discussed Enneacrunus did or did not lie somewhere between the west slope of the Acropolis and the Pnyx, where the account of Pausanias ought to place it. Their starting-point was the open conduit, constructed along the face of the rock at the foot of Pnyx hill, on the west side of that part of the Boulevard des Philhellènes which lies due west of the Acropolis. This conduit is now known to have been built in Roman times. The results of the excavations, briefly summed up, are the following:

An ancient street, with a grade of 1:20, has been laid bare for 220 metres. This begins on the west side of the modern Boulevard, due west of the Areopagus, crosses the Boulevard, and runs along its east side in a southerly direction. This street was supported by polygonal retaining walls and lay much below the present level. Under it is a great elliptical tile-drain, into which thirteen smaller drains enter, on that part of the street already uncovered. Between this street and the Boulevard, buildings have been found that belong to the fifth or sixth century B. C., as is determined by their construction and by inscriptions found in them. The first is a small sanctuary, surrounded by polygonal walls and containing two boundary stones, one *in situ*, which carry the word ὅρος in sixth-century letters. Opposite the little temple that stands at the northern end of the sanctuary is a round altar of poros-stone. The street gradually rose in height in ancient times, and in the fourth century a *leschè*, marked by two boundary inscriptions, was built over the sanctuary. This extended to the west, and lies in part under the present Boulevard. Just south of the little temple, on the same side of the street, several Greek dwelling-houses have been disclosed. Inscriptions show that two of these were mortgaged.

No remains of dwelling-houses have been found on the east side of the street. The walls discovered here are retaining and enclosure walls. Dr. Dörpfeld believes that the sacred precinct of Dionysus in the Marshes lay here, towards the north, and the Eleusinium towards the south. Between these a street branches from the main street and leads directly to the Acropolis. South of this, on the main street, lies an enclosure which, from remains of buildings and dedicatory reliefs (one with an inscription naming Asclepius) found within the precinct, Dr. Dörpfeld calls Asclepieum.

West of the Asclepieum on the other side of the main street, in the axis of the Propylæa of the Acropolis, lay Enneacrunus. This consisted of an open area, west of this the "fountain" with its nine mouths, and at the foot of Pnyx hill the natural springs mentioned by Thucydides. Since the fountain lies under the modern Boulevard, it has not been possible as yet to excavate it properly. It may have

been wholly destroyed, since remains of it have been found built into a Roman house to the east. These remains are either poros or Karà limestone. One of the stones, a great slab which evidently stood upright, has two openings or "mouths" on its upper edge. To increase the supply of water from the natural springs, conduits were driven into the rock under Pnyx hill, and reservoirs were constructed in front. Seven of the former and six of the latter have been found.

This supply was not adequate, and Pisistratus built an underground aqueduct which brought water either from the upper valley of the Ilissus or from Hymettus down into the town. It passed under the present royal gardens at a depth of 13 metres, and under the south slope of the Acropolis at a depth of 20 metres. Its course carried it under the seats of the Theatre of Dionysus, where a shaft has been found that communicated with it. It ended near a great reservoir, 10 metres square, which lay south of the fountain and supplied it with water. That part of the aqueduct which was nearest the reservoir was built of great squared blocks of poros. When it reached the hill, as we follow its course back toward its source, an open passage was cut for it through the rock for some distance. The faces of these rock walls are in places three metres high. It then passed under the hill as a tunnel. It was the opening of this tunnel which was brought to light last Thursday. It was difficult to find, because a part of the lower conduit had been destroyed and its course was uncertain. The tunnel varies from 1.30 to 1.60 metres in height, and from .60 to .70 metres in width. Originally the natural rock formed its sides, but later it was faced (in places where the rock was soft) with tiles which are inscribed with letters of the fourth century. These tiles give the conduit the form of a beautiful semi-ellipse. In places they have broken and now close the conduit, but this will easily be opened, as shafts descending perpendicularly from above to the main water-course are known to have existed and will be found. From the main aqueduct two smaller conduits lead, one into the Asclepieum, the other into the big square reservoir. These are built of round tiles which were carefully jointed with lead and are almost identical with the tiles used in the construction of the aqueduct built by Polycrates in Samos in the sixth century B. C.

These excavations have laid bare a great complex of conduits, reservoirs, drains, and the remains of a fountain the age of which can hardly be in doubt. This may not be Enneacrunus, but the burden of proof would seem to be laid on the unbelievers. Athens is not likely to have had two such water supplies in the sixth century. There is one man at least in Athens who feels no doubt. Last Saturday afternoon, under the lee of the Areopagus, Dr. Dörpfeld discussed the literary evidence bearing on the question for three hours (no other man here dares to talk so long), and ended a convincing presentation of his views with the words: "Die Enneakrounos-Episode, meine Herren, existirt nicht mehr für mich—die Frage ist gelöst!"

JOHN WILLIAMS WHITE.

ATHENS, January 18, 1894.

THE AMERICAN FOLK-LORE SOCIETY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you allow me to call attention to the plans of the American Folk-Lore Society? The quantity of material presented for publication has forced the society to undertake a series of "Memoirs," in addition to its organ, the *Journal of American Folk-Lore*. The first volume of this series, 'Folk-Tales of Angola,' by Mr. Heli Chatelain, will appear in March. This will exhibit Angolan oral literature, in original text and literal translation, accompanied by explanatory notes; the connection of the thought and life of West Africa with that of American negroes brings the work within the scope of the operations of the Society. Several other volumes are nearly in readiness for the printer, and it is much to be desired that their publication should not be delayed. The outlay is to be met by an annual subscription of ten dollars (terminable at pleasure), giving the right to receive all publications of the Society. The work of the Society, however, may also be furthered by a sufficient increase in membership (the annual fee being three dollars). There are many States in which the Society has few members or none; in all these there must be a body of intelligent persons who would be glad to assist, if the matter could be brought to their attention. The addition of 500 members would enable the Society to carry out the plans indicated.—Very truly yours,

W. W. NEWELL, Secretary.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., February 5, 1894.

HENRIETTE D'ANGLETERRE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a notice, in the last number of the *Nation*, of 'Madame, or Memoirs of Henrietta, Daughter of Charles I. and Duchess of Orleans,' by Julia Cartwright (Mrs. Henry Ady), it is stated that "Mrs. Ady has carefully estimated such evidence as is at hand concerning the sudden and still mysterious death of Henrietta, and comes to the conclusion that death was due to natural causes acting on an enfeebled frame and aggravated by the Princess's own imprudence."

In *La Philosophie Positive*, No. 2, September-October, 1867 (a review edited by E. Littré and G. Wyrouboff), is an interesting account of the illness and death, and of the autopsy, of Henrietta, under the title "Henriette d'Angleterre, belle-sœur de Louis XIV., est-elle morte empoisonée?" by the eminent Dr. Littré, in which it is conclusively shown that the Princess died of the not uncommon disease gastric ulcer, with perforation of the wall of the stomach—a disease undescribed at the time.

F. MINOT.

BOSTON, February 9, 1894.

"TOTE."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am able to furnish an earlier instance of the use in America of the word "tote" than that to which your correspondent "F. E. M." calls attention in the *Nation* of February 1. After the suppression of the insurrection headed by Nathaniel Bacon in 1676, the different counties of Virginia were asked to give statements of their grounds of complaint against the administration of public affairs which had led up to the rebellion. In the "Grievances of Gloucester County," now preserved in the British State Paper Office, London, Colonial Entry Book, No. 81, pp. 325-327, February 1676-'77, there will be found the following clause which contains a charge against Robert Beverley:

"When this county had according to order raised 60 armed men to be an outguard for the Governour, who not finding the Governour, nor those appointed Comanders, they were by Beverly comanded to goe to work fall trees and mawle and *toat* rails, which many of them refusing to doe, he presently disarm'd them, and sent them home at a tyme when this Country were infested by the Indians, who had but a little before cutt off 6 persons in one family and attempted others. They beg reparation against the said Beverly and his Majesties gracious pardon for their late defections."

The expression to "toat rails" will have a very familiar sound to all of the present day who have been brought directly into association with plantation life in Virginia.

It is interesting to note that at the time the Gloucester report of grievances was made, the negro population of the colony was very small. In 1671, Sir William Berkeley, who was then Governor, and enjoyed full opportunities of informing himself as to the number of slaves in Virginia, declared that this population did not exceed two thousand. This would seem to render improbable the supposition which has been sometimes advanced that the word had its origin with the negro race in this country.

PHILIP A. BRUCE.

VIRGINIA HISTORICAL SOCIETY,
RICHMOND, VA., February 5, 1894.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am afraid the word "tote," instead of being a Southern word or a "word of African origin," like many a so-called Americanism, will have to hark back to England, for it is used in middle England, southern Yorkshire, and Lincolnshire in exactly the same way that it is used in eastern Virginia; the farm-servant there, like the negro here, "toting" a horse to water or an armful of wood into the house. The *toting* mentioned by your correspondent "F. E. M.," on p. 85, refers not to the *manner*, but to the purpose of the transportation.—Yours respectfully,

W. G. B.

LEXINGTON, VA., February 2, 1894.

Notes.

HARPER & BROS. will publish directly 'Life's Little Ironies,' a volume of short stories by Thomas Hardy; 'Studies of the Stage,' by Brander Matthews; and 'A Child's History of Spain,' by John Bonner.

Miss Adele M. Fielde's 'A Corner of Cathay'—namely, the region about Swatow—which is in course of preparation for publication by Macmillan & Co., will appear in September.

'Eight Illustrations to Shakespeare's Tempest,' by Walter Crane, are published in a limited edition of 650 copies by J. M. Dent & Co., London, and by Copeland & Day, Boston. Each proof, on thin paper, is mounted and provided with a mat for framing and a fly-leaf with title, and the whole is, with doubtful taste, enclosed in a box simulating a book. The engravings are by Duncan C. Dallas, in what is known as "Dallastype," and are certified to by Mr. Crane, the best possible judge, as "very faithful and successful." The designs themselves are by no means of Mr. Crane's best. The further he gets from simple outline and pure decoration, the more his shortcomings are apparent, and some of these drawings are wofully amateurish. He evidently seldom refers to nature, and his thoroughly conventional drawing becomes painful when anything like completion is attempted. The absurd attitude of Ferdinand with the log, and the silly hands of both figures in the chess-playing scene, are cases in point. Nevertheless, there is considerable pretty invention in background and accessories, and the "Dance of

Nymphs and Harvesters" is graceful and charming, and recalls the delightful picture-books of its author. Two hundred copies are for sale in the United States.

"Après l'Agésilas, Hélas ! Mais après l'Attila, Holà !" This epigram befits the 'Sylvie and Bruno' and, now, the 'Sylvie and Bruno Concluded' of Lewis Carroll, madder and maddest of the productions of the author of 'Alice in Wonderland' (Macmillan). The decline in humor is positively melancholy, and to read either of these volumes is nothing short of a penance. They are really sermons, or speculations about life and conduct and the hereafter, aimed at grown folks, and are most unfit reading for children. The nonsense verse in the concluding part is, with scarcely an exception, incapable of exciting a smile. Mr. Furniss, though his task as an illustrator was harder, has fallen far short of Tenniel in the immortal Alices.

Miss Edith V. B. Matthews has collected and translated, under the title 'Parisian Points of View' (Harpers), nine short sketches by Ludovic Halévy. They are typical of the author's style, though not always of his best work, they are nearly all interesting, they are well translated, and they are preceded by a capital introduction written by Mr. Brander Matthews, who has brought out just the right points in Halévy's literary character.

We have already given our readers an account of Arthur Lévy's 'Napoléon Intime,' a work sure of being translated sooner or later. The English version, by Stephen Louis Simeon, is now marketed in this country by the Scribners, in two volumes, entitled 'The Private Life of Napoleon.' The translation is of average merit only, in respect of idiom and freedom, but it will suffice, as the original work is not a masterpiece. More care might have been exercised in petty details. The accent in Joséphine might have been dispensed with, as in the case of Napoleon, and "Jerôme" is neither French nor English, as "Jéna" and "Wurtemberg" are neither English nor German, and "Strasburg" neither French nor German. But these inconsistencies are not very numerous, and would, with all other defects, be forgiven if there were but an index.

We have received from Dyrsen & Pfeiffer (F. W. Christern) the fourth edition of Paul Sabatier's 'Vie de S. François d'Assise,' which was the subject of our Paris correspondence last week. It is a solid octavo of some 420 pages, in the open character and choppy paragraphs characteristic of French books, and therefore capable of no little compression in an English version, which may be expected.

One can have only praise for the 'Handbook for Philadelphia Voters' compiled by Charles A. Brinley, who appears to be his own publisher (at 247 South Sixteenth Street, Philadelphia). While mainly of service to citizens of that metropolis, it may profitably be consulted by any student of our politics, for the organization of the local Republican and Democratic parties is set forth officially, and resembles, of course, that of the same parties elsewhere. In addition to this feature, we choose from the table of contents a few of the more important headings to give an idea of a work which ought to be widely imitated in other States: Digest of laws on citizenship and naturalization, and on the qualifications of electors; ward boundaries and areas; list of national, State, county, and municipal officers and representatives for whom an elector in Philadelphia may vote, with calendars for 1894–1896; list of important appointed officers in the State and municipality; calendar of party meetings and primary elections; constitution of the Municipal League; ballot and corrupt-practices acts; the city finances, etc., etc. Doubtless this handbook will be renewed annually or at short intervals.

We cannot speak too highly, either, of the little manual on 'The Money of the United States: Its Character and Legal Status from 1793 to 1893, etc.,' by Maurice L. Muhleman, Cashier U. S. Sub-Treasury, New York (New York: The *Safety Valve*, 55 Liberty Street). It makes no pretensions to scientific treatment of the money question, or to any treatment other than historical and statistical, but herein it is quite perfect. It presents first the legislative history of the coin and paper currency in use in the United States; second, statistical tables showing the volume of each kind annually existing since 1873; and lastly an abstract of the leading propositions looking to changes in the present monetary situation. The first and second of these presentations require technical knowledge only, but it is of a kind that few persons possess. Mr. Muhleman possesses the whole of it, and also the art of placing it before the reader without any superfluous words. Students will be glad to find embraced in his historical matter a brief account of the ante-bellum Treasury notes, issued in the war of 1812, the Mexican war, and the panics of 1837 and 1857, all of which notes bore interest and none of which were legal tender. A good index accompanies this excellent manual.

An interesting combination of meteorological research and fine book-making is seen in a little volume entitled 'Schneekrystalle,' by Prof. G. Hellmann of the Prussian Meteorological Institute (Berlin: Mückenberger, 1893). By the aid of his friend, Dr. Neuhauss, Hellmann has secured a number of microphotographs of snow crystals, here reproduced and constituting the first specimens of their kind. The text includes a history of earlier accounts of snowflakes, for the preparation of which Hellmann is peculiarly well trained; and a brief discussion of his own observations. It is found that snow crystals are larger and more of radiate form at temperatures near the freezing-point, and smaller and more disc-like at lower temperatures.

A 'Summary of International Meteorological Observations,' prepared by Major Dunwoody, has lately been published as Bulletin A of the Weather Bureau. The international plan proposed by Gen. Myer and approved by the Meteorological Congress at Vienna in 1873 was carried on from 1875 to 1887; more than 5,000,000 observations being reported from 459 land stations and nearly 600 vessels on the seas. All records were made simultaneously at Greenwich mean noon. The summary now presented contains a brief text and a series of fifty-nine large charts of the northern hemisphere on polar projection, giving illustration of various features of pressure, temperature, storm-frequency, and so on. It is noteworthy that the storm tracks seldom continue across the continent of Asia; they frequently cross the North Pacific, although rare there in the summer; they traverse North America in large numbers, especially about the Great Lakes; they pass over the North Atlantic, becoming confused and fading on entering Europe. The extreme brevity of the text makes it impossible to know surely whether allowance has been made in the charts of storm-frequency for the decrease of the size of the latitude and longitude squares towards the pole; and no statement is given as to the method of reduction of the barometric observations to sea level. Whether the temperature observations are reduced to sea level or not does not appear. The use of the term "normal temperature" seems unfortunate, inasmuch as the isothermal charts are peculiarly abnormal in combining the conditions of daytime on one side of the earth with those of night-time on the other. While this is of small moment in winter, it is of importance in summer. The charts exhibiting the change in the distribution of pressure from month to month are novel and interesting; no immediate explanation appears for some of the facts they present.

Popular Astronomy for February, published at Northfield, Minn., contains the first of a series of monthly maps of the constellations visible in the northern heavens. These are reduced from the planisphere of Messrs. Poole Brothers of Chicago. The paths of the planets for the month are marked in red.

The *Portfolio* undergoes a change of form and substance, and the January number comes to us from Macmillan & Co. as No. 1 of "The *Portfolio:* Monographs on Artistic Subjects. Edited by P. G. Hamerton." This first number is given up to "The Etchings of Rembrandt," and is written in his usual eminently reasonable style by the editor himself. He would probably not claim that it contains anything new, but it puts in a readable and attractive shape the ordinarily accepted facts of biography and criticism and a statement of the points of controversy. Tenderness for British morality has, however, prevented any reference in the biographical part to the existence of Hendrickje Stoffels, or in the critical part to the contested "free" plates. On the general question of the contested plates Mr. Hamerton seems inclined to adopt the extreme view of Mr. Seymour Haden, based on the theory that everything which, for any reason, he does not like is spurious; but he presents fairly the other side of the dispute.

The valuable bibliographical and critical Bulletin which the Italian Dante Society has published since March, 1890, under the able editorship of Prof. Michele Barbi, is now to be discontinued in favor of two other serial publications, under the direction of the same society. These are a *Rassegna Critica degli Studi Danteschi*, edited by Prof. Barbi, which will follow somewhat the lines of the old Bulletin, and a series of *Studi Danteschi*, which will contain longer articles in regard to the Society's critical edition of Dante's works and similar matters. The former will be published every month; the latter at irregular intervals.

It is announced that the sale of duplicates belonging to the Victor Emanuel Library at Rome will be begun with a lot not exceeding 10,000 volumes through some well-known bookseller or agent of the Peninsula. The selection of this intermediary will be made upon examination of the claims of such as offer themselves.

A proper memorial of the late secretary of Harvard University, Frank Bolles, has been found in a fund for the aid of needy students, which it is proposed to raise and place in the hands of the president for distribution. A tenth of the income will be set aside to increase the principal. Subscriptions (and none will be considered too small) may be addressed to Howard A. Cutler, 8 Holworthy Hall, Cambridge.

The late George W. Childs is commemorated in a photographic panel portrait by Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, with this artist's well-known skill. The likeness is an excellent index of character.

The trustees of the Columbia University Press, after careful consideration, have made

an arrangement with Macmillan & Co. of New York and London to act as the publishers of the Press for a term of years. By this arrangement the works bearing the imprint of the Press will profit by the ample facilities of distribution possessed by Messrs. Macmillan, not only in the United States and Great Britain, but also on the continent of Europe and in the British colonies. Of late years, too, this firm has paid great attention to American authors, and they have recently published or have now in preparation works by a number of Columbia instructors, including Prof. Boyesen, Prof. Cattell, Dr. Egbert, Prof. Brander Matthews, Prof. Perry, and others. The arrangement made by the Columbia University Press is on conditions highly satisfactory to the trustees of the Press.

—Apropos of the Crown's veto in England, a correspondent writes:

"In Sir William Anson's valuable 'Law and Custom of the Constitution,' Part i., pp. 254-255, may be found exact and accurate statements as to the mode of giving and refusing the royal assent to legislative bills. He mentions 'the frequent use of the veto by William III.,' and offers some explanation of it. It is added that 'Anne exercised the veto once, when in 1707 she refused her assent to the Scotch Militia Bill. Since then the words *le roy s'avisera* have never been used.' These were the words, as Anson remarks, by which the King, unwilling to legislate, but wishing not to offend by a curt refusal, 'smiling put the question by.'"

And still another:

"Your statement that, in England, 'the veto of the crown has been obsolete for more than two centuries,' is, besides the authorities mentioned by you, sustained, also, by the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' Article *Veto:* 'This prerogative has not been exercised since 1692, and may now be considered obsolete.' But Mr. James Bryce, 'The American Commonwealth,' vol. i., p. 56, says: 'The last instance of the use of the "veto power" in England was by Queen Anne in 1707 on a Scotch militia bill.' Mr. Tod ('Parliamentary Government in the English Colonies,' ii., p. 319) mentions that in 1858 changes in a private railway bill were compelled by an intimation to its promoters that, if they were not made, the royal power of rejection would be exercised."

—In our recent notice of Dr. Coues's laborious edition of Lewis and Clark, referring to seven journals kept by the men of the expedition, and the possibility that research might even yet recover some of these, we said: "The unexpected happens. Such a happening would be the discovery of the journal by [Robert] Frazer." This language was prophetic beyond our dreams, for such a discovery has just been made in the archives of the Wisconsin State Historical Society. The treasure-trove consists in the journal written down by Sergeant Floyd, day by day from the date of starting up the Missouri till within two days of his death. The pages in this memorial are fifty-three, each of about fifteen long lines (7½ inches), with few lines erased or obscured. It was evidently soldered by Capt. Lewis in one of the tin boxes provided "to prevent injury from wet," etc. Concerning the contents of this unexpected find we may speak at another time. They are, of course, analogous to the chronicle of Gass, but are more like what the story of Gass would have been if printed from his own handwriting and not adulterated by the Scotch schoolmaster, David M'Keehan. The genuineness of the journal is beyond controversy. The pasteboard cover bears on the inside the words, "Charles Floyd, Bought at River Debois, 13th March, 1804," written in the same hand with the narrative which fills the pages. Several pages at the beginning, perhaps filled with accounts, have been mostly torn out, and the diary commenced Monday, May 14, 1804. Sergeant Floyd died August 20, just below where Sioux City now stands. His written book was no doubt sent down the river on April 4, 1805, when a barge left for St. Louis laden with every superfluous ounce which might encumber the expeditionaries. It is probably the very volume described by Lewis as follows, in his letter to Jefferson from Fort Mandan: "I have sent a journal kept by one of the sergeants, to Capt. Stoddard, my agent at St. Louis, in order as much as possible to multiply the chances of saving something." But in the same barge there went a letter and some parcels for Capt. Clark's kindred in Louisville, and it is likely that Floyd's manuscript also was soon forwarded thither. One reason for this opinion is that Floyd was probably enlisted from that quarter, and certainly more closely connected with Clark than with Lewis.

—A generation ago Lyman C. Draper, thirty years and more secretary of the Wisconsin Historical Society, was intimate with the Clark family in Kentucky, and had such a craze for their papers that he was ready to "beg, borrow, buy, and (if need be) steal them." On the other hand, the Clarks readily humored him, knowing that whatever they gave him was placed where it was safest and most appreciated. Thus Draper came North laden with spoils—the largest collection, it is believed, in existence of manuscripts relating to the Clark family. It seems surprising that he never told anybody of his material which could correct, complete, or explain the story of the first transcontinental adventurers. The explanation is easy. The secretary was a colossal collector. His first earnings were spent on a fire-proof building where he stored his accumulations. Everything rich and rare, historically speaking, he did his utmost to shut in behind his iron door. But when it was once garnered there, and his will made bequeathing it to the Historical Society, he turned his back on it, and had no eyes save for new conquests.

—'Biltmore Forest: An Account of its Treatment and the Results of the First Year's Work,' is the title of an illustrated pamphlet by Mr. Gifford Pinchot, the consulting forester employed by Mr. George W. Vanderbilt to evolve a working plan for the development of his North Carolina estate, which lies for some six miles on both sides of the French Broad River, with a total area of 7,282 acres. The attempt which this report describes is the first practical application of forest management in the United States, "the prime object of which is to pay the owner while improving the forest." Neither the natural nor the economic situation of Biltmore is specially favored. Its output, of no high grade, competes directly with the low-class products of a large contiguous area of timber land; this output is sold at market prices in open competition, and it furnishes cord-wood to the brick works, ties to the railroads, posts to the United States Agricultural Department, and lumber for different uses, "simply because it does so at prices which make it worth while for these departments to purchase of the forest rather than elsewhere." Graphic woodcuts illustrate the condition of the forest before and after "improvement cuttings" were begun, and the treasurer's statement for the year from May 1, 1892, to April 30, 1893, will repay study by forestry commissions and all good citizens interested in the cessation of forest vandalism. The salary of the consulting forester (for satisfactory reasons) is not included in the expense account; we are also reminded that the credit side receives little benefit from work done before June 3, 1892, and that intelligent supervision and competent workmen—mainly negroes—had to be evolved by the work itself. The current expenses (of which the wage account, including salary of assistant forester, was $7,262.46) were $9,911.76, the receipts $5,607.11, with stock on hand in the shape of cut lumber, cord-wood, shingles, and telephone poles, valued at $3,912.25, leaving a balance of $392.40—a "not unsatisfactory result." The "improvement cuttings," besides paying expenses, seem to have established two facts of very great importance to the future success of American forestry, namely, "that large trees surrounded by a dense growth of smaller ones may be felled and removed with comparatively very unimportant injury to the young trees," and that the additional cost of the care necessary to preserve the trees is so small beyond that of ordinary destructive lumbering, "as to be out of all proportion to the result. . . . Its value in practice is enormous." Under the direction of Mr. Fred. Law Olmsted an arboretum has been started, with more trees and shrubs in its nursery than are to be found at Kew Gardens. Of the silvicultural character of many American trees we are densely ignorant, and the several branches of work at Biltmore are expected to help solve the problems with which American forestry is beginning to cope with awakened intelligence but limited knowledge.

—To the pretty "Muses' Library" (London: Lawrence & Bullen) Mr. W. B. Yeats has contributed 'The Poems of William Blake.' The volume contains, in moderate compass, all that anybody but the mystic or the professional student will care to read of Blake's poetry. His purely literary work is given almost in its entirety, and the extracts from the 'Prophetic Books' are judiciously made. Mr. Yeats is well known as one of the editors of the great Quaritch collection of Blake's works, and as an enthusiastic disciple and interpreter of Blake's strange mystical system. It is a pity, therefore, that he has not given more space in his notes to the elucidation of some of the dark places in the present selection. For this the reader could well have spared some pages of solely bibliographical or text-critical interest. The Introduction is in one way admirable: it gives a succinct and well-proportioned account of the life and character of Blake, emphasizing, but not unduly, the visions or illusions, whichever one chooses to call them, that were to him more important than human companionships. As criticism, however, or literary history, the Introduction takes no high rank. We miss an estimate of Blake's place in English literature—of the influences, other than spiritual, which affected him, and of the influence which he has in turn exerted, not so much on his contemporaries as on the generations that have succeeded him. In framing a text the editor has been wisely conservative, and his temper towards his predecessors is charmingly urbane.

—The *Archivio Storico dell' Arte*, being the one periodical devoted almost exclusively to Italian art, deserves for this, and for other reasons, far more attention than it receives. It is refreshing to turn to its pages after the trite information and vague criticism usually served up in art periodicals. The *Archivio* appears in Rome six times a year, is of quarto size, well illustrated, and always contains, besides the articles and reviews, a number of hitherto unpublished documents. During the last year, for instance, a number of items appeared concerning one of the most imaginative of Italian

painters, Dosso Dossi; and the editor, Count Guoli, contributed a stipulation made on October 27, 1481, by Cosimo Rosselli, Sandro Botticelli, Ghirlandajo, and Perugino, that they and their assistants would have their frescoes in the Sistine finished by March 15, 1482. This bit of information furnishes the precise date of the Sistine Quattrocento paintings, and at the same time excludes Signorelli, of whom it makes no mention, from any share in them, as indeed the latest criticism has already excluded him on stylistic grounds. Among the more important articles in the *Archivio* of last year are one by Signor Umberto Rossi, the curator of the Bargello at Florence, on the recent acquisitions made by that institution; a capital monograph by Count Guoli on Luigi Capponi, a Milanese sculptor of the fifteenth century, working in Rome; and a series of studies by Dr. Gustavo Frizzoni, on the Museo del Prado at Madrid. Although this incomparable collection of pictures has been visited by a number of specialists, including Morelli, Dr. Frizzoni is the first to furnish a complete account, from the point of view of the most advanced criticism, of its Italian masters. As literary heir and executor of Morelli, he has used the latter's notes to aid him in the searching analysis made of the works exposed, and the results at which he has arrived are likely to find universal acceptance. In Madrid, everything depends on distinguishing between what, for want of a better term, must be called autographic pictures by a given master, and such as are merely of his school, or are attributed to him by pure accident. Signor Frizzoni reduces the number of genuine Titians from forty-two to twenty-four, the Veroneses to two, the Raphaels also to two. No greater service can be done to the reputation of an artist than to relieve it of the second and third-rate works attributed to him, and the same process puts the public out of danger of squandering its emotions on bad art.

EARLY MAGNETICAL SCIENCE.—I.

William Gilbert of Colchester, physician of London, on the Load-stone and Magnetic Bodies and on the Great Magnet, the Earth: A New Physiology, demonstrated with many Arguments and Experiments. A translation by P. Fleury Mottelay. John Wiley & Sons. 1893.

THE lodestone, which Mr. Mottelay will write load-stone, is a mass of oxide of iron of the approximate composition Fe_3O_4, which is susceptible to magnetic induction, but only very slowly, and which has lain for such eons in the telluric field of magnetism as to have become polarized, often most intensely. Almost all iron ore of this low degree of oxidation, which alone is magnetic, shows more or less polarity. The properties of a lodestone are sensibly different from those of a steel magnet, owing to its great resistance to magnetic induction—a circumstance which simplifies some of the phenomena.

If the scientific stage of experimental inquiry be considered as commencing with the application to it of special apparatus, then the earliest scientific magnetician was Petrus Peregrinus, a Picard, and elder contemporary of Roger Bacon. His treatise on the lodestone was printed in 1558, but that volume is excessively rare, and the contents of the work are not generally known even to specialists. We shall refer here to the text of a MS. of the thirteenth century in the Bibliothèque Nationale (MSS. latins 7378, certainly older than a date often assigned to the composition. The ancients had noticed that lodestones would pick up iron and draw it from a distance, and that one piece of iron hanging from a lodestone would pick up another. But they did not remark the poles, nor that iron could be magnetized. But before Peregrinus wrote, the use of the magnetic needle had begun to come into use with sailors. His treatise (*Epistola*) is addressed to a friend. It begins: "Amicorum intime! Quondam magnetis lapidis occultam naturam a te interpellatus," etc.—in English as follows:

"Inmost of friends! Having been formerly interrogated by thee, I will in a rude narration disclose everywhere the occult nature of the lodestone. For among philosophers nothing is pleasant without participation of knowledge, and the nature of good things is bereaved and clouded in darkness until it is lifted up into the light of mutual surrender. For the love of thee I will write things that to the mob of students are utterly unknown. Nevertheless, of nothing but what is open to observation (*manifestus*)* shall we in this letter deliver knowledge, in that this delivery will be part of the treatise in which we shall treat of constructing physical instruments. To treat of the occult properties of this stone concerns the art of sculpturing stone, and though I call the works of which I have inquired open to observation, still they will be inestimable, and to the vulgar they are as illusions and fancies, and therefore in respect to the vulgar they are secret; but to astrologers and naturalists† they will be sufficiently open to observation; and to them they will be a solace and for sailing travellers no slight assistance."

Truly, the scientific spirit and insight of this and other passages of the epistle are surprising. Apart from the affectionate warmth which has in all ages been characteristic of scientific men, but is almost incomprehensible to outsiders—well-nigh incomprehensible, for instance, that Agassiz, greatly injured as a scientific leader, and, indeed, worn nearly to death by his long and vehement dispute with Darwin, should, though a strong hater when occasion was, welcome with the utmost delight, "for their father's sake," the young Darwins, whose father had, as a matter of course, recommended them to Agassiz—apart from this, there are other little traits, veritable shibboleths among the race of *Naturforscher*. We remark that the above passage contains a sort of definition of what was meant by an "occult quality" among the mediæval physicists. It means a quality not deducible from the Aristotelian doctrine of hot and cold, moist and dry, and not discoverable except by experiment, and therefore a secret to all who do not make experiments, though "satis manifesta" to those who do. We also remark that the present treatise is regarded as an instalment of a larger one which is to treat of what?—of the "construction of physical instruments"; and directly after follows a passage (imitated, in form, from Geber, but far superior to the original in matter), to the effect that a physicist ought to be a mechanician, because it is not by mere thinking but by handiwork that he is to discover the natures of things ("Scito verissime quod oportet hujus artificem scire," etc., with which compare Geber's "Scias, carissime," etc., and "Oporteat artificem huius operis in scientiis philosophiæ naturalis eruditum esse," etc. There were many mediæval imitations of the same chapter of Geber, but none to compare with this).

Accordingly, the first thing that Pilgrim Peter does is to put a lodestone into a lathe, or in some way (to be explained in another work) reduces it to a spherical form. A happy thought that. Then he lays a bit of iron wire (*acus*) upon the ball, and finds it at once turns round in a definite direction. He marks this upon the stone, and pushes the needle along in the same line. This is done at several different places on the stone, and the different lines so drawn are found, on being continued, to intersect at two points only. At those points alone the wire stands up at right angles to the surface of the sphere. They are called by Peter its *poles;* they have retained that name ever since. He next floats the lodestone with its axis horizontal in a little round boat, and finds that a certain one of the poles always turns to the north. "Si millesies amoveatur, millesies ad suum locum revertetur nutu Dei." The pole pointing north he calls the north pole, and *vice versa*. Next, taking a second lodestone, he finds that unlike poles attract, while like poles repel, one another. Next, he shows that an oblong piece of iron touched at its end by a pole of the lodestone acquires the properties of a lodestone. He also shows the effect of breaking the stone across its axis, and that of uniting two stones in the way which satisfies their attractions. He thus recognizes magnetization by contact, but not induction at a distance.

So far, he has done his thinking, apparatus in hand; he has hardly so much as made suggestions; certainly, the conclusions were those of nature's own mind. But now he tries a little thinking with his individual brain. He concludes that the poles of the magnet direct themselves to the poles of the heavens. If he had only tried letting his lodestone sphere sink through water or some more viscous fluid, he would have discovered the magnetic dip, and would have refuted his error. But his mediæval mind was beginning to chafe under the harness of experiment. The poles of the lodestone point, he declares, to the poles of the heavens; and "no doubt every part of the lodestone points to an appropriate part of the heavens." So he suggests that his correspondent should try the following experiment: Let a spherical lodestone be so mounted between bearings as to turn freely on its axis, and be in equilibrium in every position, while the axis is held parallel to the axis of the heavens. "Then," he says, "if the stone turns with the revolution of the heavens, you may rejoice to have discovered a wonderful secret. But if not, it is to be imputed rather to your want of skill in mounting the stone than to any defect of nature." Is not this human?

After Peregrinus, three centuries and a half elapsed without the invention of any new apparatus, and consequently without any important discovery. That of the variation of the compass (the consequence of that invention) seems to have been made by navigators without reclamation. Its different amounts in different places are shown on the maps of the Venetian Andrea Biancho, made in 1436. The dip was first clearly proved by Robert Norman in his book, 'The newe Attractive, containyng a short discourse of the Magnes or Lodestone, and amongst his other vertues, of a newe discovered secret and subtill propertie, concernyng the Declinyng of the Needle touched therewith, under the plaine of the Horizon. Now first found out by R. Norman Hydrographer' (2 parts, London, 1581, 4to; other editions 1585, 1596, 1611). Norman was led to this discovery from having constructed a very accurately balanced needle.

William Gilbert came of an ancient family.

* The use of the word *manifestus* in this sense, which is almost peculiar to modern physicists, and that without explanation, seems to indicate the existence of a sufficiently large class of physicists early in the thirteenth century to have developed a diction of their own.

† Another word betraying the existence of a large class of natural philosophers.

seated at Clare, in Suffolk, on the border of Essex. His father was a prominent and apparently wealthy lawyer in Colchester. The boy attended the grammar school, and in 1558 obtained the scholarship in St. John's, Cambridge, belonging to that school. He arrived in Cambridge just at the beginning of one of the religious revolutions there. St. John's, then altogether the most distinguished college in England, had for its master, when Gilbert first went there, an excellent scholar, George Bullock, who, on account of his Romanism, was within a year displaced by a still more learned man, and a wise one, James Pilkington, an ardent Calvinist, later Bishop of Durham. The Cambridge undergraduates were at that time coarse enthusiasts for Calvinism; but the dons mostly looked upon the church as a union to uphold holy living and put down evil, and thought theology was a secondary matter. They changed about from Protestantism to Catholicism and from Catholicism to Protestantism, without enthusiasm and without reluctance, at the royal bidding. It is rather a remarkable fact that Gilbert's great work contains not a single direct reference to God. In Book VI., cap. iii., he refers to the waters above the firmament "of the divine Moses," merely to explode the idea. Being a strong Copernican, he does remark that the Holy Scriptures recognize no *primum mobile* nor rotation of the entire firmament. But this is the only reply he condescends to make to the theological objections to the Copernican opinion, except that in one place he exclaims, "Excutiant theologi et spongiis deleant aniles istas" (Let theologians shake off and wipe out such old woman's nonsense). He speaks of "the divine and perspicacious genius" of Aquinas; but to translate "Divus Thomas," where *Divus* is simply the title of his grade of official sainthood, by "the godlike Thomas," as Mr. Mottelay does, is hardly warranted. However, these expressions pretty clearly show that Gilbert was a convinced Anglican, or, as we may say, Elizabethan, in religion.

Gilbert showed an early bent for chemistry. The latest novelty in that line was then Giambattista Porta's 'Natural Magic,' first published in Naples in 1558; and though this work was written when the author was only fifteen years old, it had an immense popularity, and was soon translated into Italian, French, Spanish, and Arabic. It was republished, greatly enlarged, in 1589. (We shall refer to the corrected edition of 1591.) But a passion for chemistry would imply readings in Ripley and in Paracelsus. Accordingly, we find in the 'De Magnete' several passages of Paracelsist leaning. During Gilbert's first year in Cambridge, he had, in accordance with the statutes then in force, to devote himself chiefly to the study of arithmetic, although the commission of 1559 changed this to rhetoric. Gilbert's writings amply attest his unusual accomplishments in both directions, but more particularly in mathematics. It is true that, in the last chapter of the 'De Magnete,' Mr. Mottelay (p. 354) makes Gilbert sneer at mathematicians; but the use of *hi*, "the latter," shows that not the mathematicians, but the philosophers, are meant. During his second year at the university, he was required to devote his studies to logic. Sir T. Wilson's 'Rule of Reason' was the only book on the subject that had been printed in England, but Gilbert certainly went deeper than that; his writings show it unmistakably. He was graduated in 1560, and obtained a fellowship. If, as Anthony à Wood asserts, he studied also in Oxford, it was most probably about this time. In 1565 he was mathematical examiner in St. John's, in 1569 he took his degree in medicine, and was appointed Senior Fellow.

On leaving college he went to travel on the Continent. He returned in 1573, and established himself in London. His house was on St. Peter's Hill, between Upper Thames Street and Little Knightrider Street. Mr. Mottelay locates this in Colchester; but the street (in the parish of St. Peter Paul's Wharf), called St. Peter's Hill, a continuation of Sermon Lane, appears on the old maps of London, and exists to this day. Upon being appointed principal physician to Queen Elizabeth, Gilbert seems to have moved to Whitehall. This broke up a society, the precursor of Gresham College and the Royal Society, which had for a long time met at his house. During his years in London he filled several offices in the Royal College of Physicians, those of censor, treasurer, consilarius, and finally, in 1600, the year of the publication of his great work, that of president. He died November 30, 1603, which was a plague year.

Gilbert is described as tall in stature. If we may trust to his portrait, he was robust and of energetic bearing. His head was square, his forehead square and smooth, his chin long, his physiognomy that of a practical man. At the same time, his appearance is refined and somewhat delicate. He was probably handsome. He never married. He was of a calm and cheerful disposition, "reserved but not morose," says Thomas Fuller. His book abounds in irascible expressions concerning certain classes of writers: "May the gods damn all such sham, pilfered, distorted works, which do but muddle the minds of students" (Book II., chap. xxxv.). He occasionally speaks rather haughtily of individuals. Thus, Jean Baptiste Besard (whose name Mr. Mottelay twice writes Bessard), certainly a very distinguished physician, is referred to as "one Besardus, a Frenchman." Although in 1600 Francis Bacon had not published anything about science, he had, no doubt, talked about it with Gilbert, and he is not improbably alluded to among the *rabulis*, or "pettifoggers," to whom the magnetic philosophy will not prove acceptable. Bacon, when his turn came, spoke contemptuously of Gilbert; but he gave dignity to what he said by making it quite true: "Gilbert has not unscientifically introduced the question of magnetic force. But he has himself become a magnet. That is, he has ascribed too many things to that force, and built a ship out of a shell."

ANOTHER LIFE OF GEN. THOMAS.

General Thomas. By Henry Coppée, LL.D., Professor in the Lehigh University, and formerly an officer of artillery in the United States Army. D. Appleton & Co. 12mo, pp. xiv, 332. [Great Commanders Series.]

THE tone of Prof. Coppée's Life of Gen. Thomas is in refreshing contrast to some other publications on the same subject. He has found it easy to eulogize his hero without vilifying others. There is, perhaps, only a single instance in which his reference to others is questionable, and that is where he speaks of Thomas as "beset" by the authorities at Washington in December, 1864 (p. 258). He apparently forgets that Lincoln and Stanton did not send despatches to Thomas, but expressed their fears and their criticisms to Gen. Grant, who was always measured, if he was emphatic, in his orders and despatches. The author's characterizations of Gen. Thomas are happy, both in the development of the man in the earlier chapters, and in the summary near the end of the book. The military preëminence which is attributed to him over all his contemporaries will not be accepted as the final verdict, but is so much in the vein of special biographies that we must expect each of the subjects of the Commanders Series to be in turn set on the same pinnacle. We shall have to judge for ourselves, after all, among these clashing preeminences.

In one respect, however, we had the right to expect from the author another sort of workmanship than that which he has given us. It certainly would not be asking too much to demand that a résumé of campaigns should be accurate and intelligible. The errors in the present one are so numerous and so serious that it is not going too far to say that the more familiar the reader may be with the military operations of 1864, the more he will be puzzled in reading these pages. To justify this judgment it is necessary to give examples.

The period named covers Sherman's campaign of Atlanta and Thomas's campaign of Nashville. The battle of Resaca occurred on the 14th of May. After a sketch of it the author proceeds to "the next great step in the campaign, which was the turning of Allatoona Pass. The same tactics were employed as before." Instead, however, of the manœuvres to turn Allatoona, we find another sketch of the movements at Resaca, and one which is contradictory of that before given. In the former, Thomas and Schofield "formed the left of Sherman's army" (p. 205); now they form the right (p. 208). Yet Johnston is described as making "a desperate effort to turn the left of Schofield"; but as Schofield is just described as being "in line on Thomas's right," Johnston's effort could not be "to turn" Schofield, but to pierce the line between Thomas and Schofield. The two sketches cannot be made to hang together, and neither is the second consistent with the first, nor would any change of names make it apply to Allatoona.

The combat of New Hope Church is said to have been (p. 209) "one of the most terrible battles of the war," but the description which follows is that of the affair at Pickett's Mill, which occurred at another time and place. Hooker's corps had the prominent part at the church, Howard's at the mill. Hooker's men are not mentioned, and the sketch is wholly made up of incidents of Howard's engagement. The movements of Sherman's army between May 25 and June 14 are summarized without specifying dates, the 9th of June being the one last named, when (p. 210) we are told that "at three P. M. Hood made an attack in triple line." This can refer only to the combat at Culp's Farm, which occurred not on the 9th but on the 22d. Immediately following the last is the incident of the death of Gen. (Bishop) Polk on Pine Mountain on the 14th of June, eight days before the engagement at Culp's, which in the sequence of the narrative is just before it.

Johnston was removed from the command of the Confederate army on July 17, and Hood succeeded him on the 18th. We are told that on assuming command "Hood made two successive attacks"; but the first, at Peach Tree Creek, is said to have been on the 18th (p. 214). It was, in fact, on the 20th, and the incidents given are those of the 20th. On pages 216 to 219, under a regular title of the Battle of Peach Tree Creek, we have a fuller account of what purports to be the second of these attacks, but it is the identical one which was partially described as of the 18th, though the correct date is now given. The same engage-

ment of parts of the Fourth and Twentieth Corps is specified, and the same personal direction of the artillery by Gen. Thomas. The second of Hood's attacks was, in fact, on the 22d, and was the battle of Atlanta, McPherson's Army of the Tennessee being assailed and that distinguished officer losing his life. This is not mentioned at all by the author in this connection. He passes at once by an italicized sub-title to "Jonesboro," and describes (p. 220) Hood's attack upon the army of the Tennessee (now under Gen. Howard) at this place, twenty-odd miles south of Atlanta, on August 31. The author then incidentally returns (p. 221) to the battle of Atlanta and McPherson's death, apparently only to account for the transfer of Gen. Howard to the army of the Tennessee, which he says was "much to the dissatisfaction of Gen. Hooker, who considered himself overslaughed and ill treated, and who threw up the command of the Fourth Corps, to which Gen. Stanley was at once promoted." Hooker did not command the Fourth Corps, but the Twentieth. It was Howard who was replaced by Stanley. Hooker was succeeded by Slocum.

In following the investment of Atlanta, we are told (p. 222) that

"there was a very severe fight at Ezra Church, just outside the city, and it was evident to Sherman that, with the very strong fortifications and heavy guns, it was proof against assault, and must either be taken by regular approaches or else he must have recourse to his former tactics and turn the position. He chose the latter and raised the siege in front of the town."

The battle at Ezra Church (July 28) was not an attack by Sherman on the Atlanta fortifications, and had nothing to do with proving that they could not be taken. It was an assault on Sherman's lines of investment by Hood, who got terribly punished. Sherman did not raise the siege or make the turning movement till a full month later.

We have next a repetition of the assault by Hood on the army of the Tennessee at Jonesboro, which is now placed "on the 31st of July," following up the last error and showing that the author connected it closely with the affair at Ezra Church. There were not two such attacks near Jonesboro, but only one, and that on the 31st of August.

We then learn that the causes which induced Hood to evacuate Atlanta were the cutting of his southern communications, and the fact that the town was "vigorously shelled in front by Thomas" (p. 223). The town was not shelled at that time. The Twentieth Corps had retired northward to the Chattahoochee entirely out of artillery range, and Thomas, with the rest of the army of the Cumberland, was at Jonesboro, twenty miles south of the city.

When Hood showed signs of a purpose to move northward on Sherman's lines of communication at the beginning of October (the date given is probably a misprint), the statement is made that "Thomas was directed to occupy Chattanooga with the army of the Cumberland, while the armies of the Ohio and the Tennessee were directed to move in concert and cover his rear." Less than a quarter of the army of the Cumberland was sent to Chattanooga, all three of the armies operated actively under Sherman against Hood, and Thomas in person went to Nashville, as the author subsequently notices on p. 309.

It is next stated that "on the 20th of September, Hood moved from Lovejoy Station, following on the heels of Thomas" (p. 228). Lovejoy station was nearly forty miles south of Atlanta, in and about which the whole of Sherman's army was, during the interval in the campaign. Thomas and his army were in Atlanta itself. They rested quietly there during September. Hood moved west from Lovejoy to Palmetto, not north, and when the active work of October began, the army of the Cumberland, with the other armies, was on his heels - he was not on theirs. Then it is said that "when Sherman was about to start on his famous march" to the sea, Thomas was instructed "to fall back rapidly towards Nashville and there put himself in condition for a new advance" (p. 229). Thomas had no such instructions. He was told to concentrate his forces at or near Columbia, fifty miles south of Nashville, and "go at" Hood.

On page 231 the army of the Ohio is said to be a different organization from the Twenty-third Corps. The corps was part of that army. On page 244 we are told that Thomas's first thought on October 3 had been to hold the line of Duck River in middle Tennessee against Hood, "but the enemy was so close at his heels that the scheme was abandoned," and he determined to await Hood at Nashville. The fact was that it was not till the last week of November that Hood approached the line of the Duck River. The mistaken notion that Hood was chasing Thomas from the time he left Lovejoy Station here reappears. There was a lively little campaign in Georgia, not Tennessee, in October.

Again, in the same connection, we are told that "on October 30 the Twenty-third Corps had begun its march to join Thomas at Nashville, and Hood followed in what proved to be a very rapid pursuit." Hood thus seems to be on everybody's heels; but it is a mistake. Schofield started with the Twenty-third Corps from Georgia when Hood was at Tuscumbia, near the Mississippi line, with the whole breadth of the State of Alabama between. Schofield moved directly towards Hood, not away from him, some two hundred miles. It would be difficult to confuse the events of that period more completely than the author has done. The Fourth Corps had immediately preceded Schofield in this same movement towards Hood, and the two corps were united under Schofield at Pulaski, thirty-three miles south of Duck River, before Hood crossed the Tennessee. They in fact made their first stand at Duck River from the 24th to the 29th of November, where the author places Thomas with Hood close at his heels in the beginning of October.

It is assumed (pp. 244, 245) that the Fourth Corps was with Thomas at Nashville, that Schofield collected "the Union troops which had been scattered throughout" southern Tennessee, and with these and the Twenty-third Corps retreated to Columbia, where he was joined by the Fourth Corps (p. 246). Instead of this, the Fourth Corps was first at Pulaski, Schofield joined it with part of the Twenty-third Corps, and did not collect the scattered troops (post garrisons), for he was not authorized by Thomas to do so.

On page 247 it is said that when Schofield's army reached Franklin, the field of the bloody battle of the 30th of November, "with both flanks posted on the Harpeth River, Schofield's forces occupied the old intrenchments there." There were no old intrenchments there, and Schofield's men made their own. There was a small enclosed work on the north side of the river, which had been built the year before to protect the railway bridge, but this cut no figure in the battle, which was fought on the south side. The suppression of the part of the officers and men of the Twenty-third Corps in the battle was a *suggestio falsi* begun by Van Horne. More recent publications have given the opportunity for correction, of which the author has not availed himself. The approaching publication of the forty-fifth volume of the Official Records will end this perversion of history.

On pages 267-268 events are given as part of the first day of the battle of Nashville (December 15) which, so far as accurate, belong to the second day. The same, in a somewhat different version, appear on p. 271 in the account of the fighting on the 16th, where they belong.

It will be seen that the things we have thus pointed out are not trifles or possible slips of the pen. They go to the very essence of a consistent conception of the campaigns. When the author is thus at sea in his collection of authorities and abridgment of more voluminous accounts, he destroys the weight which otherwise his judgments might have when he concludes that Thomas's military grasp of the situation and capacity as a commander were greater than Grant's or Sherman's. No one can affirm that whose comprehension of the military events is not accurate, lucid, and consistent. Such a one must necessarily appear to be only the echo of the opinions of a coterie of extreme partisans.

The Private Life of the Romans. With numerous illustrations. By Harriet Waters Preston and Louise Dodge. Boston: Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 1893.

An elementary book on the private life of the Romans has long been needed for the use of schools and the lower classes in colleges. There has been practically nothing in English (except the dictionaries of antiquities) later than Metcalf's translation of the first edition of Becker's 'Gallus,' and the more recent works in German are unfortunately sealed books to most of our young students. In the present little volume the editors have followed Marquardt pretty closely, although they have also used Friedländer as well as Göll's revision of the 'Gallus.' The subjects of the six chapters are the Family; the House and Everyday Life; Children, Slaves, Guests, etc.; Food and Clothing; Agriculture; and Travel and Amusements. Tables of weights, measures, money, etc., are also given. No pretence is made to originality or completeness, but the object of the book is to offer useful and interesting information upon a variety of topics without going deeply into any one, and (most difficult of tasks) to make the Romans seem to the boy living beings like ourselves, instead of creatures who spent their lives in constructing syntactical puzzles. The editors may be congratulated upon a work well done. Their book, in spite of its condensed treatment, is no mere marshalling of facts; it is readable, interesting, and in the main reliable. It deserves a place in the library of every good classical school, and, standing alone as it does in its field, it will probably enjoy a large sale. This is why we shall depart from our usual custom in the case of elementary works, and, instead of noticing it briefly, point out some blemishes which should be removed in the next edition.

To begin with the illustrations. Of these there are a dozen full-page photogravures and forty woodcuts in the text. The former are all pretty well executed except the view of the Roman house (after Schill), in which it is impossible to read the names of the different parts. Among the cuts two or three are indistinct in outline and features. For all these, new pictures should be made. The cut called a "Ro-

man Bath from an Ancient Painting" should be struck out altogether. It is not ancient at all, but was long ago shown to have been drawn in the sixteenth century. This brings us to the sources of the pictures in general. More than half of them come from Rich's Dictionary, and it was scarcely worth while to reproduce so much from an old book in such common use. Moreover, Rich hardly ever gives his sources with exactness, and one often entertains the gravest doubts about the authenticity of his pictures. To refer to Rich, therefore, as the editors do in the case of about half of their cuts, is of little use to the earnest teacher or student who wants to know the exact place in which the ancient work was found. For the other half (with four or five exceptions) no sources whatever are given. These matters are easily remedied, and it would not be difficult to replace many of the cuts from Rich with others of more interesting and more ancient works. It is a pity, too, that the editors should help to perpetuate the old myths that the seated female statue in the Capitol represents the elder Agrippina, or that the Torlonia Livia is anything more than an idealization from a Greek work centuries older than the time of the first empress.

Coming now to the text, we find in the description of the marriage procession the statement that of the bride's escort (the *patrimi* and *matrimi*) "one carried her rock [why not say *distaff*?] and spindle, while the other two bore torches." But Festus, our only informant, says that one carried a torch while the other two led the bride. The spinning implements were carried by other attendants. From Festus also it is clear that it was rather a *coif* than a *net* which was used to confine the bride's hair on the night before her wedding. Another liberty is taken with an author's language when the editors say that Tacitus tells us that the ancestors of Drusus *walked* in his funeral train. The word of Tacitus is *spectarentur;* we know of only one passage in an ancient writer that lends any support to the common belief that the ancestors went on foot instead of in vehicles. But Propertius is hardly to be set against Polybius, Silius, Servius, and probably Tacitus himself, who uses *antelatæ* in his account of the funeral of Junia. Then, again, is there any ancient authority for the statement that the wearers of the *imagines* "strove to impersonate the distinguished dead in speech and action"? Are not the editors thinking of the Mime who sometimes impersonated the dead man at his own funeral? And why is it not clearly stated that this whole business of the *ius imaginum* was a very limited prerogative?

In three or four places where prices are mentioned, the amounts in Roman money are reduced to our standard, and upon this is based comment upon the comparative value of the articles in question then and now. This is the method of procedure common in such books, but it is extremely rough and often misleading; for the cheapness or dearness of an article is of course relative to the cost of other articles at the time in question, and hence the value of money can be determined only by comparison of many prices—lines of argument which the editors seem to have overlooked. For instance, they call the dollar a month paid by pupils in primary private schools a very mean sum. But on another page they show that all the privileges of the magnificent Roman baths could be had for about half a cent. A consideration of what can be got nowadays with one two-hundredth of the monthly payment made by a pupil in a private school makes it look as though the Roman schoolmaster was not at all badly paid, and shows that the interesting question is what the money will buy, not the intrinsic value of the coin.

A few briefer criticisms: there is no ancient authority for the statement, made three times, that the *solea* was ever worn by horses, though we know that it was worn by other beasts of burden and draught. It is at least doubtful whether *atrium* is derived from *ater*. The abbreviation HS. and the term *nummus* are used (pages 52, 118), but not explained. Of misprints we observe *ass* twice for *as* (page 140), *aatim* for *datatim* (page 155). The provincialism "gotten" appears on page 30. The editors' intention is to mark the quantity of every long vowel in Latin words; we note that long *o* final is left unmarked half-a-dozen times, as well as the *a* in *mansio* on page 138. One subject on which hardly a word is said is that of religion. It deserves a few pages, for one never thinks of a Roman house without its household gods. The index should be made much fuller.

The Land of Poco Tiempo. By Charles F. Lummis. Illustrated. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1893. 8vo, pp. 310.

With but few exceptions, the eleven sketches of which this volume is composed are descriptive of certain phases of life among the different classes or races that make up the native population of New Mexico. To one of these classes, the phrase *poco tiempo* ("pretty soon"), or, rather, the idea it conveys, is supposed to be peculiarly applicable; and there seems to be no doubt that it paints, in a word, the indifference with which our Spanish-American fellow-citizen is said to look upon any attempt at what we regard as an improvement of his condition. At all events, like *mañana* in Spain, it is his answer to any request that calls for exertion of mind or body; and to this extent it is certainly descriptive. But, while admitting this, it is well to remember that these nineteenth-century philosophers can be found only in one portion of the population, and that even in it the exceptions are by no means rare. Outside of it, we have the Pueblo, who, judging from his style of living, cannot be included in the list; and the same is true of the Apache, and, we may add, of his Navajo kinsman, of the former of whom we are told (p. 185) that "he is now a peaceful farmer, learning the lessons of civilization as fast as the aboriginal man can learn them."

In all this portion of his work our author follows Bandelier; and save for an over-indulgence in the use of superlatives, and an occasional hasty generalization, he is thoroughly satisfactory. His theme, in a general way, is Indian civilization, and his sketches of some of its phases are of interest as social studies, aside from their ethnological value. Especially is this true of the account of the condition, form of government, etc., of the Pueblos—those "home-loving tillers of the soil" who were "farmers, irrigators, and six-story-house builders" long before the time of Columbus, and whose trade (p. 37) in salt, buffalo hides, turquoise, cotton mantles, etc., extended, even in those early days, from Eastern Kansas to Northern Mexico. Republicans, too, they were before our government was established; and though they have been citizens (p. 8) of the United States since the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, in 1848, they still keep up their old forms and have not yet become politicians and office-seekers. Literally (p. 45) the office, among them, seeks the man, and, when he is found, it is sometimes necessary, even in the case of a governor, "to throw him into the *calaboz* for a few days" by way of persuading him to accept the high position to which he has been chosen. In a word, considered socially and politically, these people seem to have built up in a rude fashion, and by a path far removed from communism, a number of miniature republics in which crime (p. 41) and poverty (p. 29) are practically unknown. Probably nowhere else on the globe can there be found nine thousand people, selected at random, of whom as much can be said, or among whom the average of physical comfort is so general and so high.

Besides these papers, there are others, as, for instance, those upon Folk Songs and the Penitent Brothers, which treat of certain features in the life of the Spanish-American portion of the population. With the former of these sketches we do not propose to concern ourselves, for the reason that the songs, interesting no doubt as the expression of feelings that are common everywhere and to everybody, can hardly be classed as "folk" songs, using that term in its technical sense. The account of the Penitent Brothers, however, cannot be dismissed in this summary fashion, as the order or brotherhood is, in its present condition, a practical survival of the Flagellants; and in so far as it copies their methods it furnishes a sad example of the depth to which a worthy order may sink. As originally constituted, it was a branch of the Franciscans, and its object was religious study and conversation, but in the years that have elapsed since its introduction into New Mexico, it has fallen so far from its high estate that the scourge, the cross, and other penitential devices of like character are made to take the place of conduct as a means and an evidence of sanctification. At one time the order was numerous, but, coming under the ban of the Church, it has dwindled away until there is now but one hamlet in the territory—San Mateo—where the observances are kept up with anything like their ancient severity; and even here the victim is tied on the cross and not nailed to it (pp. 84, 99, 106), as was customary as late as A. D. 1890.

As might be expected in an order of this character, its rules are kept secret, though some of them have become known. Thus, for example, crimes against the persons or property of strangers are unnoticed, but if a Penitent injures a brother in any particular, he is severely punished. Sometimes this supervision extends to the domestic affairs of a member, and an instance is given in which a certain individual was "buried up to his neck" during the whole of one night for having beaten his wife. Another rule, which might be introduced with advantage elsewhere in our country, permits no married man to become a member without the consent of his wife. She cannot join, though a few years ago she could have done so. But, though women are no longer eligible, and consequently do not use the scourge, walk on cactus thorns, and otherwise publicly "discipline" themselves, they are allowed to take part in the processions; and it is of interest as showing the hold the institution has upon the people, as well as being "a cynical commentary upon our mission work," that one of the most conspicuous figures in the procession described by our author (p. 95) was the Mexican wife of the Presbyterian missionary then stationed at San Mateo.

In conclusion, it gives us pleasure to call attention to the handsome style in which this volume is published. The paper is good, the type large, and the illustrations, of which there

are a number, are taken from photographs, and, what is more to the point, they illustrate. In the accounts of Acoma and of the different sites of Cochiti, they are used to great advantage; and, last but not least, they help us to a clear idea of the ruined Tabira—the legendary Gran Quivira of the early records—and the other "cities that were forgotten."

The Partridge. [The Fur and Feather Series. Edited by Alfred E. T. Watson.] Longmans, Green & Co. Illustrated.

THE term partridge, as applied in this country, is susceptible of different significations according to locality. In the Northern and Western states a ruffed grouse is called a partridge, while in the States of the South that title is accorded to the quail. The English or European partridge is a distinct bird not indigenous to this continent; in size it occupies a position between our Northern quail and ruffed grouse. To the present volume three writers have each contributed a paper—the Rev. H. A. MacPherson on the natural history of the partridge, A. J. Stuart-Wortley on its shooting, and George Saintsbury on its cookery. The two first, while admirable in their way, offer nothing which has not been recorded time and again.

The third paper—that of Mr. George Saintsbury, on the cooking of the partridge—may arouse a languid interest among our gastronomic connoisseurs, inasmuch as, within the past few years, there have been large importations of English partridges into this country; one single invoice during the winter of last year amounting to 400 dozen, or 4,800, of these birds. It is unfortunate that Mr. Saintsbury was not better equipped, technically, for the undertaking of his performance. Like most of his countrymen, he has wisely and promptly abandoned the culinary formulas of his own land and sought inspiration from those of the French; yet in these he has chosen badly, as he has suggested for the cooking of the partridge methods which are not only entirely beyond the resources of average English and American households, but even of those which aspire to a higher plane of culinary achievement. The flesh of the English or European partridge is essentially dry. To supplement this, without impairing the natural aroma of the bird, through the most simple and direct treatment, is the culmination of gastronomic endeavor. In no wise does Mr. Saintsbury indicate how this may be accomplished. He has suggested only in a vague and perfunctory manner ways of cooking the bird, with no details as to their direct application. Under these conditions, Mr. Saintsbury's contribution to the book under notice is of no practical value whatsoever.

The illustrations which accompany the text are of superior merit.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Superfluous Woman. Cassell. $1.
Boyden, W. C. A First Book in Algebra. Boston: Silver, Burdette & Co. 60 cents.
Brown, W. F. Uncle Rob's Baby. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Cajori, Prof. Florian. A History of Mathematics. Macmillan. $3.50.
Cheney, W. T. An Apocalypse of Life. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Duysters, G. F. A Senator at Sea. G. W. Dillingham. 25 cents.
Eaton, Abbie F. Riehl's Das Spielmannskind und Der stumme Ratsherr. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 25 cents.
Edwards, Emilie. A Royal Heiress. Chicago: E. A. Weeks & Co. 50 cents
Fansshawe, Reginald. Two Lives: A Poem. London: Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Firebaugh, Mrs. Ellen M. The Physician's Wife. Philadelphia: F. A. Davis Co. $1.25
Geikie, Rev. Cunningham. Landmarks of Old Testament History. James Pott & Co. $1.50.
Geikie, Rev. Cunningham. New Testament Hours. Vol. I., The Gospels. James Pott & Co. $1.50.
Glazebrook, R. T. Heat: An Elementary Text-Book. Cambridge; University Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Gosse, Edmund. The Jacobean Poets. Scribners. $1.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 22, 1894.

The Week.

EIGHT of the twelve New England Senators—all Republicans—voted against the confirmation of Peckham on Friday. Four of these voted or paired for Hornblower, but went over to the Democrats to beat Peckham. Hawley did not vote either way when Hornblower was under consideration, but voted against Peckham—reading, the *Sun* says, arguments from the *Sun* in justification of his course. The result is, of course, mainly if not wholly the personal triumph of the basest and most corrupt politician in the Union, and the discouragement of men like Mr. Peckham who have stood by good causes in evil days, and made sacrifices for the public good. In the whole vote against Peckham, there were fifteen Democrats and twenty-four Republicans. His rejection was, therefore, Republican work.

The only rag which the leading Republican organ can fish out of its political ash-barrel to cover the shame of the Republican Senators who put themselves so readily at Hill's service, is what it calls the "disclosure" that Mr. Peckham had "declared a protective tariff unconstitutional." This, it says, was "so startling that we are not surprised so many Republican Senators refused to vote for him." These poor startled innocents can never have read the Democratic platform of 1892, which said: "We declare it to be a fundamental principle of the Democratic party that the federal Government has no constitutional power to impose and collect tariff duties except for the purpose of revenue only." According to that, no Democrat, not even Judge Maynard, whom the Republicans would otherwise be delighted to vote for, could go on the Supreme bench with Republican consent. Hornblower presumably held the same doctrine as Peckham, yet Hoar and Lodge voted for him. Their sudden discovery of conscientious and constitutional scruples in Peckham's case was most suspiciously timed. Hill had to have their votes, and they furnished them, along with their scruples, on demand. Mr. Peckham, as he has since publicly given out, does not hold and never "declared" the doctrine now imputed to him. Messrs. Hoar and Lodge could easily have satisfied themselves of this if they had been as anxious to find out the truth as they were to serve the devil.

The appointment of Senator White of Louisiana to the long vacant place on the Supreme bench, considered upon its merits, is to be highly commended. He is a lawyer of marked ability; he has seen service on the Supreme bench of his own State; he is versed in the civil code of Louisiana, which plays an important part in many cases coming before the court; he is only forty-eight years old and in vigorous health, so that he may very likely serve for a quarter of a century. During his three years in the Senate, he has made a high reputation as a constitutional lawyer and a clear and vigorous thinker. He has displayed marked independence more than once, as in his opposition to the anti-option law and to the free-coinage lunacy, both of which were very strong in his State. Nor should it ever be forgotten that the whole country owes him a debt of gratitude for his leadership in fighting the lottery gang when they dominated the politics of Louisiana. His appointment gives the Gulf tier of States the first really efficient representative it has had on the Supreme bench since John A. Campbell of Alabama resigned his place to "go with his State" in 1861.

The conviction of McKane is a gain for the cause of good government which fitly supplements the defeat of Maynard's nomination for a judgeship of the Court of Appeals. Both Maynard and McKane, in different ways, assailed the integrity of our form of government by tampering with elections and their results. Maynard's case was submitted to a jury of the whole people; McKane's to a jury of twelve men. The verdict of both tribunals was the same. Ex-Secretary Tracy has done his duty in the recent trial. He deserves warm praise for the part which he played in it, and we would not detract in the slightest degree from the credit which is his due. But Mr. Tracy is himself one of the men who are responsible for the growth of McKaneism to the terrible proportions which it finally reached. He knew five years ago that McKane was a rascal. He knew that the alleged conversion of Gravesend from a Democratic into a Republican stronghold was a fraud. He knew that McKane was a man who ought to have been kicked down the steps of the White House when he had the impudence to call there. But so long as McKane swindled for the benefit of the Republican party, neither Harrison, nor Tracy, nor Fassett, nor the editor of the New York *Tribune*, nor any other Republican leader had a word to say against him. No more had the Democratic managers previous to 1888, when he counted Gravesend for them.

There is an amusing competition between the *Herald* and the *World* as to which of them convicted McKane. The *World* says that "it is a triumph for the *World*," but the *Herald* says "it is the *Herald's* work," and cites Judge Gaynor in support of this startling proposition. Now if either assertion be true, McKane is entitled under the Constitution to a new trial, for the Constitution says he shall be convicted only by a jury, and shall not be deprived of life, liberty, or property "unless by the law of the land and the judgment of his peers." If either of these newspapers has convicted him, therefore, a great wrong has been done, and the Court of Appeals will surely discharge him, trial by newspaper being unknown to our system of jurisprudence. The question will remain, however, Are trial and conviction by a morning newspaper "jeopardy" in the sense in which the term is used in the Constitution? That is, can a man after such conviction be again put on his trial before a jury? We venture no opinion on this, but the point is evidently a nice one. There is another difficulty not less serious. Can trial by newspaper be prevented? McKane's jury was guarded with extraordinary strictness, and Judge Bartlett is supposed to be above reproach, and yet McKane was being tried all the while by two newspapers, both daily. Can this be prevented?

In the hearing before the Senate judiciary committee last week, touching the injunction granted by Judge Clute, the county judge, restraining the clerk of the Senate, Mr. Kenyon, from calling the name of Mr. Wolfert, whom the Senate had seated in place of McCarty, it came out that ex-Judge Maynard was really at the bottom of the whole affair. Judge Clute testified that Maynard drew the papers and brought them to him, and said they were all right, and asked him to sign them, and as he was busy in drawing a jury, and had no time to look into the matter, he did sign them. Afterwards he sent for Maynard and told him that unless he could show him some authority for what he had done, he would vacate the injunction. Maynard then said he would look for authorities, but soon came back and said he could find none, so the injunction was vacated. As Maynard ought never to have been put on the bench of the Court of Appeals, and would never have been put there by any Governor but Gov. Flower, we will not express our astonishment that any man who had been a judge of the Court of Appeals should suppose that a county judge, or any judge, could restrain the clerk of the Senate from calling the roll of that house. That such a thing should get into the head of any lawyer, and that

Maynard (after all that has happened) should be willing to appear in such an affair, looks as if much trouble had deranged his mind. If on examination he can be cleared of the charge of insanity, it is he, and not Judge Clute, whom the Senate should punish for contempt.

Those who still think the scheme of annexing Hawaii was not hatched in this country, would do well to ponder some statements recently made by Mr. W. N. Armstrong in a speech before the Annexation Club in Honolulu:

"While he was with Kalakaua in Vienna in 1881," the report of his speech says, "he met his old friend William Walter Phelps, then American minister to Austria, and they discussed the question of the future of Hawaii. Mr. Phelps advocated annexation, and insisted on his (Mr. Armstrong's) seeing Mr. Blaine on his return to Washington, and took the trouble to write to Mr. Blaine on the subject. He (Mr. Armstrong) did see Mr. Blaine, and found that he took a warm interest in the matter, but President Garfield died at that time and Mr. Blaine left office."

A great many brilliant schemes of foreign policy, with nitrate and sugar attachments, were brought to naught by that same leaving of office.

It is safe to say that nobody outside newspaper offices, and very few inside them, will read the portentous document which is given out as President Dole's reply to Minister Willis, and which is variously described as overwhelming, scorching, irrefutable, and the like. This does excellently for headlines, but the man who, for his sins, is forced to read the letter itself will discover, in the first place, that it was not written by Dole at all, but by the more valiant and less discreet Thurston, that it is largely based upon irresponsible newspaper chatter, and that nearly every specification contains a positive disclaimer of any intention of "charging you or your Government" with what was, in fact, most distinctly charged in the letter of December 27. President Dole penned that heroic epistle for use in this country, and, after refusing for more than two weeks to make good his assertions of fact, turned the job over to Thurston, who now practically avows that the whole thing was only a bit of political humbug, and hopes that nobody's feelings will be hurt.

That attempt to arouse sympathy in this country for the endangered patriots in Honolulu having served its purpose and been laid aside, there is now a revival of royalist plots to affright the civilized world. This time there is to be a wholesale use of dynamite and poison, with the British minister and British marines darkly in the background; and though the dynamite explosions have thus far been limited to a cartridge dropped by a patriotic but nervous soldier, and the poison to cheese and macaroni in deadly proportions, "there is no question that this plot has been arranged, and that if there is any opportunity it will be carried out." Of course, when a government is in daily peril of being blown up or poisoned, it will not occur to any one to inquire too curiously whether it is taxing people without representation, or masquerading as a republic in so transparent a disguise that even the American League in Honolulu has tired of the imposture, and now cries loudly for some "representative form of government."

The international law of the last Administration got another black eye last week, when the mixed commission on Chilian claims decided that the United States had no "probable cause" for detaining the *Itata* at San Diego, and must now pay damages for that illegal action. As this is merely confirmatory of the prior decision of a United States court, we presume that Gen. Harrison and ex-Secretary Tracy will not care to argue the matter further. The affair will take its place alongside the ignominious overturning by the Paris tribunal of the other grotesque piece of international law which was set up in the Bering Sea controversy.

The Texas men in Congress are "red-hot" for an income tax, but there could not be a more vigorous protest against the policy than that which appeared the other day in the most prominent journal of Texas, the Galveston *News*. It characterizes the measure as "a tax on the enterprise, industry, and earning capacity of the citizen"; says that "it means, not equal and uniform taxation, but discriminating class taxation"; and, more than this, is "a direct and dangerous departure from the policy of the Democratic party and from the principles upon which free and equal republican government is based." The *News* emphasizes the brutality of the scheme in the provision which authorizes an indefinite multitude of officers and agents, spies, and informers to ransack the private affairs of any citizen having $4,000 or over of income, or purporting to have over $3,500 and less than $4,000, which authorizes them to assess at discretion a penalty of 50 or 100 per cent. additional tax for such a citizen's alleged misstatement of his assets on oath, and which, in effect, makes their reports and findings conclusive against him without a chance to have the proceedings judicially reviewed or the wrong and extortion which they may involve averted or redressed. It recalls a declaration by the Supreme Court some years ago when it overruled a similar provision of an administrative customs law which is exceedingly pat:

"Any compulsory discovery by extorting the party's oath, or compelling the production of his private books and papers to convict him of crime or to forfeit his property, is contrary to the principles of a free government. It is abhorrent to the instincts of an Englishman. It is abhorrent to the instincts of an American. It may suit the purposes of despotic power, but it cannot abide the pure atmosphere of political liberty and personal freedom."

Advocates of the assessment of personal property by means of the listing system will find little encouragement in the "Report of the Tax Commission of Ohio," presented to Gov. McKinley on December 23, 1893. Ohio has "the most efficient and minute scheme of bringing upon the duplicate all classes of property which has been devised in any State." Not only is the citizen bound under oath to fill out a complete return of his personal property, but the law in addition empowers each county to contract with "tax inquisitors," who may be paid 20 per cent. of the tax upon all previously unassessed personal property entered through their efforts upon the tax duplicates. Even under the operation of this drastic provision, "the general property tax has become in the cities to a very considerable extent a tax upon tangible property only." In the State at large intangible property pays 9.4 per cent. of the taxes. But, in the five counties containing the chief cities of Ohio, intangible property pays only 5.2 per cent. of the taxes; Hamilton County, including Cincinnati, returning but 3.4 per cent., and Cuyahoga County, including Cleveland, but 5 per cent. In short, the general property tax is, in Ohio, as in New York, flagrantly unjust in its operation.

Turning their attention to its reform, the commission not only recognize that, although nominally a tax upon property, it is and must be in fact paid out of income, but even go further, and assert that income, and not the value of property owned, is the true index of ability to aid in bearing the burdens of the State. Especially upon businesses of a quasi-monopolistic character taxation should be proportionate, therefore, rather to their earnings than to their property. An interesting investigation as to the relative pressure of taxation, State and local, upon the incomes derivable from various sorts of property and business leads to the conclusion that, in Ohio, whereas railways pay of their net earnings from 5 to 12 per cent., banks pay from 17 to 23 per cent., and choice city real estate pays from 14 to 25 per cent. of its gross rental. The commission therefore suggest an annual franchise tax on corporations, including railways, and the extension of the corporate organization tax to foreign corporations doing business in the State. Some further portion of the intangible property that now escapes taxation they propose to reach by an extension, and an increase in rate, of the inherit-

ance tax, and by a privilege tax upon transfers of property, and upon appeals, writs of error, etc. Although not without its questionable features, for example the last-quoted recommendation, this Ohio report is, as a whole, deserving of more attention than commonly falls to the lot of documents of its class.

No charge has been more indignantly denied by good Republicans than that protection is essentially and viciously socialistic. But ex-President Harrison, in his reluctant emergence as a Presidential candidate at Indianapolis on Wednesday week, innocently "gave the whole thing away." Said the good man: "It is generally accepted now as a right principle that our city councils, our county commissioners, our State legislatures, should legislate to create work for the unemployed." And he added: "The Republican theory has been all along that it was right to so legislate as to provide work, employment, comfort to the American workingman. We believe that the national Government has a duty to perform in this respect as well as the city council and the board of county commissioners." That is to say, protection and socialism are one in principle. Any one who attentively considers the theory of those two forms of interfering with individual initiative and liberty will see that they spring from a common root. Any one who observes the way protection and socialism have gone hand in hand in Germany and France for the past ten years will be convinced of their identity of spirit. And now Gen. Harrison admits that identity in the most unmistakable terms.

In this he is at one with his two rivals for the Presidential nomination. Reed and McKinley have already taken the position that it is the duty of the national Government to provide work and good wages for all applicants, and from this time on it will doubtless be a close race between the three to see which one can promise the most work and the highest wages. So far as this is not demagogy, it is rank socialism. Suppose the Republicans should carry the next Presidential election on the strength of such promises, where could they stop? Wages would not go up or work be multiplied, except in accordance with the law of supply and demand, and how irresistible would then be the appeal of the deceived workingmen for Government workshops, old-age and accident insurance, the nationalization of railways and telegraphs, with easy work and good pay for everybody, and the rest of the socialistic programme? It would not do for McKinley to draw back on the score of expense, for all he would have to do would be to clap on cruel taxes, make the foreigners pay them promptly, and have plenty of money for everything.

Dr. Stanton Coit has an apparently authorized interview in the *Sun*, in which he gives in detail his plan of city improvements. It includes an expenditure of $20,000,000 by the city within the next six months, and, if necessary, an expenditure of $100,000,000 in pulling down the backs of tenement houses and converting them into "parks," and the employment of all people out of work, by the State, until such time as private employers call them off. He also wants an underground railroad to be constructed and owned by the city, and lots of "swimming pools," "private baths," "water-closets," and "halls" to be constructed at public expense for the people. In the whole interview there is not an allusion to the source from which the money for these things is to come. In fact, the compartment which ought to be devoted to "receipts" seems wholly wanting in the doctor's head. He overlooks, too, completely the effect which these city luxuries are to have on the rural population. It is a fact that even now few farmers within 100 miles of New York can get any one to work for them; this shows, we fear, that Dr. Coit's sociology is a very lobsided science. The interview richly merits the *Sun's* heading:

> "The People of the City Are to Lift Themselves by Their Bootstraps Out of the Slough of Hard Times by Taxing Poverty to Pay for Employing the Poor."

Col. T. W. Higginson, in a recent lecture before the Nationalist Club in Boston, is reported by the Boston *Herald* to have spoken of an old claim, "now kept up by the New York *Nation*," that "what is done by the public is never so well done as by private capital, which has been exploded over and over again." No such claim was ever made by the *Nation*. If Col. Higginson had substituted "hardly ever" for "never," he would have come somewhat nearer the truth. The post-office illustration which he used will do him no good. The *Nation* has always said that *some* things were better done by Government than by individuals, and especially things which individuals would not do at all because they would not pay; and the post-office is one of these. No private company would undertake to cover the United States with post-offices any more than to maintain military roads, because the returns would not meet the expenses. The Government this year is $7,000,000 out of pocket in carrying on the post-offices. In New York city, however, we could get a much better postal service from an express company than we get from the Government. All service is apt to be bad in establishments where it is not necessary that the income should meet the outgo. This fact affects everybody from the chief down. It makes discipline slacker, makes the selection of employees less strict, and the accountability for service less severe. In drawing the line between the things which should be done by Government and the things which should be left to private enterprise, we have, as in all other transactions of life, to use judgment, and pay attention to human experience, just as a householder does. He never draws up a list of things which nothing will induce him to buy and which he must make for himself at any cost, no matter what anybody says. Mr. J. S. Mill is not as much of an authority now as he used to be, but his definition of the limits of the province of government has never been improved on, and the Nationalists would do well to look at it.

Thus far all efforts (if they may be called efforts) to bring together the Senators at Trenton in one body and so to take the brake from the wheels of legislation, have failed. The result will be the passage of a good many measures, some of them very commendable, by the Assembly and the Republican Senators sitting by themselves, the refusal of the Governor to receive or sign these bills, and a contest more or less expensive and prolonged in getting them passed upon by the highest courts. It is not difficult to foretell where the punishment for this condition of affairs will be applied by the people. It is the Democratic minority in the Senate who have produced the deadlock, and they will be held accountable for the result without the credit of any honorable motives. When, as in this case, Senators present themselves to be sworn in, whose seats are not even contested by their opponents at the polls, the people are not going to stop to discuss nice points of parliamentary law raised in order to find an excuse for depriving such Senators of their places.

The question whether the game of football ought to be encouraged was discussed in Philadelphia last week by two college professors—Woodrow Wilson of Princeton, who took the affirmative, and Burt G. Wilder of Cornell, in the negative. Prof. Wilson made the familiar plea that the game develops moral qualities, but Prof. Wilder met this very neatly when he asked, "If football be so noble a game—if it be a game which has such possibilities for the training of youth—why then does an ex-football captain, under his own name, state that an umpire in the shape of a perfect sport should be employed to keep the young men in order?" We think the defenders of the game as now played would do well to omit the "moral-qualities" argument. It is really a little too much.

TAMMANY AND REPUBLICAN BOSSES.

DR. PARKHURST made the following observations at the meeting of the City Vigilance League on Saturday night:

"We do not want to be run by any religious clique, any political clique, any man, nor any body of men. We want leaders, but we do not want bosses. I do not care a rap what the political affiliations of bosses are. I would rather be run by a Tammany Hall boss than a Republican boss, for the more pretensions of decency a boss makes, the more dangerous he is. I speak of this with a good deal of feeling at this time, for the possibilities of evil that are wrapped up in the political boss have recently been brought home to me."

Nothing truer or more timely has been said of late in this State. Bossism—that is, the practice of waiting to hear from one man how to vote, and how to legislate, and how to nominate—is killing, here and elsewhere, the state of mind on the part of the bulk of the people which is necessary for the maintenance of a really republican form of government. It is truly the beginning of the end, for, after a people has for a series of years been directed by its bosses how to vote and how to legislate, the transition to a régime in which the boss would save it the trouble of voting and do all the work of government himself, seems simple and easy. Already we may well ask, What is the use of the Legislature in Albany, with all its talk and expense, if it cannot act without Platt's directions? Why not let Platt act without the intervention of the Speaker, and the references to committees, and the three readings, and the committee of the whole, and the sham debates, and all the rest of the antiquated machinery of the earlier days?

Under the present system, too, the responsibility is divided, in the public eye, between Platt and the Legislature, whereas it ought to be concentrated on Platt. People cling to the old notion of Silas Wright's days that the legislators come up to Albany with open minds, and are won over by the arguments they hear in debate and from deputations who appear before committees; the fact being that they get a "tip" from the boss as to what line the majority is to take this year on all great questions of the day, and that line has no more to do with the welfare of the people of New York than of the people of Ohio. This is all wrong. Whichever form of government we have, we ought to have it openly and in the light of day. We ought to be governed either by the Legislature or by the boss, and not by the boss skulking behind the Legislature. And from this point of view one boss is about as good as another. Croker was the boss of the last Legislature, and differed from Platt as a boss only in acting more openly, and probably in filling his own pockets, which we do not believe Platt does. But he was no worse enemy of republican government than Platt is. Both of them are enemies of the state of mind among the people which makes republican government possible. The notion that republican government can last long among a people who have got into the habit of acting under the direction of leaders who control them, not through speeches and writings—that is, through the arts of persuasion—but through secret orders, is a chimera.

Equally important is Dr. Parkhurst's statement that he would "rather be run by a Tammany Hall boss than a Republican boss, for the more pretensions to decency a boss makes, the more dangerous he is." And this remark covers not only our local boss, but all Republican public men. It covers especially men like Senators Hoar and Lodge. It is far worse morally, far more mischievous in its influence on our political manners, for such as these to help Hill to punish men for defeating his scheme of putting a dishonest man on the bench of the Court of Appeals, than for Hill to concoct the scheme and try to carry it out. People expected nothing better from Hill, the spawn, as he is, of the village caucus and grogshop; but when the names of Hoar and Lodge are mentioned, we all think of Boston culture, of Harvard College, of Garrison and Phillips, of Emerson and Parker, and wonder whether they rest easily in their graves if they hear of what the successors of Charles Sumner have done.

To appreciate fully what they have done, we must recall our rejoicings over the action of the Bar Association in Maynard's case. We must remember how much the Bar Association had been reproached for its cowardice in dealing with forensic and judicial corruption. We must remember with what surprise and delight the public hailed the formation of a committee of its foremost men of both parties to examine the charges against Maynard, and the still greater surprise and delight with which they read the sweeping condemnation that this committee unanimously passed on Maynard's practices. We do not believe we exaggerate when we say that it caused a widespread feeling that a new force had appeared in our politics, and had appeared on the side of purity and order. Our leading lawyers seemed to have recovered their courage and their interest in public affairs, and to have placed them at the service of the state.

And, lastly, we must remember that what Hill was trying to do, and what they were largely instrumental in preventing his doing, was something for which we think the history of modern civilized states has no parallel. He was trying to put into the court of last resort of a great community a man fresh from the commission of a gross fraud, which he attempted neither to palliate nor to deny. For that offence Hill has never expressed the smallest regret. On the contrary, he has made no secret of his intention to use his office in the Senate to punish every man who had helped to foil him, and especially "the namby-pamby fellows," as he called them, of the Bar Association, who had convicted Maynard. It was for this reason he fought against the confirmation of Hornblower, who was one of them, and against that of Peckham, who was another of them. To vote with him on either of these occasions was, therefore, to strengthen his power for evil both in Washington and in New York, to furnish him with fresh weapons for the destruction of honest and patriotic men.

But it was something far worse than this. It was, coming from Republicans, and especially from Massachusetts Republicans, a direct and mortifying discouragement to every respectable man, and especially to every respectable lawyer, who, all business and excuses being laid aside, comes forward in troublous times to save or help the state. What a spectacle it was for the young men of the country to see twenty-four Republican Senators, headed by Hoar and Lodge, ranged beside Hill to discredit Peckham for having rendered a great public service. It is not too much to say, as Wendell Phillips said of the man who defended the Alton riots, that it would have served them right if the "earth had yawned and swallowed them up."

THE SECRET OF PLATT.

THE following comes to us from a member of the Harvard Law School, and is a sample of queries from other quarters:

"Can you tell me through your paper (1) just how Platt gained his power in the Republican party; (2) how he has recovered it after rebuffs; and (3) how he is able to hold it now?"

(1.) Platt had not figured as a party leader when he first came into public prominence by being elected to the United States Senate in January, 1881. He had been a quiet worker for the party for many years, content to serve under the leadership of Cornell and Conkling, carrying out their orders with indefatigable zeal, and running to and fro over the State on their political errands. He thus acquired a personal acquaintance with the politicians of the party which was of great value to him when Mr. Conkling decided to make him his "Me Too" in the United States Senate. His candidacy for that position was not regarded seriously when first disclosed, but as the canvass proceeded the peculiar elements of his strength began to appear. He had been a disbursing agent of offices for Cornell, who became Governor in 1880, and the *Tribune*, in analyzing his support for Senator, said on January 3, 1881, that "Mr. Platt is thought to have derived much strength from his influence with Gov. Cornell in the appointments of last winter of health officer, etc." Being himself Chairman of the Republican State Committee, he had the whole power of the Conkling machine

working in his favor, including the Cornell administration, and on January 12, 1881, the *Tribune*, in its Albany correspondence, said that, "counting State officers of all grades, high and low, with their deputies, assistants, and clerks, there were 100 workers for Mr. Platt" about the Legislature. On the following day he was nominated in the Republican caucus, and the *Tribune*, in explaining his success, said on January 14: "If a distinctive representative of the machine was to be chosen, then, doubtless, this is the best result attainable. . . . He owes his nomination to the warm friendship felt among Republicans, in almost every county of the interior, for the man whom they have long known as one of the most active and effective working Republicans of the State."

Having thus gained a seat in the Senate as a machine man, pure and simple, he distinguished himself during the two months in which he was a member by his servile subjection to Conkling. He resigned as Senator on May 16, literally amid the ridicule of the whole country. He had little to do in the Blaine campaign of 1884, but in the following year he, in conjunction with the editor of the *Tribune*, used his power over the State Republican machine to "knife" Davenport, the Republican candidate for Governor, and allow Hill to be elected.

(2.) His recovery of power dates from this election of Hill. He at once began to "deal" with Hill; and with the patronage thus secured, combined with that of the Quarantine and Health Office of the port of New York, which he controlled by virtue of Gov. Cornell's appointment of himself and some of his cronies for commissioners, he was able to regain his hold upon the party organization. There was not a great deal of Republican patronage to be had, but all that there was came through him. He held over as quarantine commissioner, and his associates held over with him, because he controlled the State Senate and would not allow appointees for the succession to be confirmed. His great opportunity came in the campaign of 1888, when, in the famous words of the *Tribune*, he was able to sell to Mr. Hill the Governorship of New York in return for the Presidency for Mr. Harrison. If we had not the *Tribune's* high authority for saying that this sale was made, President Harrison's conduct after taking office would of itself be ample proof. He turned the whole federal patronage for New York over to Mr. Platt for disbursement, not giving a particle to Warner Miller or any other of the anti-Platt elements of the party. With this wealth of political "pap" at his command, he had no difficulty in completely establishing himself as the boss of the Republican party of New York.

(3.) He is able to retain his power now because of the habit which the politicians of the party have got into of looking to him for direction, and because all of them who are in office owe their nomination and election to him. He is the only man in the party who has made it his business for years, day in and day out, to control its affairs. His personal acquaintance with its politicians in all sections of the State, studiously cultivated for nearly or quite a quarter of a century, is paralleled by that of no other Republican. He meets them all as a personal friend, tells them all that is going on, and from time to time gives them nominations for office, or a bit of patronage, or a promise of favors to come if they work hard for the party and "keep in line." He knows a great deal more about men and affairs than they do, and they get into the way of following his direction without question. He always has power enough over primaries and conventions to "turn down" a politician who is not so docile as he should be, and in this way it has come to be known that no man can get a nomination for office unless he has the boss's favor.

It is because of this power that he is able to control the Legislature and its organization. Every aspirant for Speaker or other position, who wishes to advance to a nomination for Governor or other State office, knows that unless he submits to Platt's wishes, and puts on what is known as the "Platt collar," he is certain to be defeated. He will not only fail to get the Speakership, but he will fail to get a nomination for any office whatever in the future. The boss will "give the word" that some other man is to have the coveted place, and the fractious aspirant's political future will be ruined. Strict discipline of this kind, known as "pulling straight," is recognized as the fundamental principle of all machine government, and it is as rigorously observed in the Platt machine as in Tammany Hall.

The chief result of this system is to exclude from the machine all men of character and force above the average. There is no place in a machine for a man of independent views, high purpose, and moral courage. He is "turned down" at the first symptom of disobedience, and the entire machine acquiesces in his fate. Membership in the machine being thus confined to men of inferior ability and low or dull ideas of politics and public duty, it is a comparatively easy matter for a man like Platt to maintain his boss-ship. He never allows a member of the party of first-rate ability and high character to get a nomination for office except in cases in which there is no apparent prospect of an election. He never distributes any patronage to such a member, but gives office and patronage alike to the men who follow his orders.

Above and beyond all, he devotes himself all the time to the business of bossing. It is the absorbing passion of his life, partly because his taste lies strongly in that direction, partly because he enjoys the power which the position gives him, and partly because it is the one thing which makes him a public character and insures consideration of himself and his doings in the newspapers. As an ordinary man of business he would attract no attention whatever, and as a statesman no attention except that of contempt. He has chosen the rôle which best suits his talents, and he will play it successfully until his party so deeply realizes the disgrace of his self-imposed leadership that it will rise in a body and throw it off. This cannot be done by a few men giving a few weeks' thought to the matter now and then. They must work, as he does, the year round, and not let go for a moment.

BEAUTIES OF THE INCOME-TAX LAW.

NEARLY all the discussion of the income tax in Congress and in the press has turned upon the general principle of that measure, and comparatively little attention has been given to the actual details of the bill as it passed the House. An examination of its text, however, shows that it is drawn with extraordinary looseness, one section often invalidating another, and that it invites at every turn evasion and false swearing and bribery and intolerable espionage.

The first section declares that the tax is to be collected from "any citizen of the United States residing abroad" on his income "derived from any kind of property, rents, interest, etc., or from any profession, trade, employment or vocation carried on in the United States *or elsewhere.*" According to this our deputy collectors would have to run over to Hawaii and make our planter fellow-citizens there help support the Government whose protection they claim while upsetting their own. But when we read on and come to section 58, we find that cheerful prospect dashed by the provision that non-residents shall "only pay on that part of the income which is derived from any source *in the United States.*" Another fine muddle is to be found in the provisions for deducting certain items in reckoning income. All local taxes may be deducted, as also "all interest actually due and paid within the year on existing indebtedness." Yet in section 62 it is made the duty, under heavy penalties, of "every corporation which pays to any employee a salary or compensation exceeding $4,000 per annum" to "report the same to the deputy collector of his district and *pay the tax*, . . . and such payment shall be charged against the amount due such employee." But suppose such employee is entitled to deductions actually bringing his income below $4,000? There is the order to the corporation to pay his tax irrespective of any such consideration. Parallel with this is the tax which corporations are to

pay upon "dividends, interest, coupons," etc., in such a way that a widow with an income of only $1,000 from bonds would practically be taxed despite the evident intent of the law to exempt her.

But it is in its constant use of undefined terms that the law opens the widest door for abuses. Tremendous latitude is given to the judgment of the collector. He is to reckon-in interest due any taxpayer "whether paid or not," provided he considers it "good and collectible." He is to reckon-in a person's share of dividends in any corporation, "whether divided or otherwise." He may increase the amount of any man's return "if he has reason to believe that the same is understated," and may make up a list of any individual's income "according to the best information he can obtain." If a taxpayer feels aggrieved, he has a right to make oath and give evidence as to his real income, "but such oath and evidence shall not be considered as conclusive of the facts," and the decision of the collector of the district, "unless reversed by the commissioner of internal revenue, shall be *final*."

Similar ambiguity is seen in the description of the deductions which may be made from income in making out a return. "Necessary expenses" in carrying on business may come out, but who is to decide what they are? So may "losses incurred in trade," but who is to determine what they may have been? So may "debts ascertained to be worthless," but ascertained by whom? These are only a few of the temptations and opportunities set before a lax conscience all through the bill, and of the uncertainties which would bewilder the most honest of men in making their return.

But the most offensive and dangerous features of the law are those which give inquisitorial powers to the deputy collectors. They can compel a merchant to submit his "books and accounts" to them at any time, and to disclose "any other evidence" of his income which may occur to them. The hatefulness of this may be fairly inferred from a single paragraph, which amends section 3172 of the Revised Statutes so as to make it read:

> "Every collector shall, from time to time, cause his deputies to proceed through every part of his district and inquire after and concerning all persons therein who are liable to pay any internal-revenue tax, and all persons owning or having the care of any objects liable to pay any tax, and to make a list of such persons and enumerate said objects."

Now who are, and are apt to be, deputy collectors? Are they the angels who alone could administer such a law without making it oppressive, and a source of endless blackmail and bribery and political corruption? Unfortunately, we know that, under our wise political system, they are men who would hail such an opportunity to make themselves a political power and to grow rich in a single term of office, with as much avidity and delight as a Tammany police captain. We should promptly have our "tenderloin" income-tax districts, just as we now have our police districts, and the "protection" money which would be within reach of the deputy collectors would make a police captain green with envy.

THE ALBERT MOORE EXHIBITION.

LONDON, January 20, 1894.

MANY recent events have again called special attention to the Royal Academy and its methods. The election of no less than five new associates was a matter predestined to invite criticism. The choice of two really good men was so welcome a novelty that the Academy might well have been congratulated, had the remaining three been chosen with a shadow of the same discretion. It is long since painters of such distinction as Mr. Sargent and Mr. Swan have been counted among associates. Indeed, it seems difficult to understand why they have been elected, when equal honors have been lavished upon Mr. Arthur Hacker, a painter of great pretension but small accomplishment, and Mr. Frank Bramley, who uses a technical ability far above the academical level to paint anecdotes in strict accordance with the academical spirit. Mr. Frampton, the fifth, is, to be sure, a young sculptor of promise. But the claims of the architect and engraver, above all of the water-colorist and the illustrator, were much more pressing. Whether Mr. Sargent and Mr. Swan will be able to influence the Academy for good, or whether they, like many others, will be influenced by it for evil, remains to be seen. In the meantime, it is interesting, just at the present moment, to consider the work of an Englishman who died but lately, and whose neglect by the Academy has so often been made a reproach against it. I mean Albert Moore, a collection of whose pictures and studies forms one of the chief attractions at the winter show of the Grafton Gallery, opened to-day.

This gallery is doing good work in London. As I have pointed out before, already in the one short year of its existence it has introduced many of the most distinguished Continental artists to the bewildered Londoner—artists varying so entirely in methods as Khnopff and J. Maris, as Von Uhde and Aman-Jean, as Raffaëlli and Alfred Stevens. It has appreciated Mr. Whistler and understood the advantage of securing him among its exhibitors. It has encouraged the Glasgow men, who, for many years, were homeless in London. Mistakes it has made, perhaps; mediocrity it has not wholly forsworn. But, on the whole, its aims are in the right direction, and it has done excellent service in the cause of art. Of this winter's general show, fine as it is, I will say nothing. For, in the first place, I want to speak more in detail of the Albert Moore collection, which hangs in a room apart, and, in the second, many of the foreign canvases have been seen before in the Champ de Mars, while the Glasgow men do not make nearly so impressive a showing as they did a year ago. The notable new work comes from Mr. Whistler, who contributes three exquisite marines, studies in dark blue and silver and violet and silver, the harmony carried out with consummate knowledge and subtle refinement, the effect suggested with the breadth and simplicity which give to his work, as to that of all the greatest masters, its dignity and serenity.

To turn from Mr. Whistler to Albert Moore is, I think, to understand better the measure of the latter's accomplishment. Hitherto his canvases have seldom been seen save at Burlington House, where they invariably stood out in prominent relief from the artless trivialities surrounding them. In them was none of the striving to emulate the camera in accuracy of superfluous detail, which is the stumbling block of the Newlynite; none of the desire to tell pretty anecdotes of short-waisted maidens and bewigged and beruffled men, the chief ambition of the Academician; no pretence of strange and hidden meanings, nor parade of effete symbols, after the fashion of the little group who ape the Primitives. In a word, in his pictures was none of that tedious quality which critics (who love it for the sake of the "copy" it yields) call "literary." Not one but was concerned solely with some artistic problem of color or arrangement. His low-browed, full-throated women he used as the Greeks did their beautiful youths, as Titian did his luxuriant golden beauties; that is, as a fine motive for decorative schemes. With color and line he experimented, as a poet plays with words and rhythms. It was because his work was solely and entirely artistic in intention that it could assert itself so well on walls where art is all but an unknown quality.

However, now that his pictures and studies are brought together, now that they must stand the test of comparison with the modern masterpieces that hang in near rooms, their shortcomings are no less evident than their merits. Albert Moore was not an accomplished draughtsman; he had no great technical skill. His small studies (in chalk on brown paper) of the nude reveal the feebleness of his drawing: it is strange that a man who for ever sought the beautiful in the female figure could, when draperies were thrown aside, draw it so ill, giving straight, clumsy lines for the lovely curves that delight in a Venus by Velasquez or Titian. Again, in his painting of the nude, his difficulty in rendering flesh is but too apparent. His drapery helped to disguise his most serious defects, and yet it is astonishing how little variety he gave to the arrangement of its folds and flowing lines. There is striking monotony in his many compositions. Indeed, the most obvious truth proved by the present collection is that he failed far oftener than he succeeded. For him, apparently, it was easier to find his problem than its solution. How much he was concerned with decorative schemes—the one legitimate end of art—is shown in the fact that they preoccupied him even at the outset of his career, before he had discovered his low-browed model, when he painted in a very different key of color. Among the larger canvases is one called "Elijah's Sacrifice," probably belonging to a very early date, as sombre and brown as an ill-used Old Master, with something Blake-like in its conception; and here already, in a group of brawny men kneeling with heads bowed low, is expressed the same decorative feeling which inspired him in the grouping of the four fair women of "A Summer's Night," now the property of the corporation of Liverpool. But though from the beginning his motives were ever to be commended, these at times could lead to discord of color and incoherence of composition—a fact most pronounced in his very last canvas, never before exhibited, "The Loves of the Winds and the Seasons," which is one of the largest he ever attempted and one of the least successful, since in it is not even the suggestion of a well-balanced scheme of decoration. When he did succeed, however, he produced harmo-

nies at once stately and satisfactory. There is one upright panel, "Canaries," the usual tall woman in the long, clinging draperies, in which pale yellows and whites are used to produce as fine and exquisite an effect as eye could desire; and another, "Jasmine," where deep rose and carnation are wrought into a rich and splendid symphony. These represent him at his best, but, unfortunately, their contrast with his lesser achievements reminds one that he was quite as apt to show himself at his worst.

Indeed, when all is said, it is in his small studies and sketches for pictures that his most perfect accomplishment is to be found. Many of these are very lovely notes and impressions of color: at least one, "King Cups," with its blossom-strewn grass, has in it something of the grace and delicacy that enchant in a good Botticelli. But, to the sustained effort of working out his invariably fine motive on a large scale he was not always equal. It is often regretted that he had not the chance to decorate great wall spaces—the chance enjoyed by Puvis de Chavannes and Besnard in France. The only work of the kind which he ever did was in the Queen's Theatre, Long Acres, since burnt down, so that no proof of his powers remains. But careful study of the present collection makes one doubt whether he really had the necessary qualifications for so ambitious and extended an undertaking. In almost every case his single figures are more effective than his groups, his studies than his finished pictures. He was an artist keenly sensitive to the poetry of paint, but with no great technical facility in expressing it. In harmony of tints, in loveliness of line, he delighted, but not always could he embody this delight on canvas. Infinitely the superior of the average Academician (to whom his exclusion from the Academy must ever remain a disgrace), he is still hardly to be ranked with the Whistlers of modern art. N. N.

BARDOUX'S MADAME DE CUSTINE.

PARIS, February 2, 1894.

M. BARDOUX has given himself up to the study of society at the end of the eighteenth century. He has written books on the early life of Lafayette, on M. de Montlosier, on the Countess Pauline de Beaumont, famous for the affection which she entertained for Chateaubriand. In this period, the end of the last and the beginning of the nineteenth century, tragedy sometimes comes in contact with idyl; the French Revolution disturbs everything, and the field of observation becomes excessively varied. After Pauline de Beaumont, there is no more original or finished type of the feminine aristocracy of the end of the eighteenth century than Mme. de Custine, who has been chosen by M. Bardoux as the central figure of one of his studies. She, too, was one of the worshippers of Chateaubriand, and has her place near Mme. Récamier in the feminine circle which surrounds the memory of the melancholy "René."

No biography is published nowadays without a portrait, and it must be confessed that in the case of Mme. de Custine the attraction thus produced is immediate. She is represented with powdered hair, arranged like that of Marie Antoinette or of Mme. de Lamballe in the portraits of the time, with large and beautiful eyes, an exquisite face, a thin muslin thrown over her shoulders. The general effect is extremely striking, and the portrait does much credit not only to the model, but also to the painter, Campana. Louise Eléonore Mélanie Delphine de Sabran was born in Paris, March 18, 1770. The name of her mother, Mme. de Sabran, is well known; I have spoken in your columns of her correspondence, of her long affection for the Chevalier de Boufflers. Mme. de Sabran lost her husband at the time of the coronation of Louis XVI.; she was left a widow of twenty, with two young children, Delphine and Elzéar. Delphine was married at the age of seventeen to the son of the Comte de Custin, Maréchal de Camp, Governor of Toulon and of Dieuze in Lorraine. Her husband was only nineteen years of age. After the wedding breakfast all went down into the garden, where a crowd of shepherds and shepherdesses came to compliment the bride. Each sang a little song. The ball was then opened by General de Custine and Mme. de Sabran; then came a great repast. The festivities lasted a whole week. These were the days of "sensibility," the days of J. J. Rousseau. During one of the fêtes the young people found in a cave (a pretended cave) Philemon and Baucis, representing conjugal fidelity and felicity.

These happy days were not to last long; the Revolution was preparing while young Custine was taking his wife to his regiment. They had a son, Astolphe, and, as a true disciple of Rousseau, Delphine would nurse it. The Comte de Custine was elected a member of the States-General when they were summoned by the King; the nobility of the bailliage of Metz remembered that he had commanded the regiment of Saintonge infantry in the American war and had distinguished himself before Yorktown. Boufflers was also elected, but he soon became discouraged and emigrated, at the instance of Mme. de Sabran, who had not been slow in following her friends the Polignacs. The two Custines remained in France, and Delphine with her husband. Her father-in-law had ranged himself among the most ardent Constitutionalists, and had taken a great part in the organization of the national guards. His son was in the army of Lückner; he himself received a high command on the frontier, but was soon denounced and arrested. Delphine, who was living quietly in a village in Normandy, returned to Paris, and visited her father-in-law several times in his prison. Custine was condemned by the Revolutionary tribunal and executed on September 4, 1793.

After the father, the son was imprisoned, merely because he had written a defence of his father. Delphine tried in vain to save him; he was executed on January 4, 1794. She found herself a widow, at the age of twenty-three, and no wonder that she resolved to leave France and to join in Berlin the Comtesse de Sabran and her brother Elzéar. She was arrested in the midst of her preparations, and thrown into the Carmelite prison, where she found many of her acquaintances, Mme. Charles de Lameth, Mme. d'Aiguillon, Mme. de Jarnac, Josephine de Beauharnais, who was to become the wife of Napoleon. There too was Mrs. Elliott, the friend of the Duke of Orleans, who has left us such curious Memoirs. She says, in these Memoirs, that Mme. de Custine and her husband were arrested at the same time and were in prison together, and that she never saw anything so touching as their separation, when he was taken to the guillotine. "I thought for a moment that Mme. de Custine would break her head against the walls. Mme. de Beauharnais and myself did not leave her for a moment for three days and three nights; but she was young, full of imagination; she was French, and, after six weeks, she had recovered her courage."

Mrs. Elliott also was evidently a woman of imagination, as M. de Custine was arrested before his wife and was not in the same prison. It is true that they were allowed to see each other the day before his execution, but their meeting did not take place at the prison where Mrs. Elliott was, but at the Conciergerie. Shall we believe Mrs. Elliott when she tells us that M. de Beauharnais and Mme. de Custine were in love with each other? The attentions which Beauharnais paid to "that charming little Mme. de Custine" were, at any rate, soon interrupted, as Beauharnais was sent to the guillotine. Josephine had never been on very good terms with her husband, and had, in fact, been separated from him for several years when she found him again in prison. "Her husband," says Mrs. Elliott, "had never shown her any attentions. As for the other lady [Mme. de Custine], she never smiled again after the death of Beauharnais." This would lead us to think that Delphine had really a great passion for Beauharnais, but we must take with some grains of allowance what Mrs. Elliott says of French ladies.

The 9th Thermidor saved Mme. de Custine; she left the Carmelite prison with Mme. de Beauharnais, Mme. d'Aiguillon, and Mme. de Lameth. She had great difficulty in recovering a part of her property; she was fortunately helped, in this endeavor, by Boissy-d'Anglas and by Fouché, who were both probably influenced by her great beauty. Fouché was no longer the terrible Terrorist who had destroyed the rebel city of Lyons; he was already minister of police and in relations with the future wife of Napoleon. Everything around Delphine was changed. She was very anxious to bring back to France her mother, Mme. de Sabran, who had become Mme. de Boufflers; but Boufflers was on the list of the émigrés. When Josephine became the wife of Napoleon, she used her influence in favor of Mme. de Custine, and Boufflers was struck off the list; he came back to France with his wife, no longer the brilliant colonel of old times, but happy to accept the modest functions of assistant librarian at the Mazarine Library.

In 1803, Mme. de Custine made the acquaintance of Chateaubriand, who had just published his 'Génie du Christianisme' and accepted the place of secretary to the French embassy at Rome. Chateaubriand says in his memoirs that he was anxious to go to Rome on account of Mme. de Beaumont, who was in a consumption. "The daughter of M. de Montmorin was dying; the climate of Italy was thought favorable for her. If I went to Rome, she would consent to cross the Alps; I sacrificed myself in the hope of saving her." In reality, he wished to have a reason for separating himself from his own wife, and his passion for Mme. de Beaumont was not so great that he could not make love to Mme. de Custine. He says but little of her in his Memoirs. With the remainder of her fortune, she had bought in Normandy, near Lisieux, the château of Fervacques (where Henri IV. once spent a few days). "I was invited," he says, "to the châteaus which were reopening. Among the bees which composed their hive was the Marchioness of Custine, who had inherited the long hair of Margaret of Provence, the wife of Saint Louis, whose blood relation she was. I saw her entrance into Fervacques, and I had the honor of sleeping in the bed of the Béarnais." M. Bardoux gives us some letters written by Chateaubriand to the lady of Fervacques, before his departure for Rome. His passion for her was of short duration, and he

concealed it carefully from Mme. de Beaumont and from all his friends.

The relations of Mme. de Custine with the famous Fouché will be to most readers more interesting than what M. Bardoux has to say about Chateaubriand. The great writer has told us all we care to know about himself; the 'Mémoires d'Outre-Tombe' have made us familiar with all Chateaubriand's circle. Mme. de Custine was among the open enemies of the imperial régime, but Fouché had always covered her with his protection. She left France during the first invasion, and returned at the moment when Fouché, arriving from Illyria, whither Napoleon had sent him, entered into communication with the Bourbons. Bardoux gives us several letters from Fouché to Mme. de Custine, written from Ferrières, which was Fouché's country-place; they show a great degree of intimacy and make us acquainted with a Fouché very different from the terrible historical prefect of police. Fouché understands at once the danger when Napoleon comes from the island of Elba; he sees that everything depends upon the army. "I confess I fear the blindness of the soldiers; if our people are not careful, they will decide the question against us." Fouché, it would result from these letters, did not conspire with Napoleon at the time; this did not prevent his accepting from him the post of minister of police when Napoleon reoccupied the Tuileries. "I like the *positive* in politics as well as in affection" (letter to Mme. de Custine of March 10, 1815). This declaration is rather suggestive, and was made at the moment when Napoleon entered Lyons.

Fouché said of Napoleon: "He is come back from Elba madder than before he went there; he has only three months before him." He kept up his relations with the Royalists, and Mme. de Custine was one of his many ambassadors. Fouché became one of the principal actors in the second Restoration. When Louis XVIII. came back to Paris between Talleyrand and Fouché, Pozzo di Borgo said: "I should very much like to hear what these lambs have to say." If one of our modern historians should care to write a biography of Fouché, he would find useful documents in this volume of M. Bardoux's.

The correspondence with Mme. de Custine continued a little while after Fouché was obliged to leave France. He tells her in his letters that he is writing his memoirs. (These memoirs were published, and are now very rare.) Mme. de Custine died at the age of fifty-six at Bex in Vaud. Chateaubriand was with her at the moment of her death. "I saw," he wrote in his memoirs, "the woman who had faced the guillotine with the greatest courage, whiter than death, in black, emaciated, her head adorned only with her silken hair, smile at me with her pale lips and her pearly teeth. . . . I heard her coffin go through the solitary streets of Lausanne during the night to pass to its eternal resting-place at Fervacques."

Correspondence.

MUNICIPAL REFORM THROUGH POPULAR NOMINATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Among the suggestions for municipal reform which have followed upon the Philadelphia meeting, I notice that especial attention has been called to the prime necessity for first arousing public spirit or patriotism for good city government. Through my connection with a number of local efforts at municipal economy which have been fairly successful, the conviction has forced itself upon me that it will prove hopeless to attempt to arouse an active and continuously effective public spirit by the old methods. If we are to have a real and enduring reform, the stream must be purified at the source in the *nominating* system. The caucus system is a failure, and must be wholly abandoned. It is corrupt and will always be corrupt. Here in Ohio we have the Baber Law, and use it at times in both parties; and while it makes an orderly procedure of the nominating, conducting it after the manner of an ordinary election, it is often a more complete tool of the political machine than the packed or haphazard caucus. If a method could be put in practice which would protect the voter in the independence of his nominating vote as it protects him here in his electing vote (through the Australian ballot), the foundation for better government in our American cities would be laid. It comes too late when he is given a secret ballot only at the polls, with a choice merely between two corrupt nominees.

It has been suggested that the first step toward permanent reform lies in the separation of municipal from State and national elections, exerting as these do a powerful partisan influence over municipal selections. Upon this groundwork I would suggest the following plan for making nominations, the form of which is somewhat similar to the London system for the nomination of members of its County Council, by which, as is well known, the very best results are attained in the formation of a governing body. Briefly stated it is as follows: Let the date for the closing of the registration be fixed at least forty days prior to the day of election; and upon receipt of the registration books let the Board of Elections issue to each registered voter an official nominating form, having printed upon it the title of the office necessary to be filled at the approaching election. Space should be allowed on these forms for the voter to write the names he desires to have balloted upon, which should be three for each ward officer and five for each general city or county officer, from the mayor down. These ticket forms should be accompanied by a stamped and printed envelope for return to the Board of Elections, and be numbered consecutively so as to prevent any cut-and-dried imitation being substituted by the political machine of either party.

These tickets, properly filled, should be returned so as to reach the Board of Elections not later than twenty days prior to the day of election. They should then be tabulated, and the three names found to have received the highest number of votes for the ward offices, and the five receiving the highest number for the general city or county offices, should be officially declared the nominees. The question of a provision for withdrawals comes in here, and could be readily met by the substitution of the next in number of votes; but the law ought to contain a provision compelling the nominees for the Common Council at least to stand for election.

It would seem wholly advisable that this official ticket should not be made public until ten days prior to election, to reduce to a minimum the opportunity for setting up a successful political combination of any kind.

Under such a system, the voter, making up his ticket in the privacy of his home or his office, would be entirely free and untrammelled in his choice of men, and find a new liberty which he would gladly welcome. Many would take an especial pride in naming an ideal ticket. Every man, no matter what his station, being more or less jealous of his independence (even to those who sell their vote and then vote as they please), would welcome the opportunity thus offered. The abuses of the caucus, with its browbeating and over-riding, would be wholly escaped and a thing of the past. The better element in the community, which now takes little or no part in the nominating, would again take an active part and would predominate in influence and numbers, as they do in most communities whenever thoroughly aroused by some stirring public need.

To all, I believe, such an opportunity for independent choice would appeal with unusual and salutary effect. From its nature non-political, through it party lines could be made to absolutely disappear in municipal affairs, and an avenue of escape be found from the power which is debauching the public service of our American cities.

S. P. Jermain,
Chairman Municipal Committee.

Chamber of Commerce,
Toledo, O., February 15, 1894.

A PRECEDENT FOR THE GEARY ACT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an unpublished opinion by Judge Sprague, delivered in June, 1851, in the United States District Court for Massachusetts, in the case of James Scott, who was accused of assisting in the rescue of the fugitive slave Shadrach, I find the following quotation of an act passed by Massachusetts, March 26, 1788, after the ratification of the Federal Constitution by that State. It will be seen that it is a precedent for the Geary act in two respects: (1) in expelling from the State all colored persons with certain exceptions; (2) in requiring an official certificate to prove that any particular colored person was within the exceptions:

"Section 6. Be it further enacted, &c. That no person being an African or negro, other than a subject of the Emperor of Morocco, or a citizen of some one of the United States (to be evidenced by a certificate from the Secretary of the State of which he shall be a citizen) shall tarry within this Commonwealth for a longer time than two months; and upon complaint made to any Justice of the Peace within this Commonwealth, that any such person has been within the same more than two months, the said Justice shall order the said person to depart out of this Commonwealth; and in case that the said African or negro shall not depart, as aforesaid, any Justice of the Peace within this Commonwealth, upon complaint and proof made that such person has continued within the Commonwealth ten days after notice given him or her to depart as aforesaid, shall commit the said person to any house of correction within the county, there to be kept to hard labor agreeably to the rules and orders of the said house, until the Sessions of the Peace, next to be holden within and for the said county; and the master of the said house of correction is hereby required and directed to transmit an attested copy of the warrant of commitment to the said Court on the first day of their said session; and if, upon trial at the said Court, it shall be made to appear that the said person has thus continued within the Commonwealth contrary to the tenor of this act, he or she shall be whipped, not exceeding ten stripes, and ordered to depart out of this Commonwealth within ten days; and if he or she shall not so depart, the same process shall be had and punishment inflicted, and so toties quoties."

Philip Patterson Wells.

New Haven, February 12, 1894.

CROMWELL'S DESCENDANTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: At the risk of continuing a protracted discussion, I would call your attention to page 34 of 'Oliver Cromwell,' by Frederic Harrison (Macmillan, 1888), in the "English Statesmen" Series, where it is stated that the following distinguished persons, among others, are descended from Cromwell: "Marquis of Ripon, Earls of Chichester, Morley, Clarendon, Cowper, heir presumptive to the earldom of Derby, Lord Ampthill, Lord Walsingham, . . . Sir John Lubbock, . . . the late Sir George Cornewall Lewis." "During the present century at least seven persons descended from the Protector have held office under the Crown, including one prime minister, Lord Goderich; one foreign secretary, Lord Clarendon; two lords lieutenant of Ireland, and a viceroy of India." "The following married descendants of Cromwell: the Earls of Darnley, Lytton, Lathom, Lord Stanley of Preston, Sir W. Harcourt, M. P., Sir A. Bostwick, M. P., Mr. Samuel Whitbread, M. P."

Mr. Harrison doubtless writes with competent authority. He notes these facts as a curious example of the persistence of the English ruling families and of their close intermarriage.

Yours, etc., C. K. Williams.

Sioux City, Iowa, February 10, 1894.

WOMEN AT THE GERMAN UNIVERSITIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The letter in your last number regarding "Women at the German Universities" will probably call forth others. Perhaps a few more words upon this subject may not come amiss.

To my knowledge, a studious woman *was* admitted to lectures (on anatomy, I think) in Leipzig; and when male students made audible protest, the professor gave them a most unexpected lecture on manners, and unqualified praise of a brave woman's work in medicine, much to the gratification of a young American student present, who, a little later, related the facts to us at supper.

University instructors in Germany have been so kind and helpful to lady students that few will forget it who have been recipients of such favors, by no means rare; and this kindness brought sometimes quite trying results. For instance, at Leipzig it became known that certain lectures were opened to ladies, not officially, but by permission of the instructor; to these quite a number of ladies came who had no such permit, who could not understand German, much less the subject treated, who came simply "to learn German," "to see what it was like," etc. These ladies sometimes talk in loud voices before the lecture begins, causing every one to turn around to look at them, whisper during the lecture, observe folks and things going on in the street, and otherwise disturb the delightful quiet of the place. Of course these ladies were suffered to remain; yet this abuse did close to women one lecture-room at Leipzig which had been opened to them before.

A young girl, pretty or not, going in and out of university halls and lecture-rooms which for centuries have been occupied by men alone, when she is very self-conscious, trying evidently "not to mind," *is* out of place; and the fact that many come unchaperoned, which they certainly would not do in such places at home, unless they had officially their place in such work, makes the matter worse. Nice young American girls, even while they are attending university lectures, often feel this to the quick, as I more than once had occasion to observe when such girls responded to an older lady's kindly word with "Please do let me sit beside you, it is so hard to be here alone." When asked why they had come thus, the answer always was: "I thought I ought to come, and had no one to come with me."

Many instructors are not averse to having woman students, and are ready to help open university doors to them, but do demand gravely and decidedly that such students come with at least the same preparatory knowledge which is expected of the men, and insist that quiet, thoughtful work is essential, as well as that reserve which every well-bred girl and woman has when among strangers. The manner with which the American woman accepts such permissions—enters such open doors—and her work while there, will open or close German university courses to women, at least from foreign lands, and may greatly hinder the needed admittance of German women, which sooner or later is sure to come. M. F. K.

Northampton, Mass., February 16, 1894.

Notes.

D. Appleton & Co. have in press the late Wolcott Balestier's 'Benefits Forgot,' and a translation of Ebers's latest novel, 'Cleopatra.' They announce the approach to completion of Edgar Stanton Maclay's 'History of the United States Navy,' which will be brought down to the present year.

Harper & Bros. have nearly ready 'Our English Cousins,' by Richard Harding Davis.

Next month T. Y. Crowell & Co. will bring out 'The Englishman at Home: His Responsibilities and Privileges,' a detailed account of the English political system, by Edward Porritt.

In April the Century Co. will publish 'Roger Williams, the Pioneer of Religious Liberty,' by Oscar S. Straus.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have taken over from the Century Co. the four-volume Life of William Lloyd Garrison by his children, and will soon offer it with their imprint at a substantial reduction in price.

There is nothing to indicate the beginning of a series in the title-page to 'Officers of the Army and Navy (Regular and Volunteer) Who Served in the Civil War' (Philadelphia: L. R. Hamersly & Co.), a handsome quarto volume consisting entirely of portraits, with an index. The incompleteness of this gallery, embracing 858 portraits, is obvious at a glance, and, as one turns the pages, he finds sifted in several war governors, cabinet officers, Vice-President Hamlin, and even Jay Cooke. Still, this is undeniably an interesting collection, and all the more because some of the characters in it have acquired greater distinction in their civil capacity—not always to their lasting credit. The likenesses are not all from life, though by far the great majority are, and many have a unique value. Particularly striking are those of Lincoln, Banks, Garfield, and Kit Carson, and admirably caught is that of the late Gen. Armstrong of Hampton.

We have on our table the sixty-sixth bound volume of the *Youth's Companion*, least lovely in appearance of all the most successful periodicals for the young, but really a mixed weekly journal, addressing itself to "the family" generally, and hence embracing contributions from well-known writers for grown folks. The illustrations are below the level of those of *St. Nicholas* or *Harper's Young People*. The publishers are Perry Mason & Co., Boston.

From Messrs. Harper come two more volumes of their *Monthly Magazine*, Nos. 86, 87, the 37th of their *Weekly*, and the 26th of their *Bazar*. The *Monthly* we have taken note of in its current issues. Bound up, it has a commemorative aspect in its articles on George William Curtis, Lowell, and Whittier, as well as in the novel, "Horace Chase," from the pen of the now deceased Constance Fenimore Woolson. From it, too, have emerged at least three books, the novel just mentioned, Mr. Platt's 'Italian Gardens,' and Col. Dodge's 'Riders of Many Lands.' The Columbian Exposition naturally dominates the *Weekly* for 1893; but some attention is given also to Hawaii, to Brazil and its revolution, to yachts and naval vessels, and to the general life of this metropolis. The list of portraits is, as usual, long and valuable. As liberal a supply of what are called "comics" is observable in the *Bazar* as in the *Weekly*, and a much greater allowance of prints from recent paintings. The specimen gown from Worth in each number is displayed on a flesh-and-blood figure, in agreeable contrast to the old-fashioned plates. Both in letterpress and in illustrations there are few echoes from the world at large, with which, however, Mr. T. W. Higginson still furnishes a channel of communication in his "Women and Men" papers.

Mr. H. T. Folkard, librarian of the Wigan (Eng.) Free Public Library, sends us a copy of his index catalogue of books and papers on mining, metallurgy, and manufactures (1880), which he wishes to enlarge into a general bibliography of these subjects in a new edition of the same, and asks the coöperation of some half-a-dozen persons who would agree to send him slips in return for a copy of the catalogue. A good bibliography of works in the English language on these subjects is very much needed. Haferkorn's 'Handy List of Books on Mines and Mining (U. S.)' is an improved form of publisher's circular, but far from being sufficiently exhaustive to constitute a bibliography, nor is it always logical in its arrangement or complete in its references. Names of some of the best authorities on these subjects do not appear in it at all. Mr. Folkard's system of cataloguing would be improved by adding short subject-abstracts, and in every case the date of publication should be given. It is not every one who is competent to make a bibliography, and the first essential for such a work is a technical familiarity with the subject.

Under the title 'Physiology Practicums,' Prof. B. G. Wilder of Cornell publishes "explicit directions for examining portions of the cat, and the heart, eye, and brain of the sheep as an aid in the study of elementary physiology." The work consists of seventy-seven pages of text and twenty-seven plates unbound and enclosed in a portfolio. It will no doubt be found valuable to teachers giving instruction similar to that of the author.

In our recent notice of Prof. Marshall's 'Vertebrate Embryology' we inadvertently misnamed the American publishers, who are the Messrs. Putnam.

To students of art, Dr. Lippmann, the director of the Berlin Cabinet of Engravings, presents a valuable handbook on Copper-plate Engraving. This is the second number of the series of handbooks published by the Royal Berlin Museums. The book, while primarily intended for the use of students in the Berlin Cabinet, is a general handbook, aiming to present an historical account of engraving and its

masters. The treatment is thoroughly German, but direct and lucid. Dr. Lippmann aims to keep before the mind the different methods of engraving, and not the least instructive chapter is the introductory one on technical processes. The value of the book is greatly enhanced by the illustrations. Of the numerous examples, but one is reduced in size; the others are chiefly details from plates too large to be reproduced in full. The technique of the various schools is thus fully displayed, in notable contrast to more pretentious and expensively illustrated histories of engraving. As a forthcoming volume in the series, Dr. Lippmann promises a book on Wood-Engraving.

The Continental art reviews for January are more than usually empty. The *Gazette des Beaux-Arts* contains nothing of value but a short study by M. Ary Renan (son of the great writer) on "Orientalism" in modern painting. The *Archivio Storico dell' Arte* wastes space on a discussion of certain copies of Giorgione's masterpiece at Vicenza, "Christ bearing the Cross," which the writer prefers to the original; but a comparison of Alinari's photograph of this authentic work with the reproduction of the "replica" given in the text reveals how merely personal is this preference. Lützow's *Zeitschrift für Bildende Kunst* is more fortunate in a short discussion by Dr. Frizzoni of certain female portraits attributed to Leonardo; particularly of one in the Ambrosiana at Milan, already ascribed by Morelli to the Milanese painter, Ambrogio da Predis, and of the so-called "Belle Ferronnière" in the Louvre, in regard to which Dr. Frizzoni declares himself of the opinion pronounced by a number of different students in the last few years, that it is by Leonardo's close follower, Beltraffio.

The *Geographical Journal* for February opens with an account of a recent journey in Kurdistan by Captain Maunsell, in which he dwells especially on the great agricultural resources of the country, now undeveloped for lack of population and means of transport to the markets of the world. The introductory paper of a series on the geography of mammals, by W. L. Sclater, treats mainly of the regions into which zoölogists have divided the world, and describes the six which the author has adopted. An article on the southern plateau of Bolivia is noteworthy mainly for the frequent intimations of vast undeveloped mineral wealth contained in this region. Of more general interest is the letter of Captain Wiggins from Siberia, describing the successful voyage of a fleet across the Kara Sea last summer, carrying, among other things, rails for the Trans-Siberian Railway. He writes rather discouragingly of the probability of Dr. Nansen's having been able to pass the northernmost promontory of Asia, Cape Chelyuskin, because of the drift-ice which was very close in shore, adding: "I never before saw the ice in that vicinity so late in the season." There is a notice, with a portrait, of the late Sir Samuel W. Baker; the maps are of Kurdistan and of the globe, showing Mr. Sclater's six regions.

The London *Times* gives a remarkably interesting account, by Mr. Salter Pyne, who has recently returned from Cabul, of the progress of the Afghans in certain industrial arts. He went to Afghanistan at the request of the Ameer in 1885 to establish workshops and set up machinery. Buildings were erected, and first a plant of wood-working machinery, brought from England, was started. This was followed by the establishment of a mint, the coins being designed and the dies cut by Afghan workmen. Then came a manufactory of cartridges, and a steam-hammer and a forge were set up, from which "last year some fifty muzzle and breech-loading field guns were turned out." Other manufactures are candles, soap, boots (for the use of the army), furniture, carriages, and brandy distilling. "The latest addition is an enormous plant for rolling cartridge metal. Most of this was made in the Cabul foundries, where castings of six tons have been turned out." These are all Government works, carried on for the avowed purpose of civilizing and refining the people, and, as Mr. Pyne says in concluding his report of what he has accomplished in eight years, their effects "upon the future of Afghanistan cannot be overrated."

The distinguishing feature of the January Bulletin of the Boston Public Library is an admirable list of the works which the library contains on Africa, with the exception of Egypt, filling some forty-five pages and containing the most recent publications. Those upon Egypt were given in the Bulletin for October, 1893. There is also a list of the historical fiction relating to France, and lists of works on the Alps and the steam-engine. Three facsimiles of broadsides and a map of especial interest to Bostonians are added.

In the year 1896 the Montenegrin Government proposes to celebrate the 200th anniversary of the accession to the throne of the first member of the present reigning family, the Prince-Bishop Danilo I. In connection with this celebration a prize of 5,000 francs is offered for the best history of the country for these two centuries. There is no restriction as to the language employed, but the manuscripts must be submitted to the Montenegrin Government before December 31, 1895.

Another celebration is that of the 500th anniversary of the birth of Prince Henry the Navigator at Oporto in March. Not a seaman himself, he contributed largely by his studies and patronage to the sending out of the Portuguese expeditions which led eventually to the doubling of the Cape of Good Hope and the discovery of India. There will be a civic procession, a river pageant with a caravel, the inauguration of a statue, and some other public ceremonies.

We have received a copy of the charter, by-laws, and list of members of the new Geographical Club of Philadelphia, of which the president is Prof. Angelo Heilprin, and the secretary, F. Lynwood Garrison. Both sexes are represented in the board of directors.

The January number of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of American History* contains an interesting article by Mr. William M. Meigs, on "Pennsylvania Politics Early in this Century." Incidentally it exhibits the growth of the nominating convention in that State, which (contrary to the claim lately put forth for Rhode Island) Mr. Meigs considers the cradle of the system, both State and national, in this country.

We welcome the annual 'Comparative Summary and Index of State Legislation [in New York],' for the past year, just issued by the University of the State of New York at Albany. As we have before stated, this guide to our law-making is of use to legislators everywhere.

The Scottish Association for the Medical Education of Women reports, as its principal gain for 1893, an important extension of clinical instruction, "on terms rather in excess of the demands made," to the Edinburgh women medical students, now 37 in number. This new concession came from the managers of the Royal Infirmary, the hospital where the medical students of the University of Edinburgh receive most of their clinical instruction. "In recognition of the fact that women students had been admitted to qualifying clinical instruction in the wards of the Royal Infirmary," certain friends of the women promptly presented $1,500 to the hospital. While graduation in medicine can be secured by students of the Scottish Association for the Medical Education of Women at the University of St. Andrew's, the University of Edinburgh still "hesitates" to open its medical classes to women. This report expresses the sanguine hope that the experience gained in the university's arts classes (where are 68 women), as well as the fact that the opening of the Royal Infirmary to women students had *not*, "as was expected in some quarters, caused any decrease in the number of male students," will encourage the Senate of the University of Edinburgh to make the necessary arrangements for the admission of women to its medical department. It may be stated, for the encouragement of timid or prudent educational bodies, that, "so far from any injury having been done to the Royal Infirmary through the falling off in the number of male students, the institution has this year [1893] received a larger amount in fees from students, male and female, than last year."

The announcement of the sale of the late Prince Lucien Bonaparte's library will arrest the attention of librarians and of their generous friends in this country. It embraces some 17,000 items, and is offered *en bloc*. Its philological range is very extended, as might be expected from both the studies and the resources of that well-known student of language, and it is particularly strong in the French and Italian departments. The sale will be effected privately through H. Sotheran & Co., 140 Strand, London, W. C., who supply the catalogue.

—Any one who has investigated the subject knows that there never was a census of American slaveholders, but that the estimates of their number even by their own partisans did not exceed 350,000, including the hirers of slaves. The *William and Mary College Quarterly* for January publishes a list of the "names of Princess Anne County [Va.] slaveowners who, during the year 1810, owned ten or more slaves," 118 in all; but nothing is stated as to the number or proportion of smaller owners, nor as to the source of the list given. If this enumeration could be extended by the *Quarterly* or by the Virginia Historical Society, it would be very instructive. In the same issue, Mr. Brock, secretary of the society just named, publishes a letter of 1682 touching New England's supply of slaves to Virginia, and deduces from it the then valuation of slaves as expressed in tobacco at £12, £16, and £20, according to age. "These prices," says Mr. Brock, "had nearly doubled at the period preceding the American Revolution, when boys and girls commanded from £20 to £30, and adults from £40 to £60. . . . At the close of the eighteenth century these last values had again about doubled." In 1856, when slave property was perhaps at its highest, and when the revival of the slave trade was being prepared, prices averaged $700, according to the Richmond *Enquirer*. The most curious document in the *Quarterly* is a reprint of St. George Tucker's heavy satirical reply (1795) to the disparaging account of Williamsburg in Jedediah Morse's 'American Universal Geography.' The writer was

far more in his element when composing, at about the same time, his 'Dissertation on Slavery; with a Proposal for the Gradual Abolition of it in the State of Virginia' (Philadelphia, 1796). The reprint is followed by a hitherto unpublished letter from Judge John Tyler, father of the President, dated July 10, 1795, in praise of Tucker's pamphlet. In it occurs the passage, "To be sure, how many dirty efforts are made by these Northern cattle to reduce the consequence of Virginia. Every circumstance of human Life (both civil and political) proves how unfit the States were for such an Union as ours." Sentiments like these, at the date in question, indicate how little the abolitionists were chargeable with Southern contempt for the North or Southern proclivity towards secession.

—In the *Academy* for February 3 Mr. Grant Allen makes, we think, a substantial contribution towards the interpretation of Botticelli's famous picture at Florence called "Spring." This consists in regarding the three right-hand figures as symbolizing March, April, and May respectively, May being the beflowered nymph commonly called Flora. Mr. Allen hampers himself with his literary sources, relying overmuch on Horace's fourth ode (Book I.), and hence insisting on making a Favonius of the unmistakable Mercury on the extreme left, at the same time that he establishes his identity with the winged god by reason of the obscure instrument in his right hand, a caduceus. Not only, however, is the attitude quite unsuggestive of a "west wind," but the action of the whole figure is incompatible with the work assigned to it of "dispelling a mass of clouds which occupy the extreme upper left-hand corner of the composition"—like Coleridge's "gust of Autumn," that "crowds And breaks the busy moonlight clouds." In fact, the youth is intent on leisurely dislodging a fruit; and the windy hypothesis is much less rational than one that would make of the youth and dancing nymphs a decorous "Judgment of Paris." Mr. Allen conjectures the painting to have been one of four designed for as many panels, and each illustrating a season by its central figure and the accessory months. In citing Crowe and Cavalcaselle's non-committal description of the "Spring" as a "safe" one, we wonder he does not point out the gross errors of fact in it. Cupid is not bearing a torch but drawing his bow; and the figure emblematic of Fertility (Mr. Allen's April) has not a bow in her hands, or anything else: she needs them to get loose from the clutches of March.

—The Smithsonian Institution has just published the memoir by Prof. S. P. Langley, on the "Internal Work of the Wind," to which we made a brief reference a month ago. The fact which is here established is very simple, and naturally to be expected, namely, that all wind is very puffy, and a high wind more so than a gentle breeze. Although the author's apparatus had too much inertia to show how very great the real changes were, yet he got such results as this: On a certain day and hour, the wind, having a "velocity of twenty-three miles an hour, . . . rose within ten seconds to a velocity of thirty-three miles an hour, and within ten seconds more fell to its initial speed. It then rose within thirty seconds to a velocity of thirty-six miles an hour, and so on, with alternate risings and fallings, at one time actually stopping, and passing through eighteen notable maxima and as many notable minima, the average interval from a maximum to a minimum being a little over ten seconds, and the average change of velocity in this time being about ten miles an hour." It must evidently be practically impossible to put air into motion without setting up waves of condensation and rarefaction; therefore, the fact of the puffiness of the wind is not surprising. But the use to which Prof. Langley puts this fact is quite unexpected. His title indicates that he conceives air in such an oscillating condition as being substantially heated, though the heat is of a peculiar kind. However, he points out that in this case it is possible to violate the second law of thermodynamics; and he advances the hypothesis (which he puts very nearly if not quite out of doubt) that this is the way birds sail in the air. Namely, imagine a bird with outspread wings nearly motionless. Let it incline the plane of the wings so that the wind shall strike the under side. Then, Prof. Langley shows, from previous experiments of his own, that, owing to the inertia of the bird's body, instead of being carried on, it will at first be lifted. Gradually, however, the velocity of the wind will be communicated to the bird. But as it begins to feel the pressure on its wings diminishing, it either tilts the plane of the wings, or wheels, so that in the lull of the wind it will slip back upon an inclined plane to its first position. When the next puff comes, its wings are inclined as at the beginning, and its momentum is actually against the wind. This is not the whole story; but we must refer our readers to the memoir itself, which is much clearer and easier to understand than our attempt to state the matter. In fact, the perspicuity of expression in it is almost as remarkable as the perspicacity of thought. How great that is is shown by the failure of all previous attempts to explain the flight of birds.

—Mr. Leader Scott, the well-known writer on Florentine antiquities, in a little book aptly called 'Echoes of Old Florence' (Florence: Barbèra), has tried to strengthen these echoes, and to make them repeat what they once said clearly, and to yield up their human associations. How copious these are, everybody knows who has walked in the streets of Florence and had his eye caught at every few steps by a tablet on a palace front telling him that it had once been occupied by such and such a person famous in some line of human achievement. Excepting Athens, moreover, no other town has been so conscious of itself as Florence. Every little thing that happened to it as a state, or to any one of its citizens, seemed worthy of record, and there are very few events even of a perfectly parochial, not to say domestic, nature that have not been gleaned by the *novelliere* when they escaped the chronicler and historian. Florentine literature is, therefore, as no other whatever, autobiographic, and although this rather diminishes than increases its claims to universal interest, its value as a source of actual information is unrivalled. So true is this of Florentine literature that it is next to impossible to study it belletristically, its interest as an historical document always tending to get the upper hand; Dante himself forms scarcely an exception to this rule. It is this literature which Mr. Leader Scott has ransacked for his book: Dino Compagni, Villani, Sacchetti, Manni, manuscripts in the author's possession, and later historians, all being made to give up what was of pathetic and romantic as well as historical interest. He has made a little book for which the resident as well as the tourist can be grateful.

—'Tennyson: Poet, Philosopher, Idealist,' by J. Cuming Walters (London; Kegan Paul; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons) is further described on the title-page as "Studies of the Life, Work, and Teaching of the Poet Laureate." This is a solemn announcement and it announces a solemn book. Mr. Walters is no critic. He has a variety of critical phrases at his command, and these he applies with more judgment than his preliminary rhapsody on "the poet of yore" warrants us in expecting; but he shows little delicacy of discrimination and little skill in arranging what he has to say. That he lacks a sense of humor the book gives evidence *passim*, but one delicious bit of testimony must be extracted: Tennyson, we are told, "only voted once in the House of Lords, his support being given to the County Franchise bill; and, *had his health been better*, he intended to vote for the Deceased Wife's Sister bill, of which he heartily approved." (The italics are ours.) The book is much padded with extracts from familiar poems and with bombast from Mr. Walters's own manufactory. Worse than padding is the astounding statement that, in "The Foresters," Tennyson "has not departed to any extent from the main lines of the legend which lives in that fine old English ballad, 'A Lytell Geste of Robyn Hode.'" Yet, after all, the book is not useless. It is the fruit of a sort of enthusiastic industry, and, despite its heaviness, its disorder, and its critical superficiality, it contains a great deal of valuable material. The student and the literary historian will not consult it in vain.

—The ancient Oxford custom providing that a university sermon on "Humility" be preached towards the beginning of Lent was duly observed in St. Mary's Church on the first Sunday in February of this year. An apparently unprecedented coincidence made that same Sunday the day for the yearly Assize sermon, at which the Lord Chief Justice on Circuit—representing under those circumstances nothing less than the sacrosanct person of the Queen—has to be officially present, and also appointed that this year's preacher should be the Archbishop of Canterbury, who outranks the Lord Chief Justice on other occasions. It is not recorded that the secular and spiritual powers in England have ever before been confronted in just this way; certainly their two accredited representatives have never before vied in the public and professed exemplification of Christian humility. It is, therefore, hardly to be wondered at if time-honored means for outwardly marking that virtue failed to cover completely the demands of so unforeseen an emergency. The official representatives of the University could leave off their scarlet robes and appear, as they very properly did, in humble black as inglorious Masters of Arts; but the pomp and retinue of the royal Judge of Assize could not be laid on the shelf, and, that being the case, the head of the Church could hardly dispense with the obsequious attendance of a procession to conduct him to the pulpit. Precedent would have warranted a less exalted dignitary in finding his way thither early and unattended, there to be found humbly awaiting his auditors, and so it has often been done. The particular form of humility adopted this year for his Grace of Canterbury was a processional entrance much more imposing than is usual for University preachers. When this was over, the Vice-Chancellor heard a tucket from without, and the procession issued forth in order to escort the trumpeted lowliness of Lord Coleridge to a seat of honor. At the close his Lordship was

attended to the Judge's carriage, and his Grace waited until that was over before leaving the pulpit. This concession was made to the secular arm, although the preacher might from his sermon be said, in the phraseology of the Judge of Assize, to have changed the "venue" of humility from this world to the next, since he defined it as "a spiritual sense of spiritual proportion."

A VETERAN REFORMER.

Frederic Hill: An Autobiography of Fifty Years in Times of Reform. Edited, with additions, by his daughter, Constance Hill. London: Richard Bentley & Son. 1893.

EVERYBODY has heard of Rowland Hill, who in 1840 achieved his darling idea of penny postage. A life of him has been written by his nephew, Dr. Birkbeck Hill, the editor *par excellence* of Boswell. His oldest brother was Matthew Davenport Hill, whose life has also been written; his youngest brother (save one who died early) was Frederic, the subject of the present memoir, and now the sole survivor of five very remarkable men, Edwin and Arthur being the other two brothers. Mr. Frederic Hill is now in his ninety-first year. We realize his age when we read that he well remembers his great-uncle, John Hill, who enrolled himself as a volunteer against the Pretender in 1745, and that he himself has shared in two royal jubilees—that of George III. in 1810 and that of Queen Victoria in 1887. He remembers also his maternal grandfather, William Lea, who rescued a reputed witch from a moat into which she had been flung by a mob; and he was a boy of fourteen when a murder was committed in Birmingham for which impunity was secured by the murderer's appealing to the wager of battle before Lord Ellenborough and the full court of Queen's Bench. He saw the pillory in use; he had a hand in abolishing the treadmill in prisons, and that not so very long ago. He tells of one of his acquaintances "who was subject to occasional fits of insanity. When these occurred, he was taken to the lunatic asylum of his district, and there bound to a seat on a pivot, which was whirled round and round till he became insensible." "Within my lifetime," he reminds us, "Men were hanged for stealing five shillings' worth of goods." Born in the midst of the Napoleonic wars, "Boney" was a terror to him, and not less the press-gang, which caused the boy to run at night through the streets of Birmingham, though in no danger, on account of his youth. He shared in the rejoicings over Napoleon's abdication and again over Waterloo. When he visited Paris in 1824, "the Rue de la Paix was the only street which was provided with a footpath; at night the city was lighted by dim oil-lamps, which were suspended by ropes across the streets."

In this narrative by one who, in spite of his great age, is still a man of the time, the survivals seem more ancient than the genuine antiquities. When we read of "a curious old Scottish Act of Parliament by which the killing of plovers was made punishable, 'because,' as the Act set forth, 'they fly over the Border and feed on the lands of our natural enemies, the English'"; or again, "At Banff [in 1835] I met Mr. Cameron, the Provost. . . . He told me he could distinctly remember going with his father's grieve into the Highlands to pay 'blackmail' to the chieftain of the district as a security against the 'lifting' of his father's cattle. This 'blackmail' was paid in kind, chiefly in oatmeal"—does that seem as far off as the following, dated Lincoln, 1850?

"I was remarking to Mr. Fardell on the youthful appearance of most of the county magistrates at the meeting last week, and was surprised to hear from him that most of them had been put into the Commission of Peace when they were mere infants; and that till lately this was a common practice, just as children used to have commissions in the army and navy."

And again, it is hard to believe that duelling has been unlawful in England for only half a century—*i. e.*, since 1843, "when the death of Col. Fawcett, by the hand of his brother-in-law, produced so great a revulsion of feeling that public opinion would no longer sanction such outrages."

The main interest of this work, in which there is not a dull page, lies in its illustration of British philanthropy—not of the Exeter Hall variety, if that sneering term must be confined to those whose active benevolence was unconfined and non-insular; but animated first of all by the spirit of domestic, however broad its sympathy with universal, reform. As individuals, the Hills were but a type of a class which, for warm-heartedness, self-consecration, energy, and generosity in giving has hardly any parallel outside of Great Britain. As a family, however, they must have been exceptional even apart from their variety of talent. Parents and children worked together with a surprising unanimity and yet without domination or leadership. Their common private interest was the famous school at Edgbaston, exemplifying Rowland Hill's "Hazelwood system." In 1831, on the eve of the final struggle over the Reform Bill, a sacrifice seemed necessary.

"The period," says Frederic, "being one of national crisis, we held a family council to determine what action duty to our country called upon us to take. All agreed that one member should be spared from the work of the school and set at liberty to take an active part in the coming struggle. I was chosen for this purpose. Without loss of time, therefore, I enrolled myself as a member of the Political Union, an association which had been started in Birmingham as early as January, 1830."

Such sacrifices may have suggested the idea of insurance in the manner described in the following extract:

"In the year 1832 we established what we called the 'Family Fund.' Its object was to secure every member of our family (five of whom were now married) from pecuniary anxiety. The necessary expenditure of each branch of the family was assessed, and half the remaining surplus income, in each case, was handed over annually to the 'Family Fund.' Its management, together with the selection of investments, was intrusted to me. This fund continued in being for twenty-four years; at the end of which time the general condition of our family had so far improved that all pecuniary anxieties had disappeared. The balance, which had much increased in amount, was then divided; each person's share being in proportion to his original contribution."

Four of the brothers entered the public service, for the public good.

"I determined," says Frederic, "on Matthew's advice, to be called to the bar to facilitate my entrance into the Civil Service, and to that end entered my name as a student of Lincoln's Inn. Being 'called' in those days was a very different affair from what it is now. No study of the law was required, and there was no examination. When, some time later, the last of the prescribed dinners had been eaten, I was conducted to the upper end of Lincoln's Inn Hall, and introduced to the benchers. A manuscript was then placed in my hands containing the opening part of a trial, and I was desired to read it aloud. I had scarcely, however, uttered a few words when the bencher made me a slight bow, which indicated his perfect satisfaction in my legal acquirements, and was also a sign that the ceremony was concluded."

Two years later Mr. Hill was appointed an inspector of prisons by Lord John Russell, then home secretary; and the chapters which relate to the discharge of his duties, first in Scotland and afterwards in the north of England and Wales, are among the most valuable in this autobiography, and contain his monument as a benefactor of his countrymen. We have not space to examine them in detail, even to extract from them the curiosities of evil custom and legislation which he helped to abolish, or to dwell on the principles which guided him. As the inventor of the "indeterminate sentence," his portrait fitly adorns our own Elmira Reformatory; and his cardinal doctrine that all prisoners should be provided with employment, and all paid at market rates for work done beyond the allotted task, deserves to be studied in its consequences wherever the poison of the trades unions has clouded the popular understanding on this subject. Mr. Hill's sojourn in Scotland brought him in contact with well-known personages, legal and literary, who contribute their share to the capital anecdotes with which these pages abound. He was afterwards associated with his brother Rowland in the post-office, and effected many improvements in the money-order department; and it was while thus engaged (in 1855) that he refused to mount the roof to view the grand procession escorting the Emperor Louis Napoleon to the Guildhall. "I replied that I had been so long an inspector of prisons that the sight of a rogue had ceased to be any novelty to me."

It is in keeping with the family feeling that pervades this delightful book that the portraits of three of the brothers are by Miss Ellen G. Hill, a sister of the editor; and they are faces of distinction. Edwin, who was in the stamp department, possessed a great deal of mechanical contrivance, but he was also a thinker on financial and economic topics. He held, we are told, that "criminal enterprise requires capital for its development as much as honest labor, and that if those who harbor criminals and receive stolen goods were effectively dealt with by the law, theft and burglary, as an organized business, must fall to the ground." That a criminals' insurance fund might be the product of circumstances like those which make our city government a den of thieves, will readily be believed by those who observe what goes on in our criminal courts, both as respects the ready employment of counsel and the reliance upon "pulls."

We conclude with a passage which marks the difference between America and England in respect of traditions of administration. Our readers do not need to be told why our salvation—at present at least—lies in the very measure which Mr. Frederic Hill deprecates. He says:

"Another matter in which my brother [Rowland] and I agreed (indeed, I do not recollect anything in which we did not agree), related to the competitive examinations by the Civil Service Commissioners. We regarded the introduction of these examinations into the Post-office with much regret. Their tendency, we were convinced, is to fill the ranks of the officers with mediocrity; mediocrity, that is, as regards the qualifications which are essential for zealous and efficient action. They are opposed to the great principle that those who are responsible for the success of any business should have the choice of its officers; seeing that they have the greatest interest in a good selection, and possess the fullest knowledge of the qualifications required."

EARLY MAGNETICAL SCIENCE.—II.

William Gilbert of Colchester, physician of London, on the Loadstone and Magnetic Bodies and on the great Magnet, the Earth; A New Physiology, demonstrated with many Arguments and Experiments. A translation by P. Fleury Mottelay. John Wiley & Sons. 1893.

THE immediate success of Gilbert's book on the lodestone was surprising. No doubt it astonished the author. He had said in his preface, *paucis philosophandum censuimus*, "we have resolved to philosophize for a few" (which Mr. Mottelay translates, We have held that philosophy is for the few), and it is said that the first edition consisted of but a small number of copies. Yet a burst of the most valuable admiration followed the publication. Kepler refers to it twice in his *magnum opus*, and in many other places, with the highest praise. Galileo said it excited his envy. Even Descartes, with his French indisposition to build up any other man's reputation, referred to it with approval. It is true, as might have been expected, that Descartes was able very much to improve upon Gilbert's conceptions. All this applause was somewhat more than the work really deserved. Those from whom it came were not acquainted with Peregrinus, and did not know that, notwithstanding his reclamatory asterisks, much of what so delighted them was not original with Gilbert. Still, today, with all the facts before us, we cannot but admit that the book displays a wonderful Faradayesque power of carrying along experimentation and cerebration, hand in hand. If we ask what positive new principle Gilbert defined, we must admit that there is nothing except that of induction at a distance; but that is a good deal. He also has a vague conception of curved lines of force, which, imperfect as it is, is of inestimable value. Furthermore, he is the author of the theory that the earth is a magnet. His apparatus consisted of spherical lodestones imitated from Peregrinus, and also of the versorium, or small compass-needle, of which Peregrinus made no use. Gilbert's discoveries were inevitable consequences of his improved apparatus. When he has gone successfully as far as his apparatus will carry him, he begins to theorize in a way that merits Bacon's strictures. He wishes to account for the invariability of the direction of the earth's axis and for the rotation of the earth, by magnetism. He thinks that magnetic polarity is an essential character of the pure chemical element, earth. That is almost as unscientific as Peregrinus, towards whose vagaries Gilbert betrays some leaning.

Although Dr. Gilbert had the honor of giving its name to electricity (that is, he invented the adjective *electric*, from which the abstract noun followed as a matter of course), yet his electrical experiments are contemptible. The reason was that he made no electroscope, but used only an unmagnetic versorium. The consequence was that almost everything escaped him, even to electrical polarity, and even to repulsion, which one does not clearly see how he could help noticing. In short, he left electricity just about where the ancients left magneticity.

Celebrated and lauded as the 'De Magnete' always has been throughout Europe, it is singular that it has been printed only twice. The first edition is in folio. Twenty years ago, for an exceptionally fine copy, the exorbitant Quaritch would make a man pay 25 shillings, and now the multiplication of rich electricians has made $25 cheap for it. The second edition, which first appeared in 1628, is in quarto. It bears the imprint, "Excusus Sedini typis Gotzianis." Mr. Mottelay easily concludes that the town meant is Stettin; indeed, he might have pointed out that the volume contains some laudatory verses signed "Gregorius Westphal. super. Dicaster. Pomeranus, Advocatus et Schabinatus Sedinensis Assessor." Here is plainly a Sedinum in Pomerania; and it would be extravagant to doubt that it is the Sedinum of the title-page. Some copies of a quarto edition printed at the same place bear the date 1633. One of these is in our hands. The horizontal water-lines in the first sheet are distant from one another 24 millimetres; in all the rest of the book their distance is 32 millimetres. In short, the paper of the first sheet is different, and the printing of it (including, of course, the title-page) was presumably executed at a different time from the rest. On the whole, it seems probable that this is nothing but the edition of 1628 with a new first sheet substituted, a common bookseller's device. If any person owning a copy bearing the date 1628 will look at page 219, tenth line from the bottom, he can verify or overthrow this surmise. That line, in the edition of 1633 reads: "verint] in contrariam sophantium quorundam stupor, qui cum," from which some words have clearly dropped out. The quarto text is somewhat more accurate than that of the folio; many of the illustrations are incomparably finer; it has the advantage of an index of 23 pages, and it can be had for a reasonable price. The only objection to it is that it omits the asterisks of two sizes which Gilbert put in his margin to draw attention to matter which he claimed as original. But these can now readily be supplied from Mr. Mottelay's translation. A new edition of the Latin, accompanied by a translation and full annotations, is a desideratum. It requires for the execution of it a competent acquaintance with mediæval and Paracelsian philosophy and with the writings of the medical men of the sixteenth century.

Gilbert treats every part of his subject historically. Thus, in his first chapter, he refers to fifty, sixty, or more authors. The reader naturally wishes to know who these were, in a general way, at least, and something of their characteristics; and the passages referred to should be put before him. Mr. Mottelay supplies a few notes which sometimes contain welcome information. But really it was not needful for him to state who Thomas Aquinas was, nor to offer a judgment upon him; nor are we particular to be referred to the page of Webster's, or Worcester's, or Ogilvie's dictionary where some term of ancient astronomy may be found defined, for better or for worse. It is no use telling us to "consult" works of which not half-a-dozen copies exist, and those in another quarter of the globe. Nor do we see the value of such references as this: "Beati Alb. Magni, Ratisboniensis, . . . lib. viii., Lugduni, 1651," where the name of the book is omitted apparently to make room for the long name of the archbishopric. When we are advised to "consult Vincentii Burgundi, *Spec. Mai.*," as we are several times, we understand that the writer usually called Vincentius Bellovacensis is meant. At least a dozen times, Brown's 'Pseudoloxia Epidemica' is quoted, instead of 'Pseudodoxia.'

We notice only a small proportion of the faults which have chanced to catch our eye. On p. 4, several authors' names are wrongly given, as Brasevolus instead of Brasavolus, Hermolaus Barbatus instead of Barbarus, Hannibal Roserius Calaber instead of Rosetius; while Aëtius of Amida is omitted. For Hali Abbas the translator writes "Abohali (Hali Abbas)" in severa places. Now Hali Abbas is the usual designation of a very famous physician, Ali-ibn-al-Abbas, and Abohali is no part of his name. On the other hand, on p. 76, where the Latin does read Abohali, we have in the translation (it is the word *carab*, meaning amber, that is under discussion):

"In Arabic *carab* means oblation, not *rapiens paleas* (snatching chaff), as Scaliger would have it, quoting from the Arabic or Persian of Abohali (Hali Abbas)."

The fact that Gilbert does not know whether the language is Arabic or Persian shows that he does not know who it is that Scaliger (J. C., of course) means by Abohali. The "Hali Abbas" is Mr. Mottelay's gloss. But the writer Scaliger meant was no other than *Abu-Ali*-al-Hasan-ibn-Abdallah-ibn-Sina, usually called Avicenna. For in this physician's Canon, Lib. II., tr. ii., cap. 364, we read, in the translation of Gerhardus Carmonensis: "*Karabe*, scilicet, rapiens paleas Persice." The translator sometimes writes names in their Latin forms, sometimes in the vernacular, without any rule. Thus, Pietro d'Abano is twice so called, and once, Petrus Apponensis. When we read of "Marbodæus, a Frenchman," we have no idea who is meant; but when we see the name written "Marbodeus Gallus," we recall that eleventh century poet, surnamed Peliciarius. Looking out Marco Polo, in the index, we are referred to p. 11, where we read of Baptista Porta learning some obvious properties of the lodestone "from Messer Paolo, the Venetian." Now, the original has (in the ablative) "R. M. Paulo Veneto"; and the "R. M.," or *Reverend* Master, might have sufficed to show that Marco Polo was not meant. Besides, that traveller, in the text used by Yule, says never a word about the lodestone. Turning, however, to the preface to the seventh book of Porta's 'Natural Magic,' the book treating of magnetism, we read:

"At Venice we knew intent upon the same study 'R. M. Paulum Venetum,' at that time provincial of the order of Servite monks, now the very worthy procurator, from whom far from blushing to have learned some things, we glory in it; for we have never come across a man more learned nor more intelligent than he, born for the Encyclopedia, the splendor and ornament not of the city of Venice only, nor of Italy, but of the world."

This description suits Sarpi alone, who, though his baptismal name was Pietro, was *Fra Paolo* in religion, and who was elected provincial of the Servites in 1579, and was appointed procurator in 1588.

The translator's English is certainly very graceful. Perhaps it might, here and there, be advantageously brought nearer to the author's meaning. When Gilbert writes "nihil præter errores et caligines in tam excellenti cognitione commonet," would it not be better to render this, "he suggests nothing in this lofty inquiry but errors and obscurities," instead of "he does but add errors and obscurities to his otherwise excellent treatise"? On p. 17, we read: "hence one loadstone is male, another female." The Latin is: "mas num sit an femina," which seems to ask, "Is it then male or female?" *Plumbum album* is constantly translated "zinc," but it is certain that George Agricola meant tin by *plumbum candidum*, and we do not see how zinc will answer. It is not white, to begin with. It is easy to suppose that Gilbert, like many writers, meant by *stannum* pewter or some alloy. On p. 47, the translator speaks of things "arranged *according to artificial conditions*." The Latin is "artificiose," better translated

"scientifically." On p. 58, by way of antidote to poisoning by iron, the translator represents Avicenna as recommending "a drachm of loadstone taken in a draught of the juice of *dog's mercury*." Gilbert says *mercurialis*, by which he must have understood the French mercury, not the poisonous dog's mercury. But we cannot find that Avicenna really made any such recommendation. He proposes that lodestone should be mixed with iron filings when they are prescribed, and should be taken in "melicratum," or mead, not *mercurialis*. Is there not some clerical error? Page 63, Mottelay: "loadstone is *chiefly* earthy." The Latin is *maxime*, and should certainly be translated "in the highest degree."

On page 94, the translation reads, "So, too, a dry body does not run to the dry rim of a vessel containing water; but, on the contrary, a wet object does." The Latin is: "Ita nec ad limbum vasis siccum appellit humidum, sed humidum petit limbum," which may be rendered, "So a wet object does not approach the dry side of a vessel but seeks the wet side." On p. 87, *gemma Vincentii* is translated "vincentina," but what is that? On p. 97, the translation is: "Electric bodies attract the electric only, and the body attracted undergoes no modification through its own native force, but is drawn freely under impulsion in the ratio of its matter (composition)." The Latin is: "Electrica corpora alliciunt tantum, allectum non immutatur insita vi, sed materiæ ratione sponte appulsum incumbit." Perhaps this might be rendered; "Electric bodies only attract; the attracted body is not changed in its native force, but by reason of matter, being invoked, willingly exerts itself." Gilbert certainly thinks the excited amber by something very like human persuasion induces things to come to it. On p. 123, the translation reads, "And as light—so the opticians tell us—arrives instantly, in the same way *with far greater instantaneousness* the magnetic energy is present within the limits of its forces." The words we have italicized are, in the original, *multo magis*, "much more." That is, we have much more reason to think magnetic induction is instantaneous. Mr. Mottelay's translation would make Gilbert deny the absolute instantaneousness of illumination, which he never dreamed of doing. The phrase *multo magis* is often used in the sense of *a fortiori*. On p. 169 occurs the word *halinitro;* but this is not English. It would be better to speak either of "halinitrum (carbonate of soda)" or of "mineral alkali."

We could easily multiply the number of such criticisms by ten; but the general rationale of the course of experimentation is not affected by such slips. We wish, however, before closing this notice, to make some remarks upon some ruling practices of the translator. *Manifestus* is almost everywhere rendered by "manifest." Now, we have no objection at all to an effort to so turn the meaning of the English word; only the peculiar acception should be explained. *Manifestus*, in the language of physicists, means open to direct observation after making the appropriate experiment. It does not imply that the thing is evident *unless* the experiment is made. For instance, on p. 217: "Here we must express wonder at a *manifest* error of Baptista Porta, . . . to wit, that iron rubbed with diamond turns to the north." Even when the translator selects a different word, he fails to convey the peculiar meaning of *manifestum*. Thus, on p. 212: "It is *plain* (*manifestum*) that all the bars so hammered out toward the north and so laid down while cooling will rotate round their centres, and when afloat will move about in water, and will point north." It is not plain that they *will* behave so; but if the experiment be made, it *will* become plain that they do so behave.

An admiring translator of an old author very naturally and almost excusably falls unawares into a way of slurring over his author's cruder conceptions, and of representing him as more modern in his ideas than he really was. We have seen how Mr. Mottelay, by a most forced rendering, would lead his reader to think that Gilbert believed in the finite velocity of light. Gilbert's ignorance of forces was profound. At a time before Galileo's achievements were known, Gilbert could not be expected to have a knowledge of dynamics, but one might suppose that so perspicacious a mind would have a not altogether erroneous instinctive idea of force. If we compare Gilbert with Dr. John Dee, whose period of activity antedates the 'De Magnete' by thirty or forty years, we find the older man, for whom posterity has had only contempt, to be far better equipped with conceptions of mechanics than the younger. Gilbert comes, in the course of his book, into conflict with each one of the three laws of motion, but most frequently with the law of action and reaction.

Between the words *potestas*, *dominium*, *potentia*, *vis*, *virtus*, *robur*, *vigor*, he draws no clear distinction, as can be seen in book ii., chapter xxix., first paragraph, where all these words occur in the same sense. Yet Mr. Mottelay throws a garb of modernness over his translation by an incessant use of the word "energy." Take, for example, the following definition. The original reads, "*Verticitas*, vigor polaris, non περιδίνησις, sed περιδινείσιος δύναμις: non vertex aut πόλος, sed virtus convertens." The obvious translation is, "*Verticity*, polar vigor, not a rotation, but a tendency to rotation; not a pole, but a property of turning." But Mr. Mottelay translates as follows: "*Verticity*. Polar strength—activity (or what in Gilbert's day was understood as energy); not gyrating, vertiginous, but turning power; nor is it polar revolution, but a directing virtue, an innate turning vigor."

Where, in the original, does he find anything about its being *innate?* It is difficult to understand the clause in parenthesis. If Mr. Mottelay means to say that in Elizabethan English the word *energy* was used to translate *vigor*, he is mistaken. The word *energy* was not in use at all, except in the sense of liveliness in writing. The reason it was not used was that the Greek word was perfectly translated by the Latin *actus* and English *act*. As Sir William Hamilton well says, "Energy, act, operation, are convertible terms." Everybody knows that "energy" was the precise contrary to δύναμις, the word which Gilbert selects to express what his verticity *is;* so that energy is particularly adapted for *avoidance* in translating it. But if Mr. Mottelay means that the word energy will convey to electricians and other modern readers the conception in Gilbert's mind, we venture again to dissent. We admit that the converse is true. If one wanted to give a single word which should convey in Latin to the prescientific man the nearest idea possible to that of our energy, *vigor* might perhaps be the best choice. But when, on the contrary, the purpose is to put the modern man into the state of mind of the prescientific man—the Gilbert—the word "vigor," if it be at fault, is so because it conveys a too scientific idea. "Energy" ought not to be thought of for an instant. Mr. Mottelay seems really to be at some pains to conceal a thing which it should have been one of his chief concerns to bring to light, the contrast between Gilbert's conceptions of magnetic action and those of any scientific man of our time. Nevertheless, we are very much obliged to him for the translation. The book is more than amply worth its price.

The History of Illinois and Louisiana under the French Rule; embracing a general view of the French Dominion in North America, with some account of the English occupation of Illinois. By Joseph Wallace, counsellor at law, etc. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1893.

Mr. Parkman is quoted by name in this book twelve times. The occasions on which he is the real authority must be twelve times twelve. Many incidents in the narrative have also been gleaned from the collections of State historical societies, or monographs on counties and towns, and some from public archives. Still, a volume like this of Mr. Wallace's was needed to bring the history of the Mississippi Valley during its first century within the reach of the great mass of students. In his work there is much to commend. The details are well selected, related, and grouped. We trace with growing interest the progress, decade after decade, of discovery, exploration, and occupation. The obstacles to advancement, owing to the face of the country, climate, conflicts with savages or between civilized nations, and blunders in economics, are fairly presented. The careers of Marquette, with many other missionaries as self-sacrificing—of Joliet, La Salle, Tonty, Iberville, Bienville, and later of several English and Spanish leaders—give a continuity to the historic chain. Everything is set forth from a Western or Mississippi Valley standpoint. The primitive geography at every point possible is brought in touch with that of the living present. Popular errors on this matter are corrected, as where Kaskaskia is shown to have been at first not at its present location, but far up the Illinois River and near Starved Rock.

The two chief lessons, however, of Mr. Wallace's book seem to be these: first, the inferiority of the French settlers of the West to the English who settled the Atlantic slope. The latter were largely a sort of martyrs who had dared dissent from opinions prevalent where they were born, and had pluck enough to suffer for the faith that was in them. The former were not of this class; no Huguenots were allowed among them. The second lesson is that French colonization, even though it had been tolerant of Huguenots and had brought over a half a million of them, must have been a failure. It furnished no school of self-government like New England town-meetings, nothing analogous to the intellectual discipline afforded by Puritan common schools. Hence, at best, it could have developed only a lower type of civilization than that, formed at the East, which overflowed the Alleghanies and fertilized the West. Anglo-Saxon predominance in the great valley is a clear survival of the fittest.

Mr. Wallace's index of seventeen pages is not a mere list of names, but it explains in most cases what those names indicate. The title of his book is too long. Titles and epitaphs cannot be too short. His vocabulary inclines to be verbose and grandiose. His book would be more readable if various documents and statements were either greatly condensed or relegated to an appendix. He seems to know just enough French to misquote, for he

prints *Le* État, *Le* Baye, etc. He is incredulous about the discoveries of Radisson, but is ignorant how to spell his name. Many proper names he prints with variants in spelling. We find not only Zenobe, and Zenobius, but *Zenobious* (p. 85). Nor are other words better printed. "The King granted Tonty three hundred *livers*" (p. 84). Errors of this sort, either scriptorial or typographical, are inexcusably common. Space forbids noticing more than one mistake in fact. According to Mr. Wallace, Joliet, on returning from the Mississippi, "passed down Lakes Huron, Erie, and Ontario" (p. 66). But Joliet himself says that on that journey he passed down *forty-two* rapids. This he could not do on the lakes and St. Lawrence; therefore he came down the Ottawa, in which they are multitudinous, and which afforded a route far shorter and safer than that by the lakes.

Barlaam und Joasaph: Eine bibliographisch-literaturgeschichtliche Studie, von Ernst Kuhn. Aus den Abhandlungen der k. bayer. Akademie der Wissenschaften. I. Classe. XX. Band. Munich. 1893.

Few works of the legendary sort appeal to so many different interests as 'Barlaam and Josaphat' (or *Joasaph*, to use the better form). Its importance to patristic students has only been emphasized by Mr. Armitage Robinson's recent discovery that the Greek version contains a large fragment of the Apology of Aristides. It is of considerable value to the historian of dogma. To the Orientalist it offers a number of attractively knotty problems. The investigator of mediæval literature finds much that is instructive in the study of its transmission from people to people, and, in particular, of the enormous vogue which some of its parables attained—notably the Trumpet of Doom, the Man in the Pit, the Fowler and the Bird, the King for a Year, and the Three Caskets. The amateur of the curious will always respect a document which effected the introduction of Buddha, as a Christian saint, into the Roman Menology and the Greek Menæa. The enthusiast who dreams of a universal religion may well find aid and comfort in the ease with which a Buddhistic legend adapted itself to the edification of Mohammedans and Christians alike.

It is therefore with no common satisfaction that we welcome a thorough discussion of this work from so well equipped a scholar as Ernst Kuhn. The careful treatise of Zotenberg, which appeared so recently as 1886, was quickly made obsolete by the discovery of unknown texts—including one in Arabic and one in Georgian. Hommel's appendix to Weisslovits's 'Prinz und Derwisch' (1890) discussed these texts and summarized the investigations of Baron von Rosen, but arrived at results which merely signalized the need of further study. His acceptance of the theory that the Greek was translated from the Georgian was almost a challenge, and many of his own conjectures were of the boldest. Kuhn has gone over the whole ground afresh, and has reached conclusions which are vastly more satisfactory than Hommel's—conclusions which may, to be sure, admit of modification in details, but can hardly be shaken in the main unless by the turning up of further material.

Kuhn rejects the theory of Von Rosen and Hommel that the Greek text is derived from the Georgian, and upholds the date (seventh century A. D.) assigned to it by Zotenberg. Both the Greek and the Georgian, he maintains, are derived from a common original, which may probably have been written in the Christian-Palestinian dialect of Aramaic. This original, in common with the non-Christian Arabic forms of the legend, he derives in its turn from a lost Pahlavī version. This last he supposes to have been composed by an Iranian Christian who took his materials, not from any written life of Buddha, but from current traditions with which he was familiar. The purpose of the work is conjectured to have been to counteract Buddhistic proselyting. The bold, but hardly improbable, conjecture is ventured that two Arabic biographies of Buddha, mentioned by the Fihrist, were, in their Pahlavī form, the very treatises which the author wished to oppose. The Greek 'Barlaam and Joasaph,' Kuhn continues, is no mere translation, but a free working-over of the legend with large additions of a theological cast. These inferences are drawn after a searching examination of the documentary evidence, and are supported by an array of testimony not more remarkable for its learning than for the acumen with which it is interpreted.

Nearly half of the monograph is taken up with what may be called the modern history of the legend. By translations from the Greek and more especially from the mediæval Latin version of the Greek, 'Barlaam and Josaphat' was made a part of almost every literature of the world, and these translations are catalogued and classified by Kuhn with a clearness and a fulness of bibliographical detail that will make the second part of his book indispensable to students of mediæval literature. The separate parables also receive elaborate treatment. The attention of Chaucerians may be called to page 82, where "The Pardoner's Tale," an analogue of which is contained in Ibn Chisdai's Hebrew adaptation of 'Barlaam,' is richly illustrated. Two or three additions might be made to this page, but they are of small consequence. Of somewhat greater moment is the omission of the Croissant episode in the romance of 'Bauduin de Sebourc' from the list of Old French versions of 'Barlaam,' but this is an omission which all previous investigators seem also to have made. The curious rhyming chap-book, 'The Heathen's Conversion, the Life of Jehosaphat,' has, naturally enough, also escaped the notice of Kuhn.

An excursus on the appearance of Barlaam and Josaphat among the saints of the Church closes this remarkable monograph, for which no praise can be too high.

The Interpretation of Nature. By Nathaniel Southgate Shaler. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1893. 8vo, pp. 305.

The chapters of this volume were delivered as lectures to the students of a theological seminary. By way of concession to the special interests of the audience, the emotional and the moral and religious traits in the characters of the lower animals and men are given particular attention. A correct interpretation of nature should be a synonym for the ordinary term natural science; this discussion is somewhat broader and treats of the science of the day in connection with religion, laying stress on the relations between knowledge of nature and religious theory. The book is a good conservative summary of present results in science, with speculations on future scientific progress and on consequences in religious development.

Excessive caution and suggestion rather than positive assertion are everywhere patent. The training of a naturalist seldom induces readiness to accept and teach conclusions founded on faith. The differences recognized by this author between the scientific and the theologic explanation of nature are intimated in the remark that the latter "necessarily dwells on large matters which are to be accepted on the basis of faith alone." It is not easy from these pages to determine the exact condition of Prof. Shaler's religious belief, yet a tolerable idea may be secured from statements in substance like the following: Man should find his heaven about his doors in this world; the admonitions from the world of fact in favor of right doing and against evil are as mandatory as any which have been received from the realm of the supernatural, but the voice of nature appeals to trained ears, while a blind faith is found among all men; in a belief based on experience there is but one kingdom, one order, one control in the universe; materialists and spiritualists may eventually be expected to harmonize through the growing conviction that all matter is but a mode of action of energy; the practical unification of religion and science appears inevitable, though the steps may not be foreseen; the investigator, having exhausted the field covered by his narrow vision, resorts to supposition more or less mystical concerning the actions or purposes of the forces of nature, and is thus led into the paths of the theologist, into the domain of faiths, where approximation to truth must lead to harmony; the primary effect of union will be abandonment of the conception of two distinct realms, the natural and the supernatural, and the acceptance of the belief that the universe is one great field through which the spirit of man is to range with ever increasing freedom; it is by no means certain that the fit harvest is personal immortality, but, so far as we can see, the unknown continuation of the known is best satisfied by the hypothesis that life is in some way perpetuated with all the personal profit which has been attained by that greatest of all natural results, the individual soul. The author evidently feels that there is something uncertain and insecure in the foundations of our science: this is the feeling of most scientists, and it may be added that many of them have a similar feeling in regard to religion.

A wide range is traversed by Prof. Shaler in the discussion of topics like appreciation of nature, critical points in the continuity of natural phenomena, the place of organic life in nature, the march of the generations, the bond of the generations, the natural history of sympathy, and the immortality of the soul from the point of view of natural science. On topics like heredity, selection, curiosity, love of nature, altruism, sympathy, fear of death, and sorrow, there are sure to be differences of opinion. In a comparison of the mind of the Greek with that of the Roman, it might be preferable to treat Aristotle more as an exception, since his influence on his countrymen, as on their neighbors, was very slight. It might be questioned, also, whether the fear of death is really so great or sorrow so excessive as might be inferred from the text. As for the science of these pages, originality is, perhaps, more apparent in the manner of presentation than in the matter. Quick at recognizing the virtues of the most recent, the author has not permitted newness to interfere with a careful estimate of real values. As much of novelty is found in the chapter on "critical points" as in any; in it, without denying the continuity of causation, provision is made for the unexpected. To illustrate: critical points appear when water is so cold that it can no longer remain a liquid, or so hot that it must assume a gaseous condition. As all matter is

48th

Annual Statement

of the

Connecticut Mutual Life Insurance Co.

Of Hartford, Conn.

NET ASSETS, January 1, 1893		$50,037,395 74
RECEIVED IN 1893.		
For Premiums	$4,623,200 08	
For Interest and Rents	3,144,574 64	
Profit and Loss	8,358 82	
		$7,776,133 54
		$66,813,529 28
DISBURSED IN 1893.		
For claims by death and matured endowments	$3,970,458 56	
Surplus returned to policy-holders	1,256,201 69	
Lapsed and Surrendered Policies	597,355 08	
TOTAL to POLICY-HOLDERS	$5,824,015 33	
Commissions to Agents, Salaries, Medical Examiners' fees, Printing, Advertising, Legal, Real Estate, and all other expenses	770,158 09	
TAXES	293,156 27	
		6,887,329 69
BALANCE NET ASSETS, Dec. 31, 1893		$59,926,199 59
SCHEDULE OF ASSETS.		
Loans upon Real Estate, first lien		$37,669,494 86
Loans upon Stocks and Bonds		12,849 50
Premium Notes on Policies in force		1,351,625 21
Cost of Real Estate owned by the Co.		7,105,311 33
Cost of United States and other Bonds		12,423,628 55
Cost of Bank and Railroad Stocks		380,960 25
Cash in Banks		973,999 00
Cash in Office		3,813 39
Bills receivable		990 67
Agents' Ledger Balances		3,526 83
		$59,926,199 59
ADD		
Interest due and accrued	$1,010,541 36	
Rents accrued	8,271 27	
Market value of Stocks and Bonds over cost	224,102 70	
Net deferred premiums	194,289 69	
		$1,437,205 02
GROSS ASSETS, December 31, 1893		$61,363,404 61
LIABILITIES.		
Amount required to reinsure all outstanding Policies net, Company's Standard	$53,817,154 00	
All other liabilities	1,098,222 74	
		$54,915,376 74
SURPLUS by Company's Standard		$6,448,027 87
SURPLUS by State Reports will exceed		7,250,000 00
Ratio of expenses of management to receipts in 1893		9.90 per cent.
Policies in force Dec. 31, 1893, 65,701		
Insuring		$156,904,498 00

JACOB L. GREENE, President.
JOHN M. TAYLOR, Vice-President.
EDWARD M. BUNCE, Secretary.
DANIEL H. WELLS, Actuary.

PHILIP S. MILLER, General Agent,
1 Wall Street, corner Broadway,
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New England Mutual LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY.

POST-OFFICE SQUARE, BOSTON, MASS.

STATEMENT OF BUSINESS FOR 1893.			
Net Ledger Assets, January 1, 1893			$21,730,030 64
RECEIPTS			
For Premiums	$3,048,004 83		
For Interest, Rents, and Profit and Loss	1,118,166 24		
	$4,166,171 07		
Less Taxes	53,683 06	4,112,488 01	
			$25,842,518 65
DISBURSEMENTS.			
Death Claims	$1,456,948 00		
Matured and Discounted Endowments	254,490 00		
Cancelled and Surrendered Policies	526,373 91		
Distribution of Surplus	668,976 30		
Total paid to Policy-holders	$2,906,788 21		
Amount paid for Commissions to Agents, Salaries, Medical Fees, Advertising, Printing, Stationery, and all other incidental expenses at the Home Office and at the Agencies	535,932 31		
Amount paid for Accrued Interest on Investments purchased during the year	14,933 61	3,457,654 13	
Net Ledger Assets, Dec. 31, 1893		22,384,864 52	
Market Value of Securities over Ledger Cost	390,975 84		
Interest and Rents accrued Dec. 31, 1893	251,342 05		
Net Premiums in course of collection	176,980 17	819,298 06	
Gross Assets, Dec. 31, 1893			$23,204,162 58
LIABILITIES.			
Reserve at Massachusetts Standard, 4 per cent.	21,244,871 21		
Balance of Distributions unpaid	112,749 14		
Death and Endowment Claims approved	179,907 00	21,537,527 35	
			$1,666,635 23

Every Policy has indorsed thereon the cash surrender and paid-up insurance values to which the insured is entitled by the Massachusetts Statute—LIFE RATE ENDOWMENT Policies are issued at the old life rate premium—ANNUAL CASH distributions are paid upon ALL Policies.

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ALFRED D. FOSTER, Vice President.
S. F. TRULL, Secretary.
WM. B. TURNER, Asst. Secretary.

Office of the H-O (Hornby's Oatmeal) Company,

71 Park Place, New York City.

The following are the By-Laws of the above-named Company regulating the election of Directors and Officers:

ARTICLE I.—DIRECTORS.

Section 1. The number of Directors of this Company shall be five, all of whom shall be elected, by ballot, by the stockholders who shall attend in person or by proxy at the annual meeting of the Company, and each Director shall be elected to serve for the term of one year.

Section 2. Vacancies in the Board of Directors occurring during the year shall be filled by a majority vote of the remaining members of the Board at any regular meeting of the Board or at any special meeting called for the purpose of filling such vacancy.

ARTICLE II.—OFFICERS.

Section 1. The Board of Directors, immediately after each annual meeting, shall elect, by ballot, the officers of the Company for the ensuing year, and a majority vote of the whole number of directors shall be necessary for the election of each of said officers.

Section 4. In the absence or incapacity of the President and Vice President, the Board of Directors may elect one of their number to act as President *pro tempore*, who, during such absence or incapacity to act, shall have the powers of the President.

Section 7. Vacancies among the officers of the Company during the year may be filled by a majority vote of the directors at any regular meeting of the board, or at any special meeting called for the purpose of filling such vacancy, of which at least five days notice by mail shall be given.

ARTICLE III.—MEETINGS.

Section 1. The annual meeting of the Company for the election of directors shall be held at the office of the company on the first Monday in April of each year, at twelve o'clock, noon, and the Secretary shall send through the post-office, at least ten days before such meeting, a notice thereof, addressed to each stock holder at his last known post-office address. Should said first Monday be a legal holiday, then such meeting shall be held on the next business day at the same hour.

ARTICLE IV.—INSPECTORS OF ELECTION.

Section 1.—Two Inspectors of election shall be chosen at each annual meeting of the Company to serve for one year, and if any inspector shall refuse to serve or shall not be present at the time of election, the meeting may appoint an inspector in his place. For the first year of the Company's business, such inspectors shall be appointed by the Board of Directors.

Dated NEW YORK, February 17th, 1894.

ALFRED E. ROSE, President.
GEORGE C. WITTPEN, Secretary.

34TH ANNUAL STATEMENT

EQUITABLE LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY

OF THE UNITED STATES,

FOR THE YEAR ENDING DECEMBER 31st, 1893.

ASSETS.

Bonds and Mortgages	$22,808,916 74
Real Estate, including the Equitable Buildings and purchases under foreclosure of mortgages	23,928,724 53
United States Stocks, State Stocks, City Stocks, and other investments	89,253,593 42
Loans secured by Bonds and Stocks (Market value $9,449,241)	6,934,463 33
Real Estate outside the State of New York, including purchases under foreclosure	14,396,857 64
Cash in Bank and in transit (since received and invested)	5,294,463 13
Interest and Rents due and accrued, Deferred Premiums, and other Securities	6,439,378 11
Total Assets December 31, 1893	**$169,056,396 90**

LIABILITIES.

Reserve on all existing Policies (4 per cent. Standard), and all other liabilities	**$136,689,646 57**
Total Undivided Surplus (4 per cent. Standard), including special reserve of $2,500,000 towards establishment of a 3½ per cent. valuation	**32,366,750 33**
	$169,056,396 90

INCOME.

Premiums	$35,537,369 59
Interest, Rents, etc	6,485,235 96
	$42,022,605 55

DISBURSEMENTS.

Claims by Death and Matured Endowments	$10,761,402 80
Dividends, Surrender Values, Annuities and Discounted Endowments	6,888,912 63
Total Paid Policy-Holders	**$17,650,315 43**
Commissions, Advertising, Postage, and Exchange.	4,615,745 29
General Expenses, State, County, and City Taxes.	3,089,438 08
	$25,355,498 80
New Assurance written in 1893	**$205,280,227 00**
Total Outstanding Assurance	**932,532,577 00**

HENRY B. HYDE, President.
JAMES W. ALEXANDER, V.-P.

OFFICE OF THE

Atlantic Mutual

INSURANCE COMPANY,

NEW YORK, January 22d, 1894.

The Trustees, in conformity with the Charter of the Company, submit the following Statement of its affairs on the 31st of December, 1893.

Premiums on Marine Risks from 1st January, 1893, to 31st December, 1893.	$3,193,868 16
Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1893	1,403,200 31
Total Marine Premiums	$4,597,068 47
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1893, to 31st December, 1893	$3,490,552 70
Losses paid during the same period	$1,892,970 00
Returns of Premiums and Expenses	$711,138 89

The Company has the following assets, viz.:

United States and City of New York Stock: City Banks and other Stocks	$7,993,455 00
Loans secured by Stocks and otherwise	1,652,000 00
Real Estate and Claims due the Company, estimated at	1,086,828 74
Premium Notes and Bills Receivable	1,117,174 29
Cash in Bank	205,600 46
Amount	$12,055,058 49

Six per cent. interest on the outstanding certificates of profit will be paid to the holders thereof or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the sixth of February next.

The outstanding certificates of the issue of 1889 will be redeemed and paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the sixth of February next, from which date all interest thereon will cease. The certificates to be produced at the time of payment, and cancelled.

A dividend of FORTY PER CENT. is declared on the net earned premiums of the Company for the year ending 31st December, 1893, for which certificates will be issued on and after Tuesday, the first of May next.

By order of the Board,
J. H. CHAPMAN, Secretary.

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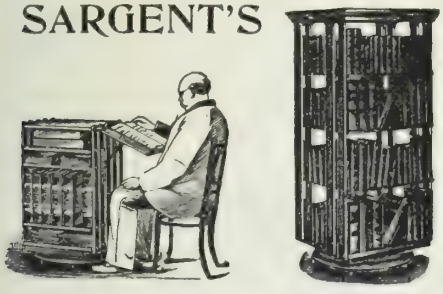

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 1, 1894.

The Week.

THE attorney-general's opinion, officially rendered to Secretary Carlisle, that silver certificates are mere warehousing receipts, and not "lawful money," knocks the bottom completely out of Mr. Bland's proposed seigniorage certificates, which are to represent an imaginary gain where in fact there has been a loss to the Treasury. A silver certificate says: "This certifies that there have been deposited in the Treasury of the United States —— silver dollars, payable to the bearer on demand." Now what kind of inscription would he put upon one of Mr. Bland's seigniorage certificates? No silver dollars have been deposited in the Treasury to correspond with them. The bullion bought by the Government under the Sherman act is not worth as much as it cost by 25 per cent. The bullion in the silver dollar is worth only 50 cents. If the Treasury stock were offered for sale, the price would probably fall 25 per cent. more. Now seigniorage represents a gain to the Government over and above the value of the coin produced, and always takes the form of coin. It cannot have any other form. Thus, under the Bland-Allison act the Government bought, say, 100,000 ounces of silver bullion at one dollar per ounce and coined $129,000 out of it. The extra $29,000 was seigniorage, but it existed in a tangible form, and the public bought those dollars and paid gold for them, dollar for dollar, then redeposited them and took silver certificates. Mr. Bland's seigniorage certificates can never "materialize." If his bill should pass, they would be only a shadow of a shade. It does not seem likely that his bill will pass.

The slough of despond into which the Democratic majority of the House has fallen on the question of getting a quorum affords much comfort to ex-Speaker Reed and his friends. They gleefully predict that the Democrats will yet have to come to the method of "counting" a quorum. Many Democrats are said privately to admit the likelihood of this. But a party cannot get along even by the method of counting a quorum unless it can keep a quorum of its own members on hand. The Republicans now sit contemptuously silent in their places, but if they were in danger of being counted to make a quorum, they could easily stop that and compel the Democrats to muster a quorum of their own, by absenting themselves from the hall. The Democrats did that under the Reed rules. Who does not recall the campaign document of 1890, consisting of a picture of the empty Democratic benches? The Republicans passed their laws, not by dint of counting a quorum, but by dint of having a quorum of their own present to vote. The Democrats would be no better off under Reed rules than they are now, if they could not get a voting majority of their own party into the House. Under any rules the thing comes down to getting a majority to vote before it can pass a law.

Mr. Hewitt accounted for the boldness of his remarks at the Southern Society's banquet on Thursday night by saying that he could no longer be suspected of political ambition. That was one of the most biting things he said. Fearless utterance of the truth has become a lost art with the truckling and time-serving breed of politicians, who are most offensive precisely because they dare not run the risk of offending anybody. If abandoning all political hope is the secret of courage like Mr. Hewitt's, a society ought at once to be formed on that principle for the unlocking of honest men's mouths. Then from others than the ex-Mayor we might hope to get that thrill of civic pride which comes from hearing ignoble men and measures nobly denounced. Mr. Hewitt branded Senator Hill full on the forehead as "a mere petty politician, without statesmanship, without breadth or power of intellect, without character, without the right to speak for the great State of New York." The Southern men at the banquet could find no satisfactory answer to his charge that the public men of the South to-day are degenerate successors of Benton and Calhoun, nor can the Southern Congressmen in Washington. His description of Mr. Bland's latest folly as an attempt "to coin a vacuum," or rather "a negative quantity on the other side of the vacuum," was as truthful as was his assertion that the Southern support of such madness is due to "ignorance, crass ignorance." Mr. Hewitt has shown once more that he does not need to hold public office in order to render a great public service.

Mr. Hewitt's frank and searching remarks have created unpleasant emotions among their subjects at Washington, and the chief sufferers by them are declaring, with what he aptly styled that "ignorance which goes forward with the dangerous strength of its own convictions," that he is in his "dotage." One of them says that Mr. Hewitt has "joined that gang in the East who are trying to put their hands into other people's pockets, to rob the people of the West and South." Hitherto the contention of these champions of the people of the West and South has been that their pockets were empty, and that what the champions were in search of were means whereby some of the money of the gold-bugs of the East could be deflected into them. You cannot rob a vacuum any more than you can "coin a vacuum." Neither can you borrow money from a man whom you call offensive names. There are men in the West and South who are able to comprehend these fundamental truths of the business and financial relations of the South and West to the East, but only a few of them appear to get into Congress.

A correspondent asks what is the meaning of the word "coin" as used in the recent issue of United States bonds. There has been so much solemn fooling with this subject by Congress during the past twenty years that any one may be excused for doubts in relation to it. These bonds are issued under the act of July 14, 1870, which declares that they "shall be redeemable in coin of the present standard value, at the pleasure of the United States after ten years from the date of their issue, and bearing interest payable semi-annually in such coin at the rate of five per cent. per annum." The coin then recognized by law was both silver and gold at the coinage ratio of 16 to 1, but practically it was gold only, silver dollars having been expelled from circulation by the laws of 1834 and 1837. In 1873 Congress demonetized silver by forbidding the coinage of the standard dollar at the mint, and by limiting the legal tender of other silver coins to five dollars in one payment. In 1878 Congress, by the Bland-Allison act, restored the silver dollar to the list of legal-tender coins, but provided that silver should be coined only for the Government and in limited amounts monthly. In 1890 Congress repealed so much of the last-mentioned act as required the monthly purchase and coinage of silver bullion, and substituted in lieu thereof the purchase of certain amounts of silver bullion and the issue of legal-tender Treasury notes for the same, and declared that it was the established policy of the United States to maintain the two metals at a parity with each other. In 1893 Congress repealed the purchasing and issuing clauses of the last-mentioned act.

The result of all this is that the new bonds are payable, principal and interest, in silver dollars or gold dollars, at the option of the Government, but that this option is of no consequence, since the duty of keeping the two kinds of dollars

at par with each other is incumbent on the secretary of the treasury, and since the means are placed in his hands for doing so. The very bonds in question were issued for this purpose. This is no hardship for the Government, since it has received the value of 100 cents gold for all the silver certificates and silver dollars outstanding. It was enabled to exact this price by virtue of the limitation placed upon coinage and issue, private individuals not being allowed to take silver to the mint and have it coined for their own use, as they might and still may do with gold. All apprehensions may, therefore, be dismissed regarding the coin in which the bonds are payable, unless it is feared that the United States may repudiate some part of its debts. It should be remarked that all the outstanding bonds (except the Pacific Railroad currency 6s) were issued under the same act of Congress as the new 5s, and are subject to the same interpretation. The Government paid its maturing debts, principal and interest, in gold coin, even during the darkest hours of the war, unless they were specifically payable in some other kind of money. A dollar of Government debt not specially described always meant a gold dollar at the Treasury counter. Amid much folly and some dishonesty this precious heritage has come down to us, and nobody now living will ever see it violated.

The many men of many minds who make up the Senate committee on foreign relations have turned in their several and conflicting reports on the Hawaiian affair, apparently in the amiable desire to please all tastes and fancies. Chairman Morgan, for so ardent a swashbuckler, is singularly moderate. A year ago he was enthusiastic for annexation and loud in praise of Harrison and Stevens. He still thinks those two gentlemen were wise and patriotic and constitutional in all they did, but he thinks, as well, that the flat reversal of their policy by President Cleveland and Minister Blount was also wise and patriotic and constitutional. They are all honorable men, in fact, according to him, except the Queen, upon whom he is very severe as "the author and promoter of a revolution in Hawaii." Why the revolution went on after she had "postponed her determination" to have one, is not very clearly explained by Senator Morgan. The sceptical, however, will see some light thrown upon this mystery by the extracts published from Mr. Blount's testimony before the committee. He told of being approached two years ago by Thurston, when he (Blount) was chairman of the House committee on foreign affairs, to find out whether the Democratic party could be brought to favor the annexation of Hawaii. Even more significant was Secretary Foster's going to him with Stevens's famous letter of November 20, 1892, heralding the "golden hour near at hand," with the request that Mr Blount would try to bring his party to support the scheme of annexation. After this, the virtuous surprise of Secretary Foster, three months later, at the "unexpected" revolution and intrigue for annexation was about as fine a bit of comic acting as the annals of the stage can show any Presbyterian elder ever to have achieved.

What the *Tribune* has certified to be "the prosperous republic" of Hawaii, would appear from its own Honolulu correspondence of Thursday to be neither prospero us nor a republic. President Dole is said to recognize the fact that the provisional government has "outlived its usefulness," and to be engaged in drafting a constitution. What this is to be is explained more fully in the *Sun's* correspondence, where we read that there is certain to be a denial of universal suffrage in the election of "the members of the upper house and of the general Government." "This may not seem republican," says the correspondent gravely, but then we ought to remember, he adds, that "a republic in the full acceptation of the term is no more practicable in Hawaii than it is in India." In addition to these troubles relating to the form of government, there is a tremendous row going on already about "the offices." A great many patriotic Americans are on the spot, some of them late arrivals, who view with deep disgust the action of the oligarchs in keeping all the offices for themselves and their friends, and who are clamoring for some more representative government—in other words, one which will give them a good place on the pay-roll. They very properly call themselves the American League, and their ranks are said to be recruited every steamer by patriots out of a job in this country. They are united and determined, they are right up to date in the methods of American politics, and are bound to make the old-fogy members of the provisional government divide the spoils with them or quit their fooling altogether. On top of all this there is a burning Chinese question, a Japanese question still hotter, and a Portuguese question fully as hot. Taking all the indications together, it is clear that the era of theatric government in Hawaii is rapidly drawing to a close, and that the revolution must either go forwards or backwards. It cannot stick half-way down the slope much longer.

Full returns of the recent election in Pennsylvania show that Grow's majority for Congressman-at-large closely approaches the phenomenal figures of Cleveland's majority over Folger for the Governorship of New York in 1882. The Democratic candidate in this State twelve years ago received 192,854 more votes than his opponent, while the lead of the Republican candidate in Pennsylvania last week was 187,819. There was a falling off of about one-fifth in the total vote from the figures of the corresponding election for Congressman-at-large in 1892, but the Republican vote is well up towards the record then made. The showing for the two parties is as follows:

	Rep.	Dem.	Rep. maj.
1892.....	512,557	448,714	63,843
1894.....	486,028	298,209	187,819

Everything indicates that many thousands of Democrats are so much disgusted with the record of their party to date that they went to the polls and voted for the Republican candidate, while many thousands more refrained from voting altogether.

Senator Hill makes known the fact that he does not desire or intend to run for Governor of New York this fall, as rumor has been saying he did, and that he expects to see Gov. Flower renominated. It would be a very poor year for Mr. Hill to run, since there would be nothing for him to "trade off" in return for Republican votes. Then, too, the Maynard incident and the rejection of Messrs. Hornblower and Peckham are still fresh in the public mind. If, under these conditions, Mr. Hill were to seek an expression of popular opinion upon himself as a statesman, he might get one very similar to that which his friend Maynard received. His withdrawal is a sad blow to Republican hopes, for it deprives them of the weakest opposing candidate that they could expect to have. They will need to have a very weak candidate against them if Platt's leadership is continued till the next campaign, as now seems inevitable. He has succeeded already in greatly damaging the brightest prospect his party has had for a quarter of a century; and instead of having a "sure thing" of this State in the next election, which everybody thought it had after the last election, it has merely a fighting chance, dependent entirely upon the factional quarrel in the Democratic ranks.

A curious illustration of the ignorant comment often made upon public affairs is found in these remarks by a Republican organ in New Hampshire, the Manchester *Mirror*:

"It is a parody upon justice when John Y. McKane is sent to the penitentiary for election frauds, and the man in whose interest these frauds were perpetrated and whose success was accomplished by them acts as President of the republic. Cleveland should pardon McKane at once and appoint him to an honorable office, or resign."

These frauds were really committed in

the interest, not of President Cleveland in the election of 1892, but of the Democratic candidates last fall for judge of the Supreme Court in the district containing Gravesend, and for judge of the Court of Appeals, both of whom were defeated by great majorities. The suggestion that Cleveland should appoint McKane to an honorable office recalls the fact that Harrison did appoint McKane's man to the office of United States marshal, whose duty it was to supervise the administration of the federal election laws for the prevention of election frauds! McKane turned the Democratic majority of 372 in Gravesend in 1884 into a majority of 436 for Harrison in 1888.

The bill incorporating the "Provident Loan Society of New York," which has been introduced at Albany, ought to become a law without opposition. Its object is to empower some of our most charitably-minded and public-spirited citizens, including Mr. Hewitt, Mr. Fairchild, the Rev. Dr. Greer, Mr. John S. Kennedy, Mr. William E. Dodge, Mr. Charles S. Smith, and Mr. Seth Low, to establish pawnbroking agencies for the benefit of the poor. The object is to give loans on the most reasonable terms possible to persons in distress who may be vouched for as worthy to receive such aid. The business will be conducted on humane principles, and money will be lent on the most generous terms consistent with business considerations, and in such ways as to encourage repayment and redemption of the personal property pledged. Payments will be allowed in instalments, and in various ways the society will endeavor to aid deserving people who are in distress through sickness or enforced idleness, to tide over the period of temporary misfortune with the least possible permanent loss and with entire self-respect. It would be difficult to conceive of a more deserving form of genuinely helpful charity than this is, and we presume that there will be no opposition to it among the members of the Legislature.

"This is a very religious community," wrote a traveller in the remote West to his friends some fifty years ago; "the people carefully observe the scriptural injunction which says, 'Let God be true, but every man a liar.'" This scriptural injunction must have been in the mind of the writer of a report on the Wilson tariff bill for the Portland (Ore.) Chamber of Commerce, which begins as follows:

"The Wilson Bill.—The so-called Wilson bill, more nearly a free-trade measure than has been the law of the land for more than forty years, has already passed the House of Representatives. The only chance of defeating it is in the United States Senate. It not only strikes at nearly every mining and manufacturing interest, especially in the Northern States, but it absolutely sounds the death knell to several interests in which the State of Oregon is deeply interested."

Forty years! That term, of course, includes the Morrill tariff of 1861 and the tariff of 1857. As the report of this romancer goes on to describe the approaching death of the wool industry in Oregon, we will compare the Wilson bill with those tariffs as to wool and woollens:

	1857.	1861.	Wilson bill.
Wool	virtually free	3c. per lb.	1c.
Blankets	15%	6c. & 25	25
Flannels	19%	25	35
Carpets	24%	30	30

There was no duty on coal in the tariff of 1857. There was no duty on iron ore or on copper or copper ore in the tariff of 1857 or in that of 1861. In fact, the Wilson bill is, on the whole, more protective than the later Morrill tariffs of 1862 and 1864, if we take into account the internal taxes on manufactures which then existed but have since been repealed.

Much of the football furore, both in the colleges and among the public, has been due to the popular passion for *excess*, which the newspapers all cultivate, and which most instructors of youth do little or nothing to repress. A disposition to "hysterical excitement" is, in fact, in many quarters cultivated as a peculiarly American and very valuable quality. President Eliot of Harvard, in his annual report, says of athletic sports in colleges, when "exaggerated":

"They induce in masses of spectators at interesting games an hysterical excitement which too many Americans enjoy, but which is evidence, not of physical strength and depth of passion, but of feebleness and shallowness."

This is lamentably true. The typical "good American" of the newspapers and public dinners is nearly always in a state bordering on frenzy about everything which interests him, and he cultivates this tendency as a sign of something new and great in the moral and intellectual world; the fact being, as President Eliot points out, that it is a sign of weakness, and, he might have added, of barbarism. The savage is the most excitable of men, and he cools down as he becomes more civilized and faces life with more and more composure. After a football match, the victors, far from seeking to display a modest stillness and humility, a manly Greek horror of excess, seek to indulge in every form of extravagant rejoicing—yelling, howling, jumping, drinking, singing, and dancing, till the college yard resembles an Indian village after a successful raid. In some colleges these saturnalia are encouraged and even promoted by the faculty. They come out on balconies and rejoice to see their students converted into an uproarious mob. They even furnish wood for the bonfire. The man who displays least self-control is the hero of the hour, the most thoroughly "American" of the crowd.

The effect of this sort of training on our politics is very unfortunate, and particularly in our foreign relations. It makes all rational—much less, informed—discussion of foreign complications very difficult, and in some cases impossible. The minute a difference arises with a foreign power, "the good American" falls to jumping, howling, singing and dancing, and waving the flag, and thinks it disgraceful or unmanly to reflect upon the matter, or see what the law is. This is often true of college graduates; it is doubly true of plain people all over the country. They feel that their first duty to their country is to keep alive a state of excitability and unreasonableness, and they suspect those who advise calm and consideration, of secretly plotting against their peace and dignity. But the really great things of the world have been done by self-contained peoples who kept their emotions within bounds. The Greeks, the Romans, the English, and now the Germans, are all peoples who have had the great art of keeping cool, and who have made the greatest figure in civilization. The hysterical, the boastful, the noisy surely go to the wall in the great struggle of the nations. Moderation in all things ought to be taught in all our colleges, and the things which make for extravagance and violence and tomfoolery and the suppression of the reasoning faculty, to be discouraged.

New Zealand is trying to bring to justice a set of pious swindlers worthy to be named beside Jabez Balfour, whose extradition from Argentina has been so eagerly sought by his enraged victims in England, and apparently will be granted. The leading members of the New Zealand firm of Harper & Co. were two brothers, sons of the bishop of the colony, who were particularly devout churchmen and kept up great establishments where exclusive society and charity went hand in hand, and where aristocratic tourists from England were handsomely entertained and as handsomely let into "good things" for their money. The smash came last year, when the firm failed for $1,250,000, with $250,000 secured to favored creditors, and no other assets whatever. Among the unsecured creditors figure many well-known Englishmen, like the brother of Sir John Gorst, who is down in the schedules for $95,000, and the Right Hon. A. J. Balfour, for $45,000. The combination of high interest and eminent piety had proved too much for these credulous investors, and the million dollars which they turned over to the firm is now reported by the committee of creditors to be "absolutely lost." One of the bishop's sons has fled, and the indictment against the other is quashed. They may yet set up in London or New York and resume operations on a larger scale. Certainly the stock of the gullible in either city is by no means exhausted.

NO QUORUM.

THE state of affairs in the House of Representatives is this: A considerable number of members, under the leadership of Mr. Bland, desire, and have through all the month of February desired, to pass a bill. They constitute a majority of the members present. At every possible opportunity some member opposed to the bill raises a question of a quorum of the House being present. A count is thereupon ordered; less than a quorum answer to their names; a call of the House is ordered; the Speaker's warrant to arrest absentees is issued, and the sergeant-at arms, through his deputies, proceeds to hunt them up, in town and out of town, and arrest them and bring them to the bar of the House. When they are caught and brought in, they deny the legality of their arrest, or denounce it as an abuse, or give excuses, sometimes penitent and sometimes humorous. There may be then show of punishment in the temporary infliction of a fine, with the understanding that all fines will be remitted when the session ends. As a rule, an invariable rule, no one is ever punished. When a quorum is thus procured, the House resumes business. The business consists for a time in dilatory motions. Then there is another absence of members, another count, another call of the House, more arrests, more excuses; and so the thing goes on.

This state of affairs in the House of Representatives is not new. There has never been a Congress, so far as the memory of man runs, in which it has not occurred. It certainly has happened often, and it certainly will happen again. Tradition has preserved innumerable stories of the shifts of old stagers in avoiding arrest, in coining excuses, and the like. The experienced member, like a sensible man, does not spend the weary night in the fetid atmosphere of an ill-ventilated hall. Neither does he go to bed in his own house or hotel or lodgings, where the sergeant-at-arms can find him and ruthlessly order him to get up and dress and come out in the chilled night air and be laughed at when he is marched up to the Speaker's desk. He goes to some friend's house, or gets a friend to take a room at a hotel and register while he slips up and occupies the friend's room; he takes a train and goes to Baltimore, where he enjoys the hospitality of an inn, and the next day expresses his regrets to the House that he had been misinformed by the people of Baltimore, and led to believe that there were no return trains to Washington after sunset.

At the same time in the Legislature of New York there has been no such state of affairs, and, so far as the memory of man runs, there never has been. There may have been a call of the House to bring in members to vote for a bill, but never to vote against one. It is in the House of Representatives that the leader of a victorious column raises recruits for the enemy. Why this difference between the national and State legislatures? The members of the latter are not men of greater ability or wisdom than those of the former. They are certainly men of much less legislative experience, and consequently are more under the control of their party leaders. Why is it that in one legislative body there is this frequently recurring condition of affairs, and that in the other it never exists?

The reason is that, in the State of New York, laws can be enacted only by the majority; but in Congress we are subjected to what may be termed the legislation of the minority. There are 128 members in our Assembly, and it requires the votes of 65 to pass a bill; in the House of Representatives a bill may be passed not only by a minority, but actually by one-fourth of the members of the House plus one. For simplicity of illustration, let it be assumed that the House consists of 200 members. Of these, 101 will constitute a quorum, and 51 will be a majority of the quorum and sufficient to enact the most important, the most far-reaching, the most injurious statute that partisanship or folly could have framed.

The principle of the Constitution, a principle which we have all been taught to respect, is undoubtedly that the majority shall rule; but a minor provision, in what might be called a code of procedure for the practical working of Congress, unfortunately contains a brief provision which enables a minority to rule. The fifth section of Article I. says: "Each House shall be the Judge of the Elections, Returns and Qualifications of its own Members, and a Majority of each shall constitute a Quorum to do Business; but a smaller Number may adjourn from day to day," etc., etc. It will be observed that the Constitution does not say that the majority of a quorum may enact laws, but that undoubtedly follows from general usage and parliamentary law. It is singular that in the Convention the drift of discussion was the other way. Mr. Gorham "contended that less than a majority in each house should be made a quorum, otherwise great delay might happen in business." Mr. Mercer "was also for less than the majority"; "he was for leaving it to the Legislature to fix the quorum, as in Great Britain, where the requisite number is small and no inconvenience has been experienced." Mr. Gouverneur Morris moved to fix the quorum at thirty-three members in the House and fourteen in the Senate. Mr. Gerry "seemed to think that some further precaution than merely fixing the quorum might be necessary"; "he proposed that the number for a quorum in the House of Representatives should not exceed fifty, nor be less than thirty-three." At that time the prospective numbers of the two houses were in the Senate twenty-six and in the House sixty-five. The fear of not having members enough to do business was a case of well-founded apprehension. The first Congress had to wait from the 4th of March to the 28th of April before a quorum appeared. The fear of legislation by a minority did not disturb the Convention.

It cannot be denied that the case is involved in those moral perplexities which confuse men's minds and leave the less scrupulous of them free to do that which will best serve their own side. One party is trying to accomplish something according to the forms prescribed by the Constitution, and the other is trying to maintain the general principle of the Constitution that this something must be accomplished by a majority of the House and not by a minority. It is not really a case of minority against majority, but of minority against minority. On one occasion Mr. Bland secured 164 votes in favor of the bill, yet could not pass it. If he could have brought in fifteen members to vote *against* it, it would have passed.

This is certainly an anomalous state of affairs where the opponents of a measure can be coerced into assisting to pass it. No men ever have been or ever will be willing to be used by their opponents; and men who resist such attempts generally feel that they have right on their side, and resort to all manner of technicalities or subterfuges to escape bearing a burden which they believe should not be placed on their backs. If Mr. Bland could secure 179 persons to draw his silver-car through the House, there would be speeches and votes against its triumphal progress, but no factious opposition. The good sense, the reasonableness of the American mind would say, "In this country the majority rules, and the minority, having done its best, gives way." But Mr. Bland's 164 men are not able to drag the car through the House; it sticks there, and so he sends out and brings in fifteen men who are opposed to the progress of the car, and who, if left to themselves, would hold it back; and he harnesses them to it and bids them pull as effectively as his own followers. This they will not do. They balk, and as soon as the sergeant-at-arms takes his hand off their shoulders they run away again. They feel doubly bound to do this, partly because they are opposed to the car being wheeled over to the Senate, and partly because it is a matter of honor with them not to be placed in a false position—that is, in a position where, when voting "no," they may be suspected of covertly voting "aye." If fifteen New York members, for instance, were secretly in favor of the bill, they might go in and vote "no" in order to satisfy

their constituents, knowing perfectly well all the while that those fifteen votes in the negative would be just as effective to pass the bill as if they had been changed to the affirmative. No man likes to be placed in a position where his acts and motives are suspected; and in many minds the obligation to pay a debt is greater when it is a debt of honor than when there is a bond in the case. Certain it is, that one minority cannot command the respect of the other minority, and that minority legislation will always be the parent of "obstructive tactics," or "anarchy," or whatever we choose to call it, such as we have seen during the present month.

The evil will require a constitutional amendment to cure it. Such an amendment will be opposed by the men in Congress who have bills to pass, and especially by those who have bills to pass during the short session and in the last days of the session. But such an amendment would stifle many an unworthy job, and would make the country tolerably secure, and would prevent the enormous waste of legislative time which we have seen and shall see again, and would secure the majority of the people against legislation by the minority. One part of the legislative machinery of the general government is defective. It has creaked and rattled and got out of gear, and stopped the movement of the machine often before, and must again. It is always thus with a defective part. The creaking and rattling and obstructing must necessarily recur until the defect be remedied. The plan of counting a quorum, and the plan of fining a member, and all other plans will fail. Men will not be coerced into supporting a measure to which they are opposed. If measures of such importance as will arouse such opposition are to be passed, let them be by a majority of our Representatives and Senators in Congress.

NEO-BIMETALLISM AT BOSTON.

THERE are two distinct novelties in the letter on the above subject from Gen. Francis A. Walker which appeared in Saturday's *Evening Post*. The first new thing we discover is, that bimetallism does not demand the concurrent circulation of the two metals, but is satisfied with an alternate circulation, *i. e.*, with two kinds of monometallism, as was the case in France from 1803 to 1873. The second new thing is, that the neo-bimetallism of Boston is designed to quiet "the feelings of wrong and anger in the West and South so unpleasantly manifest of late years."

It quite takes our breath away to learn that concurrent circulation of the two metals is not an essential feature of bimetallism. We have been attentive observers of the controversy as it has taken place in three international conferences, as well as in Congress and on the hustings *passim*, and we affirm that without such concurrent circulation bimetallism has no popular standing whatever, if indeed it has any other kind of standing. Possibly some people have cherished in their bosoms the idea of an alternate standard as an advantageous thing for the world. We know that Jevons once had such an idea, although his last word on the subject of bimetallism was decidedly adverse to it, either nationally or internationally, as was also the last word of Bagehot. Gen. Walker was himself a member of one of the international conferences referred to, but neither he nor any other member of it alluded to an alternate standard as a desirable thing, so far as the official report informs us.

Now, a word about the West and South. It is a matter of record that the West and South, considered as one group, voted in the House of Representatives for the silver-repeal bill. If no votes at all had been cast by any State north of Maryland or east of Ohio, the repeal bill would still have been passed by more than twenty majority. Neither the West nor the South (nor the East for that matter) makes nice distinctions on this subject. To the great mass of the people the silver question has but one complexion. Only here and there can a person be found who knows what you mean when you talk about a ratio of coinage. Even college graduates who have not given special attention to the subject are puzzled to know the difference between a concurrent circulation and an alternate circulation. "What is the meaning of all this talk about 16 to 1?" said a member of the University Club to a group of his fellow-clubmen one perspiring day last summer when Congress was all ablaze with the subject. Only one member of the group was able to tell him. Very likely this man could tell the difference between ohms, volts, and amperes in electrical science, while the one member of the group who did know what was meant by 16 to 1 did not know and perhaps could not be made to know the difference between those electrical terms. Hence we must not absolutely condemn persons who consider the silver question all one thing and do not divide it up nicely as Gen. Walker does.

The point of all this is, that when Gen. Walker presents the West and South to us as a region to be soothed, he overlooks the fact that they have already had their own way as to the only silver question that the vast majority of them now understand, or ever can understand. Moreover, the organs of public opinion thereaway which were most influential in bringing about the change in their Congressional vote, took decided ground against the alternate standard which Gen. Walker favors. It was precisely because of the danger of slipping to the silver standard that the Chicago *Tribune* insisted, day after day and week after week on the repeal of the Sherman act. So it was with most of the newspapers West and South which favored the repeal, and so it will be now if Gen. Walker brings to their attention a plan for getting on to the silver standard and taking the chances of getting back to the gold standard at some future time. The idea was well expressed by ex-Speaker Reed in a debate with Bland, when he said that what he objected to was not having the double standard, but getting on to the silver standard by inadvertence. Gen. Walker thinks that the West and South will be charmed with the prospect of an increasing supply of money. How such increase is to be had with a system which gives us gold at one time and silver at another, according to the old French model, he does not show. The only present danger as regards the West and South is, that Gen. Walker and his following may persuade them that they have a grievance which they would not otherwise be aware of.

POLITICAL ECONOMY AND THE PEOPLE.

THE fifth part of Palgrave's 'Dictionary of Political Economy' contains, under the head of "Definitions," the following very just observation:

> "It must not be forgotten that the practical usefulness of political economy depends chiefly on its wide diffusion; so that the formation of an economic language understood only by the specialist is highly undesirable. For the promotion of the material welfare of a people few things can be more useful than patient inquiry into the actual meaning of terms like wealth, income, capital, rent, wages, and profits, when used in common language by ordinary people. As soon as ambiguities and inconsistencies are commonly perceived, language may be trusted to find some way of ridding itself of them without the assistance of formal definitions."

This is the deliverance of Mr. Cannan of Balliol College, Oxford, and a very good deliverance it is. It leads us to ask what usefulness political enonomy can have except "practical usefulness." What end can it serve in our day, except that of sharpening the wits of its professors, unless it has wide diffusion among the people and is accepted by them as authoritative teaching? And as a mere sharpener of the wits, in what way is it superior to the schoolmen's philosophy?

In the same number of the "Dictionary" we turn to the economist's new mode of measuring economic quantities —quantities of utility, of desire, enjoyment, price, hire, and so on—and we find this from the Rev. P. H. Wicksteed:

> "When the elements of the theory of dimensions have been thoroughly grasped, it will be easy to apply it to economic questions; and it will be found an invaluable check in the more intricate problems of coördination and analysis. Thus, if the unit of value-in-use or utility be taken as fundamental and regarded as having the dimension U, and if the commodity we are considering be taken as having the dimension Q, then DEGREE OF UTILITY (q. v.) of the commodity, being the rate at which satisfaction is secured per

unit of *commodity* consumed, will have dimensions UQ^{-1}, and will be readily distinguished from rate of enjoyment accruing to the consumer per unit of *time*, with dimensions UT^{-1}. *Price* determined by *marginal* or final DEGREE OF UTILITY (q. v.) will have dimensions UQ^{-1} or P, and *hire*, being price per unit of time, will obviously have dimensions PT^{-1} or $UQ^{-1}T^{-1}$."

We need hardly say that there is very little chance of hire, or price, or satisfaction in consumption, or value-in-use being popularly ascertained in any such way as this. Unhappily, there is still less chance of conclusions reached by such processes as this being generally accepted by the people. And yet the tendency in nearly all the colleges and among all the various schools is to study political economy in this way, by mathematical processes, and to clothe its simplest facts in ingenious definitions, and in truth, as far as possible, to give it the air of a recondite science. The consequence is that we fear its "practical usefulness" is fast disappearing. As long as the people, in these days of democracy, care nothing about it, and do not even pretend to follow its discussions, it can hardly have any more human interest than speculations on the politics of Saturn. It is pleasant to see that so many of our young men are getting good mental exercise out of it, but its influence on human affairs is likely to prove *nil*.

For the discovery of an ethical law of distribution all the younger economists are now supposed to be working eagerly, with diagrams, symbols, tables, and all the other tools of their trade. Its revelation would be worth any money to the civilized world. For, as Mr. J. B. Clark of Smith College, Northampton, informs us in the Dictionary:

"Among a self-asserting people industry loses fruitfulness whenever the belief is widely diffused that products are shared according to an unjust principle. If it were a general conviction that social evolution is in the direction of iniquity—that distribution already robs the workers and will rob them more hereafter—no force could prevent a violent overturning of the social order."

Now, what the economists are contributing to the sum of popular beliefs is, we fear, "the belief that products *are* shared according to an unjust principle." What the "just principle" is they promise to tell us by and by, but decline to state how it is to be discovered. "Ethical science," says Mr. Clark, "has not furnished a clear standard of justice in the double apportionment." We must take leave to doubt whether it is ever likely to do so, and whether any "law" of distribution which the economists bring to light will ever be accepted by the multitude. The rule of distribution which the world has hitherto followed is to pay every man the sum necessary to secure his services—the capitalist what would induce him to invest, the superintendent what would induce him to superintend, and the laborer what would induce him to labor. This is as near as the human race has been able to come to giving people their deserts, and is apparently as near as it can come without the direct interposition of a divine ruler. For no matter what rule "ethical science" (that is, the speculations of a few philosophers) may furnish, the difficulty of forcing men to live up to it will still remain. We shall have to compel capitalists to save and invest, and inventors to invent, and captains of industry to plot and plan, and laborers to work contentedly for less than they think they ought to have. The most hopeful reformer the world has seen has never yet said that he would be able to content everybody. Consequently, besides all our other devisings, we must devise a plan for making everybody do his best against his will.

PROTECTION AND DESPOTISM.

SENATOR HAWLEY interposed in the Senate debate last week to object to haste in passing the tariff bill. He did not believe that the business interests of the country would adjust themselves to the Wilson bill, and intimated that there were thousands of people in his State whose "board and clothing and house-rent depended upon the wisdom of this bill." He affirmed that "to them there was something more important than haste, namely, a small homœopathic dose of justice and mercy."

The Connecticut Senator chose rather an unfortunate day to speak of the industries of his State as in a condition of suspended animation, inasmuch as, at the very time he was speaking, despatches were being sent from his own city, Hartford, and other Connecticut towns giving accounts of the opening of many closed mills. If such things can occur with the date and rates of the new tariff still uncertain, what a genuine business boom might reasonably be looked for with the tariff legislation actually disposed of, any business man could tell Senator Hawley. It is no doubt true that business is terribly hampered by the remaining uncertainties connected with the tariff law. As far as that goes, most business men would agree with Gen. Hawley; but very few of them would agree with him in saying that if the tariff bill were promptly passed as it is, it would be all up with them.

What is most striking in Senator Hawley's view, however, is his tacit admission that we in this country have practically gone over to the despotic theory of government. That is to say, we have come to confess that our prosperity and happiness depend not upon our own industry and enterprise and virtue, but upon the beneficence and wisdom of our rulers. Like so many cringing Orientals, the business men of this country, if Senator Hawley's description of them is correct, are prostrating themselves before the authorities at Washington, as before so many Moguls, Sultans, or Grand Viziers, and begging them to do for them what they can by no means do for themselves. "It is not by our machinery or invention or abundance of raw materials, O Vicegerents of Allah," they cry in chorus, "that we can manufacture and get gain, but only by gracious aid of your Serene Highnesses and Almightinesses." That is the language of slaves addressing a despot, yet it is practically the language which the freest people on earth have come to employ.

The hardiest would scarcely maintain that this attitude, whether wise and necessary now or not, is in keeping with the traditions and the early tendencies of our government. In the last number of the *Yale Review* we find some just and timely remarks, well worth quoting, on the great change that has taken place in the last few years in our ideas of "the relation between the Government and the people":

"We have been taught that the people themselves were primarily responsible for their own happiness or misery; and that while the Government could do something to help them, it could not take this primary responsibility off the shoulders of the freemen themselves. Of late this healthful sentiment has changed. The freeman's view of the functions of Government has given place to that of the serf. We are being taught by many speakers that wages depend not upon the efficiency of the laborer, but upon the action of Congress. We are given masses of special legislation to promote the happiness of all sorts of people; and we are by implication telling these people that, if they are not happy, it is the fault of Congress, and that the remedy is to be found in seating a different man in Congress, who will pass a different kind of law."

How vast this change is since Washington's time may be seen by reading the pleas he was forced to make for sufficient power for the federal Government to enable it decently to exist. In those days there was nothing the people dreaded more than over-government. The strongest argument against the Constitution of 1787 was that it opened the way for Congress to meddle intolerably with the liberty and the property of the individual citizen. What would those jealous freemen say to the spectacle presented by their descendants running to Congress year after year to ask for legislative control of their private business? Could they understand it in the slightest degree? We do not think they could unless they were familiar with the protective legislation of the last thirty years, which has gradually taught a whole generation to believe that it is the duty of Congress to have a fatherly care of every man's business, which, without it, will go speedily to ruin. We recognize the sincerity of many of our excited manufacturers in their delusions about the tariff, but delusions we are sure they are under, and will soon find out themselves. They are like men drowning in two feet of water and calling loudly for help, when all they need to do is to stand upon their own feet.

One of the greatest blessings of the passage of the Wilson bill will be that it will make our manufacturers thoroughly ashamed of their abject professions of helplessness without a tariff.

WOMEN AT THE UNIVERSITY OF PARIS.

NEW YORK, February 18, 1894.

PARIS is the paradise of students, and the University of Paris may be called the paradise *par excellence* of the woman student. It is open to her on precisely the same terms as to men. A diploma from a college, or from a proper preparatory school, or an examination at the university itself, is all that is necessary to admit her to an equal and acknowledged place among the thousands of other students, male and female, on its rolls. Indeed, if she is not studying for a degree, she need not present any testimonials of fitness at all, but may follow any course of lectures or as many courses as she may choose without any preliminaries whatever, and with no more trouble than finding out where the lecture-rooms are, and walking into them, entails. Scores of women, many of them elderly, some even very old, follow the courses in this way, making up, anonymously as it were, their lack of early training, and getting for themselves at least an idea of the higher education they hear so much about.

This is particularly the case at the Sorbonne proper (the original University) and the Collège de France, where the lectures on literature, languages, history, and the like are given. Here the women, both regularly matriculated *étudiantes* and the simple listeners above described, flock in such numbers that the more popular and "ornamental" courses, as, for instance, the History of French Literature in the Eighteenth Century, or "Le Romantisme français et allemand," or "L'Histoire de l'Art en Grèce," are sarcastically called by the angry male students who find themselves crowded out of the best seats, or out of the room altogether, *Cours des Dames*. Often it is the lecturer rather than the lecture that attracts. A brilliant, eloquent speaker, a striking or interesting personality, almost always gathers the women about him by the dozens. Even in such courses, however, as the lectures on Psychology of Professor Ribot (editor of the *Revue Philosophique*), women, old and young, form a large majority of the *assistance*. Many of them are, of course, earnest and capable students, but many others, especially the no longer young French women, are not, and the real "woman student" herself cannot but consider them queer characters for a classroom. Yet there is a pathos about these belated ones too: their presence expresses a need the opportunity to gratify which has come too late. It should also be added that they have their male counterparts to bear them company. The *bemoostes Haupt*, male as well as female, flourishes in these free Paris lectures, which any beggar from the streets may enter and enjoy if he will—and he sometimes does, of a cold or stormy winter day, for the *salles de lecture* are nicely warmed.

This loose and liberal management of the university lectures, though a great advantage, a blessing even, to many, as we have seen, is a very serious disadvantage from a scholarly point of view, for by admitting such a mass of unwinnowed mediocrity—it is not only the women who are referred to now—it lowers the whole standard of instruction. The lecturer who wishes to have his *salle* filled—and what lecturer does not?—is often led into popularizing and embellishing his "style" at the expense of his stuff. To a student coming, as the writer did, from a German to the Paris University this fact cannot fail to be strikingly apparent. There is less earnestness, less depth, less everything that is really worth hearing. Of course, there are profound scholars among these professors of the *cours publics de Paris*, men who have a great deal to teach, and who will not, in imparting it, water their intellectual stock with catching phrases and *jeux de mots* to tickle the general ear; but they are very apt to be left to dispense their unadorned learning to empty seats. An amusing experience related to the writer by the American woman who was the heroine of it is a good illustration of this:

She was a retiring little person, without any pretensions whatever to scholarly attainments and no ambition in that direction. Having chanced to hear, however, through a professor friend, a great deal about a certain distinguished Orientalist who lectured on the ancient Eastern languages at the university, she concluded to go once and hear, or rather see him. Overtaken by a storm one day in the vicinity of the Sorbonne, she bethought herself of this and resolved to improve the opportunity if perchance day and hour should coincide. As it happened they did, and after considerable searching she found the *salle* assigned to him—up two flights of rickety stairs in the oldest part of the old buildings. The room was dingy and very small, but there was a big stove in it, and close to the stove sat a dirty, bedraggled old woman who had evidently come in there to get warm. The only other person present was a fashionably dressed, frivolous Parisienne, whose motive could be only curiosity. The American woman sat down for politeness' sake on a front bench, and a moment later the famous Frenchman entered: an elegant little old man in full evening dress and pearl-colored kids, with the badge of an officer of the Legion of Honor in his buttonhole. He looked through his glasses at the shabby woman by the stove, at the dainty *boulevardière*, and—addressed his lecture to the quiet little American on the front bench. She, of course, followed him respectfully and as intelligently as she could, though his long citations from languages whose very names she did not know were all alike Sanskrit to her ears. When he was through, he addressed her directly in the most kindly and courteous manner, telling her how it touched his heart to find a student, and a woman student at that, so deeply interested in his subject, and promising to advance her in it as far as he could before the semester was over—it chanced to be in the early weeks of the winter term. She had not the courage to be ungraciously frank and tell him that she was there only out of curiosity, and neither knew nor wanted to know anything about those horrible Eastern tongues. She tacitly acquiesced in his assumption that she was a student, and gave him her name and address when he asked them. Next day she received a package of books from him, his own books and rare editions of other works on his subject, and a scheme of study to be carried on in connection with the lectures she would hear from him. Of course, she felt obliged after that to attend his next lecture, when she was the only auditor, the *boulevardière* and the shabby old woman having vanished, not to reappear. And this went on from lecture to lecture to the end of the term, no one else ever coming in. For five months she slaved away at the subject she had been thus forced into with the famous old Academician as self-constituted special instructor. "He was so lovely," she said in extenuation of her cowardice, "that I had not the heart to undeceive him." But she never dropped into another lecture at the Sorbonne just to see a distinguished man.

It is in the *cours publiques*, or "open" courses, of the Faculté des Lettres that these peculiar and decidedly lax conditions more especially obtain. The *conférences*, which are similar in function to the Seminar of a German university, and the *cours fermés*, are much more strictly regulated and are much more serious in themselves. Only matriculated students are admitted, at least nominally, but in reality the rules governing even these are not strenuously enforced, and almost any one wishing to do so may share in their advantages without the required matriculation. Particularly for foreigners is this the case. Both in France and Germany, if the native students themselves are to be believed, the foreign student gets round all such regulations more easily than the native. There is undoubtedly much truth in this statement; and for this reason, and others, a foreign diploma does not always represent as much as an equivalent degree from one of our two or three real universities. The *name* of it is often half the value.

In the more strictly technical schools, as law, medicine, the natural sciences, the conditions are quite different from the *entrez par où vous voulez* of the Faculté des Lettres, and the proportion of women falls at once. A year ago there was but one woman matriculated in the school of law to more than 2,000 men; and in the school of medicine there were about 150 women to over 2,500 men. The number of women auditors (*i. e.*, non-matriculated students) diminishes proportionately, owing to the greater difficulty of getting in. Yet even in these technical courses the door of entrance swings open with an ease unparalleled anywhere else. Many of the lectures, indeed, are free and open to the public, and they draw, though to a very much less degree, the heterogeneous crowds the literary lectures bring together. The laboratories, however, and the clinics of the medical schools, are closed to all but authorized persons. Yet here too the rule does not always hold, and any quiet, studious-looking woman, especially if she have a *serviette de notaire* under her arm, may walk into hospital or clinic without fear of challenge; and of course the surveillance is even less strict for a man. The clinic of the late Dr. Charcot, the famous specialist on nervous diseases at the Salpêtrière, was regularly attended by outsiders of many grades and callings, who followed with intense interest the *tragédie humaine* presented every Tuesday morning in the amphitheatre of the great hospital.

These being the conditions, it is a little odd, perhaps, that that all-pervading female element of Paris, the *demi-monde*, does not find its way in among the many women, more or less serious, who attend the University. It does not happen, however, though they swarm throughout the *quartier* of the schools; and from the writer's observation it would seem that it is the male students themselves who see that it does not. One day at a lecture on anatomy two such women came in and seated themselves quietly enough on the very last bench; but a student down in front saw them and set up a shout, and another took it up, and then another, till finally half the men present were on their feet, yelling, hissing, howling remarks, and stamping their feet till the *demi-mondaines* rose in confusion and fled. In-

stantly quiet was restored, and the professor, who was waiting to commence his lecture, was permitted to proceed. There were twenty or more women, matriculated students and auditors, in the amphitheatre at the time whose presence was no more noted than that of the men themselves. Against the women who have the right to be there, or who show by their manner that their object is the legitimate one for the place, the Frenchmen have no demonstrations to make, and — when there is plenty of room left for themselves—apparently not the slightest objection. Once only in the writer's experience was this rule broken, and then the reason was personal, or rather political.

It was at the time when the Franco-Russian friendship was beginning, and the French students were Russian-mad. While waiting for the professor to arrive, they would amuse themselves by singing, or rather shouting, the Russian anthem. They were doing this one day when a little Russian Jewess came in. She was a regular student, but she was a nihilist, too, and had but lately been arrested by the French police for complicity in some plot against the Czar. Of course the other students had heard of this, and they rose now as one man, hissing and yelling as they had hissed and yelled to drive the *demi-mondaines* out. But this little woman had a right to be there, and she stood her ground, very pale indeed, but unflinching, and looking steadily from one to another till out of very shame they subsided into their seats, and left her to gain hers.

This was an exceptional occurrence. As a general thing the French student conducts himself extremely well toward the women who study with him. He has accepted coeducation, and, barring certain national and individual rudenesses which presumably he is not innately polite enough to be conscious of, his manner to his woman comrade may be said to be perfect. There is no attempt at gallantry, nothing to show that he thinks at all of her sex. In the dissecting-rooms and certain of the clinics where coeducation is put to the supreme test, the Frenchman shows himself in the best sense equal to it. J. B. S.

SOME ITALIAN NOVELS.

ALASSIO, January, 1894.

I HAVE just been reading several Italian novels, chosen a little at random; the effect produced is anything but gay. Two end with the suicide of the hero—or protagonist, if you please, as there is little of the heroic in the conduct of either of them—leaving broken hearts behind; in a third, it is a poor maid-servant who is driven to death in a hospital, while the fourth manages to culminate in a combination of suicide with murder.

The books in question are: 'Il Processo Montegù,' 'Baby,' and 'Tiranni Minimi,' of Gerolamo Rovetta, and 'Ermanno Raeli' of Federico De Roberto. Not many months ago I called the attention of your readers to 'L'Illusione' of this latter author as a work showing rare powers both of conception and execution. Since then, I have taken occasion to read one or two other volumes of his—'La Sorte,' a collection of short stories written, at the age of twenty-one years, apparently under the influence of Verga, and 'Processi Verbali,' another collection, of which I shall speak further on. The present volume bears a tormenting resemblance to the work of Paul Bourget. The likeness may be pardoned to so young a writer—he published 'Ermanno Raeli' at the age of twenty-three—and yet the indulgence is not altogether easy. Leaving the merits of Bourget out of the question, the long drawn-out descriptions of the morbid states of two young persons, both refined, to the point where disgusts are more frequent than pleasures, are a trial to the patience, especially when you doubt if two such beings could really exist, and are sure that, if they did, they could not have been worth all the fuss made over them. To crown the general unpleasantness, the work in this moral clinique is done in the mellifluous style peculiar also to Bourget. As a matter of taste, the honeyed tones, the "pussy-cat" ways of the professor combine ill with the forms, the hues, the odors of disease. For heaven's sake, throw open the window, let in a little daylight and fresh air, and let your charnel-house subjects be treated, with sympathy?—yes, if you like, but also with straightforward common sense.

There is, fortunately, no need of insisting on this criticism in the case of De Roberto. 'L'Illusione,' of which an account was given in the *Nation* a few months ago, shows that the novelist has the right stuff in him, and that he has grown out of the ferment of youth into a healthy manhood. At the age of twenty-two he was melancholy as night out of mere wantonness; three or four years later, if not gay, his seriousness is that of a sound-minded moralist. His subjects are still taken from the fashionable and aristocratic world at Palermo, and their joys and sorrows are, of course, such as human nature undergoes in the circumstances of that society—that is, the pleasures are largely out of the reach of poorer people; hard work, ambition, and a fixed purpose exercise less of restraining influence on the passions and appetites, and there is more of a tendency to turn love-making into a business than among the middle classes. Such society has a glamour for the eyes of youth—for most men, in fact, who are not unusually unworldly or surfeited with grandeurs. It is much to the praise of De Roberto that, while still in the age of infatuations, he could write a novel as coolly unbiassed as 'Vanity Fair,' and without the "sour-grapes" flavor that, according to the standpoint of the reader, gives piquancy to or mars the pages of Thackeray. De Roberto is a judge rather than an advocate.

We are, however, leaving 'Ermanno Raeli' rather too much out of sight—unless it be, as I think, that it is already sufficiently described by implication. It may be taken for granted that the book will be read with more pleasure by the admirers of Feuillet and Bourget, and that, if the age of the author at the time of writing be considered, it may frankly be praised as a work of exceptional promise.

Before the appearance of 'L'Illusione,' even, that promise had been already in part fulfilled. There is lying on my table a book of short stories, entitled 'Processi Verbali,' published only a year after 'Ermanno Raeli,' and a complete contrast to that in every respect except as revelation of talents. No flavor of Bourget in 'Processi Verbali'; if it suggest any model, it is some of the more rapid sketches of Guy de Maupassant, in their brevity and point rather epigrams than stories. There are a dozen such in this volume, scarcely one of which is more than the narration of a single incident, turning at times on a surprise, or presenting some sharp contrast between human acts and professions. And these are told with a freshness, a vigor, a lifelikeness, that makes of each one a little gem.

Their freshness and fascination is, in part at least, the effect of a system adopted for their narration. The title of the book suggests police-court reports, but in his preface the author thus explains it:

"*Processo verbale*, in common parlance, . . . means a simple, rapid, and faithful relation of an event taking place under the eyes of a disinterested spectator. I call *Processi verbali* tales that are the naked and impersonal transcription of little comedies, of little dramas taken from the life (*colti sul vivo*)."

He then goes on to say that, in order to be impersonal, the author must obtrude nothing of himself, no descriptions, no reflections, no analysis of mental states, which can be nothing but more or less happy hypotheses, but must simply let his personages speak and act for themselves. Write a tale as you would write a comedy—merely dialogue and the stage directions that are absolutely unavoidable. De Roberto has adhered strictly to his programme in 'Processi Verbali.' We know that the cleverest scheme will not of itself produce a stirring drama, and this one only prevents the action from being retarded by superfluous properties —impedimenta, in short. But the dialogue, which never relates to anything but the affair in hand, is of wonderful crispness and naturalness, and the effect of these little "reports" is startlingly lifelike. The scenes and personages are all, with a single exception, in humble station. The ignorance, bigotry, and superstition that determine much of the action are of the forms peculiar to Sicily, and yet the human nature displayed is always so true, and therefore universal, that, as with a portrait by Holbein, it is good anywhere.

Is this enough to convey a notion of the freshness and animation of these little "reports"? They have other qualities: they are sometimes touching—once, in the first of the series, of a force of satire that is even terrible. It is to be hoped that their author will be moved to give us another series upon the same lines, especially as a companion volume issued about the same time upon an exactly opposite system—of internal analysis, that is, of motives, with descriptions and the usual paraphernalia of stories—appears to me distinctly inferior to 'Processi Verbali.' This volume, called 'L'Albero della Scienza,' partly because it stands out less from the general run of stories, and partly because it is less indicative of what I find peculiar and charming in the work of De Roberto, I have thought best to leave out of our present discussion.

Gerolamo Rovetta has for a long time pleased his public, not only with novels and stories, but also with plays, the most successful of which, "Scellerata," has been translated into German and represented on the stage of the Burg Theater in Vienna. Some also of the tales and novels have attained to the honors of translation, 'Mater Dolorosa,' the best known of his books, having appeared in both German and Spanish. It has had, too, an exceptional sale in Italy. Now "the rose that all are praising" may very well be "not the rose for me." It is precisely the one that can best afford to dispense with my admiration, and Rovetta's roses are in no want of appreciation. Indeed, it would be hard to refuse them a tribute of praise. They are fine, well-grown flowers, creditable examples of the florist's art. Dropping the metaphor, these novels are well written, the worst of them is clever, and all are pleasant reading. One of them, 'Mater Dolorosa,' may be recommended as one of the best worth perusing among the Italian novels of the day. The Duke, who with but scanty outfit, both in head and heart, makes such a brave show as statesman and leader of opinion, and his daughter, an arrant coquette, vain,

selfish, and empty-headed, are excellent portraits. Others of the personages, in fact, all of them, are clearly discriminated, forcible, and lifelike—at least those are who make but little claim upon our sympathy and respect. The humble youth upon whom the *duchessina* first tries the effect of her charms, and who, after being used and thrown aside, develops into a newspaper writer of radical politics; the same lady's lover during part of her married life; and some of the minor characters, strongly engage our interest.

As I have already hinted, it is to those who are held up for your admiration that you assume a cool and critical attitude. The novel-reader's heart is prone to prefer sinners to saints, and I would not visit our bad taste upon the head of Rovetta were it not that his superior people do even more than usual to injure the effect of his books. The rank and file of the characters are drawn from originals whom we recognize, while the heroes and heroines are moulded of a superfine porcelain clay, such as served for forming the all too exquisite figures of Octave Feuillet. In his days they imposed upon the world, and to those who have known them from their youth up, they may still shine in memory as types of the grace and distinction that one likes to believe once adorned society. But since photographic novels have come in, these exalted creatures have gone out, and bring a somewhat lumber-room air with them on the occasions of their appearance before a sceptical generation. The difficulty with Rovetta is merely that, while he is in general so much of his own time, he is not so frankly and consistently throughout. In 'Mater Dolorosa,' the duchess whose character and sufferings furnish the title to the book is as beautiful as any of those high-born damsels whose portraits adorned the keepsakes of half a century ago, and as self-sacrificing as the pelican or Père Goriot. She is quite as much out of place in her modern surroundings as would be, though in a very different way, *Lady Teazle* at a five o'clock tea of an æsthetic club.

In the 'Processo Montegù' the characters are better assorted. The action takes place in the higher society of Milan. The hero is recognizably a flesh-and-blood creature like ourselves. He is a young man of noble family who ruins himself by an absolute disregard for pecuniary limitations. Otherwise he is a very likable and even admirable fellow—simple, straightforward, with a delicate sense of honor—in short, the fine flower of the virtues called aristocratic. All this does not save him from ruin, and barely from disgrace; in fact, though the world acquits him on the score of the latter, he cannot acquit himself. And it is here that the note of exaggeration begins to be evident. In his despair he not only refuses the happiness offered him by the woman whom he loves and who loves him, but he leaves her desolate by committing suicide. One may allow that the circumstances were such as almost to excuse the morbid state of mind that brought about the catastrophe, but——.

There is another story. An innocent coquette, with pretty, inconsequent ways that secured her the name of "Baby," was the spoiled child of the society of Verona. The ladies petted her, the gentlemen paid court to her, and she was alike graciously indifferent to all. Then finally comes back to his native city the Count di Santasillia, a hero of the refined and disdainful type dear to the soul of Bulwer, bringing with him a heart lacerated by the one love affair of his life—of course, a tragic one. As might be expected, he finds in the society of Baby at first balm, and gradually a new passion, with which she is at the outset amused, and then, as it becomes serious and exacting, bored. This passion, unlike most others, grows from want of food, until the patient is quite convinced of its hopelessness, when, with the magnificent scenic setting of a mediæval castle perched high above the lake of Garda, he drags the lady of his love with himself from the top of a precipice into the waters beneath.

There is a certain brilliancy about the telling of the story, but the melodramatic ending is of a sort so threadbare with use that it cheapens the effect of the whole. It even takes away the touch of pathos from the suicide of Montegù, making it, too, look like a bit of worn theatrical finery, or a needless sacrifice to the convention according to which the romance, if it be at all serious, must end with death or a convent plus a broken heart.

Convention for convention, I think the English ending is preferable: better the altar than the halter. But there is no use in fighting the literary canons of a people, and the tragic dénouement has its rights like the other; only, to be effective, it must be worked by a strong hand and with conviction. The feeling, after reading two or three novels of Rovetta, despite the interest he excites and the real talents displayed, is that the fine people whom he delights in representing are, after all, a wearisome company. The fault of this is partly inherent in them, but is also in still larger measure due to their introducer. Like many others who have been influenced by false ideals, he can make his puppets very lifelike on occasion; but with the principal characters, it is precisely conviction that is wanting. Rovetta made the Duchess d'Eleda so beautiful, so pure, so inhumanly unselfish not because he believed she was all that, or at least to any such degree, but he wanted to create a saint and martyr, and that seemed the way to do it. Grace, distinction, virtues are all perfunctory. With the Count di Montegù he is more in sympathy—up to a certain point he believes in him; but the exaggerated scruples, the selfish suicide, are again perfunctory. Still, 'Montegù' is a good novel, not so strong as 'Mater Dolorosa,' more so than 'Baby,' and nearer than either of these to being a work of genuine feeling. S. K.

Correspondence.

POST-OFFICE, EXPRESS, OR TELEGRAPH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I note in your last issue a reference to some remarks of mine before the Boston "Nationalists' Club," in which remarks the *Nation* was mentioned. No speaker can be held responsible for any report of his speech unless revised by himself, especially where, as in this case, an hour's talk is condensed by the reporter, after his own fashion, into a few lines. The statement on which you comment, as amended by yourself, is, however, near enough to what I said; and I referred to the *Nation* only as the ablest exponent of the view from which I dissented—namely, that private service is usually done better than that of the public. Let me add that I was not speaking as a Nationalist, for I should not be recognized as having a full right to that name, but only as an individual observer seeking the truth.

My object was simply to show that, within my observation, and after some personal experiment, I had found the public service to be better done, on the whole, than the private. Of this the post-office was one and the most familiar instance; and I purposely took a case where the public and private service came directly into competition, namely, the transportation from Boston to Cambridge, Mass. My house is about four and a half miles from the heart of Boston. If a friend wishes to send me a message in a hurry, he can send it either by telegraph or by mail. If he sends it by telegraph, he is limited to ten words and they cost thirty cents; that is, twenty cents to Harvard Square, and ten cents for delivery at my door, this last being three-quarters of a mile from Harvard Square. But if my friend simply mails his letter with a special-delivery stamp at the Boston post-office, he can put in any number of words, it costs but twelve cents, and—which is the essential point—I get it quite as soon. That is, the delays incident to preoccupied wires at the telegraph office, interrupted wires on the way, and the like usually quite balance the delay incurred by the longer time taken in sending the mailbags from Boston. This is a competition in which, as any one may see, the mail transportation is heavily handicapped, and yet it does its work as efficiently, so far as I can see, and far more cheaply. Moreover, it does it more and more cheaply as time goes on; whereas the telegraph company has raised its price five cents between Boston and Cambridge within some six years, and may at any moment spring upon us a further advance.

Nor does the fact you mention, that the Post-office Department is run at a loss, sufficiently explain the difference. I have not the post-office statistics at hand, but, as I understand it, Massachusetts—where my instance lies—more than pays for its own postal privileges; and the deficit occurs in maintaining postal routes through thinly settled regions, where the express and telegraph services hardly exist at all, or are too expensive for common use.

I know that in sending parcels to such thinly settled regions as, for instance, Colorado, Alabama, and Texas, I am always urged by my correspondents not to send by express, but by mail, as the cheaper and speedier communication. A friend of mine in one of the highest mining settlements in Colorado does much of her shopping in Boston or New York by mail, and gets in that way all the tea she drinks. As to speed, I had occasion, the other day, to send two books to a friend in a small country village in Massachusetts. One went by mail and the other by express, on the same day. The book by mail arrived two days earlier and at less than half the cost. It is true that the express companies nominally make themselves responsible for losses, while the Government does not; but I have personally found it so vexatious and difficult to obtain from them any redress for injury, that this guarantee seems very trivial. But let me venture to ask the *Nation's* own testimony as to the comparison of methods. The *Nation*, like other New York newspapers, when sending out small parcels of books for review to Cambridge, for instance, usually sends them by mail and not by express. If the express service is really better than the mail, why is this done?

T. W. Higginson.

Cambridge, Mass.

[Because the mail is more convenient, inasmuch as (1) there is but one post-office, while there are several express

offices; (2) there is an hourly messenger service to and from the post-office; (3) the postal tariff is determinable by a pair of scales, and is the same for all distances, which the express is not; (4) there is no giving or taking of receipts, in the case of parcels having but a nominal value; (5) time does not, as a rule, enter into consideration.

We will now tell our little story as to the competition of telegraph and special delivery. A gentleman doing business in this city while residing in a thriving suburb within twenty-five miles of Wall Street, recently found unexpectedly that he should be kept from returning home for two or three days. To inform his wife, he chose the special delivery rather than the telegraph, and on the third day rejoined his wife to find her distracted by his absence. The postmaster had withheld the letter, on the ground that the special-delivery stamp stood for postage due!—Ed. Nation.]

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the last number of the *Nation* (No. 1495) you truly state that, "in drawing the line between the things which should be done by Government and the things which should be left to private enterprise, we have, as in all other transactions of life, to use judgment and pay attention to human experience, just as a householder does." I believe that it is possible at the present stage of economic science to lift the findings of experience under this head into a general principle, and to give to that principle the form of an explicit and scientific statement, according to the varying ratios of value-in-use and of value-in-exchange. Where products or services have a value in exchange which suffices to insure a public supply that shall be adequate to meet the public demand, we have the conditions under which such products or services may be best left within the domain of individual enterprise. But where the value-in-use of a given product or service is inestimably great as compared with the value-in-exchange, insomuch that the public welfare is liable to suffer damage from a dearth of production or service, we have the conditions under which the public administration may or must be invoked, and may or must supersede a dependence on private enterprise.

For it is important to observe that no hard-and-fast line can be drawn at all stages of political and economic evolution between the things which should be done by Government and the things which should be left to private enterprise. The line will vary according to the varying ratios of value-in-use and value-in-exchange as applied to different commodities and services at different stages of social culture and of economic development. Moreover, the purely economic aspect of the question will advance or recede according to the advancing or receding stages of political intelligence and probity in the public service. The politicians who sneer at "civil-service reform" in municipal, State, and national government are clogging the wheels of economic progress under governmental supervision, because they are minimizing the conditions under which it will be either profitable or safe to enlarge the jurisdiction of Government over the things which now fall within the province of private capital. James C. Welling.

Washington, February 24, 1894.

OLD-TIME PENAL JUSTICE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In our natural pride at the great advance of humanity in our own times, do we not talk a good deal of nonsense about the older ones, and thus not only do them injustice but debar ourselves from understanding them? I notice in the review of Frederic Hill's autobiography (*Nation*, No. 1495) that Mr. Hill speaks of living in a time when "men were hanged for stealing five shillings' worth of goods." I do not believe any man was ever hanged in modern times for petty larceny, as such; he was hanged as an habitual criminal, a nuisance and danger to the community, and the theft was only the legal pretext. That stock literary "property," the man who was hanged for stealing a loaf of bread for his starving family, is a myth so far as otherwise decent but distressed laborers are concerned, I imagine. Nobody wants to bring back the old barbarities; everybody honors those who suppressed them; but we only damage our own insight by excited distortions of their nature and motive. The world has always been a juster place and safer for decent citizens than most people allow; and the worse any one aspect of it looks, the surer we may be that there were unseen compensations. F. M.

February 23, 1894.

[It is true that the acts in question were not the cause of many executions, since juries could seldom be induced to convict. It is true, also, that most of the persons so convicted were habitual criminals. But Romilly's 'Life' (ii., 336) mentions cases where no previous offence was alleged and the only evidence was negative, *i. e.*, no witnesses were produced to good character; and the impression of bad character created in the minds of judge and jury might often be devoid of sufficient cause. As Dr. Parr says in a letter to Romilly ('Life,' ii., 370*n*), "Dislike from party, quarrels with servants or neighbors, offence justly or unjustly taken in a quarrel, jealousy about game, and twenty other matters of the same sort, frequently induce men to wish to get rid of a convicted person. . . . The rich, the proud, the irascible, and the vindictive are very unfit to estimate the value of life to their inferiors."—Ed. Nation.]

WOMEN AT THE GERMAN UNIVERSITIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am glad to hear through the letter of "M. F. K." in the *Nation* for February 22 that women *are* being admitted again to the medical lectures at Leipzig. At the time I was a student in that University (89-'91), I was told by a prominent member of the medical faculty that women were not and could not be admitted to the medical lectures, and for the following reason: Some years ago—eight or ten, he said—women were admitted quite generally to the medical as they have continued to be to so many of the other lectures, and a number of Russians took advantage of the opportunity to follow a course of study for which, as is well known, they have a special predilection. Among these women, however, came one who was not only extremely beautiful, but also extremely light-minded. She quite upset the sober German students, and that, too, with deliberate intent—as a woman myself, it is with regret I write it. Whenever she was present, the lecturer found his audience disturbed and distracted by the handsome and coquettish Slav. Moreover, from flirtation with the many she soon proceeded to more serious entanglements with a few, and at last drove one of her admirers to such a frenzy of jealousy that he shot and killed himself. The unfortunate affair made a fearful scandal, of course, and the result was that the medical lectures were closed to all women, by order of the Cultusminister at Dresden.

The professor who is my authority for this story is himself personally in favor of admitting women to the study of medicine, but he, nevertheless, would not admit me to his lectures at the time I mentioned, because, as he said, he could not, in face of the order from Dresden. He, however, repeated for me *privatissime* the same course he was holding in public, giving me freely of his precious time and special instruction. It is such deeds of kindness as this that one who has been the recipient of them never forgets, as your correspondent truly states.

I must differ from your correspondent, however, in regard to chaperones. It seems to me that the need of a chaperone is the very negation of coeducation, and the girl or woman who feels it ought not to attempt to attend lectures with men. The presence of a chaperone under such circumstances is a confession no self-respecting woman should make, *i. e.*, that she is not capable of taking care of herself, or fears the men may think so. Her work should be, and always is when she is in earnest about it, an all-sufficient "chaperone." J. B. S.

New York, February 23, 1894.

GOETHE AND ULRICH VON HUTTEN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir; The English 'Dictionary of National Biography,' in its notice of Anthony Aufrere, in common with a good many other books of reference, ascribes to this writer a translation of "A Tribute to the Memory of Ulric von Hutten, from the German of Goethe." I am unable to find in any edition of Goethe's works such a piece as this, or in any library catalogue accessible to me Aufrere's translation. There are one or two bibliographies of Hutten, but I have not access to them. I should like to be put on the track of Goethe's estimate of "Germany's Juvenal"; perhaps some one better supplied with sources of information will guide me. W. I. F.

Amherst College Library, February 17, 1894.

[The essay mentioned by Mr. Fletcher is probably a translation of Herder's 'Denkmal Ulrichs von Hutten,' which appeared unsigned in the July number of the *Teutscher Merkur* of 1776, and was reprinted in vol. iv. of a spurious edition of Goethe's writings which appeared in Berlin (Chr. F. Himburg) in 1779. It is now found in Herder's 'Werke,' ed. Hempl, vol. xv., p. 355. (Cf. ed. Suphan xvi., pp. 133 and 273.)—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

Skeat's Chaucer, the first complete modern edition of this writer's works in prose and

verse, with an exhaustive commentary, is to be published in six volumes at brief intervals by the Clarendon Press. The American publishers, Macmillan & Co., also announce a 'Student's Text-book of Botany,' from the competent hand of Prof. Sydney H. Vines.

Ginn & Co. have undertaken, in their "Athenæum Press Series," to represent the course of English literature from Chaucer to the present day by means of selections in prose and verse, edited in separate volumes, and sufficiently annotated for use in the higher education. The editors are Prof. George Lyman Kittredge of Harvard and Prof. C. T. Winchester of Wesleyan, and their scheme of collaboration involves English as well as American scholarship. A beginning has already been made with Jeffrey's 'Essays,' edited by Lewis E. Gates of Harvard. 'Old English Ballads,' by Prof. F. B. Gummere of Haverford, 'Selections from the Poetry and Prose of Grey,' by William Lyon Phelps of Yale, and 'A Book of Elizabethan Lyrics,' by Prof. F. E. Schelling of the University of Pennsylvania, are in press.

The Proceedings of the recent conference for good city government held in Philadelphia are to be printed by the Municipal League of that city at a price not exceeding one dollar per volume. Orders should be addressed to Mr. Clinton Rogers Woodruff, 514 Walnut Street.

Mr. Oswald Seidensticker has compiled for the German Pionier-Verein of Philadelphia 'The First Century of German Printing in America, 1728–1830' (Philadelphia: Schaefer & Koradi). A bibliography of the writings of Daniel Pastorius is prefixed, and the subsequent matter is arranged chronologically as to time, and alphabetically as to place, of publication. Indications of collections containing copies of the several works are given where possible. A facsimile of one of the three German works printed by Franklin in 1730 serves as frontispiece, and for other reasons this catalogue belongs with any collection of Franklíniana. Mr. Seidensticker shows in his preface that three German Bibles were printed in Germantown before any English edition was attempted in this country, and that a German version of the 'Pilgrim's Progress' similarly preceded the reproduction of the original on this side of the water. Pennsylvania naturally, from the character of its immigration, surpassed all the other colonies in the productiveness of its German press. The compiler has very usefully annotated his entries and appended a list of printers and publishers.

Dr. Shedd's 'Orthodoxy and Heterodoxy' (Scribners) is rightly called "a miscellany," and is remarkable chiefly for the small size of the fragments thought worth being gathered up to make a volume. But if, say, the four pages on "The Dangers of Office-holding" seem too trivial for preservation, the thirty-one on "The Union and the War" seem too antediluvian. The sermon bearing this title was preached in this city November 27, 1862—that is, after Lincoln had announced his intention to proclaim liberty to the slaves. Dr. Shedd not only made no reference to this immortal act, but argued against immediate emancipation, and insisted on the right of the Southern States, and of them alone, to deal with the slavery question even after the defeat of armed secession. We know that Lincoln was, even at that time, ready to save the Union with slavery intact, but this folly forms no part of the Lincoln legend; and Prof. Shedd's then orthodoxy in this particular has now become rank heterodoxy.

Mr. W. J. Linton's 'Life of John Greenleaf Whittier' in the "Great Writers Series" (London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners) is an avowed compilation mainly from two imperfect American biographies, and it hardly challenges criticism that is not directed rather against the editors of the series than against Mr. Linton, who writes with the sympathy we should expect, and with more than the literary grace of his predecessors. The public will now do well to await patiently the appearance of the authorized Life of Whittier by his literary executor, Mr. Pickard.

Harper & Bros. add to their uniform edition of William Black's novels 'The Penance of John Logan' and 'The New Prince Fortunatus.'

The synchronous editions of the Waverley Novels advance with 'Quentin Durward' and 'St. Ronan's Well' in the Dryburgh (Macmillan), and 'The Pirate' in the International Limited (Estes & Lauriat). Mr. Lang, in his preface, compares 'The Pirate' with Scott's Diary, and shows the cramming process which accumulated both local color and character types for the story during his tour among the Orcades in company with the grandfather of Robert Louis Stevenson.

We have already commented at length on the second volume of Taine's 'Modern Régime,' and need do no more than note the fact that his American translator, Mr. John Durand, has rendered his last service to the dead historian in the case of this volume, which bears the imprint of Henry Holt & Co.

Swan Sonnenschein & Co., London, have issued the fifth volume of their 'Public Schools Year-Book,' embodying the usual thorough information concerning the larger foundations, upwards of sixty in number, with appendices naming the successful candidates for military and naval cadetships, the winners of entrance scholarships, the select preparatory schools, etc., and reporting headmasters' conferences and school-anniversary festivals, etc. This knowledge it may sometimes be convenient for American parents to have within reach.

We are glad to see the helpful "Riverside Literature Series" of Houghton, Mifflin & Co. promoted to cloth bindings, very tasteful in every respect. Thus, Nos. 1, 4, and 30 are clapt together, uniting Longfellow's "Evangeline," Whittier's "Snowbound," etc., and Lowell's "Vision of Sir Launfal," etc.; while the "Sir Roger de Coverley Papers" are embraced in the junction of Nos. 60, 61.

The first edition of Sir Archibald Geikie's 'Text book of Geology' (Macmillan) was most favorably reviewed in these columns a little more than a decade ago, and the book has ever since stood in the first rank as a standard of reference throughout the world. The third edition, now before us, is a far larger work than the first, and is in almost all respects thoroughly up to the present state of development of the science. In one point it leaves much to be desired. Though a vast mass of facts and opinions is marshalled in a most orderly and attractive manner, it is comparatively seldom that the author expresses his own conclusions. In avoiding dogmatism he has become quite too non-committal when it is considered that he is well entitled to express his opinion as a first-rate investigator and not a mere compiler.

Dr. James Ellis Humphrey has rendered a real service to science by translating Dr. Zimmermann's 'Botanical Microtechnique' (Henry Holt & Co.). The work is really a treatise on the best methods of microscopic investigations of plants and plant-structures and secretions. It describes in clear language the various processes of investigation, such as maceration, clearing, staining, sectioning, and mounting, devoting about forty pages to these subjects. The rest of the book concerns mostly microchemistry and the investigation of the vegetable cell and its contents. An appendix is devoted to methods of investigation of bacteria. The book is not intended for class-room study; but as a work for reference in botanical laboratories of the higher class it will prove exceedingly useful. It seems strange that neither Dr. Zimmermann nor his translator appears to know of the dropping-bottle provided with a hollow stopper prolonged into a pipette, working by expansion of the air contained in the globular top of the stopper—a most convenient contrivance which is in common use in American laboratories.

Prof. Elmer T. Merrill's edition of Catullus (Ginn & Co.) is a college text-book of more than ordinary merit. The notes are generally judicious and accurate, and we are glad to observe the absence of that prevalent and pernicious fault which consists in suggesting "free" and, too often, inaccurate translations of the text, with the usual result of giving the average student incorrect notions of the real values of words, apart from their use in the passage under consideration. Parallel passages are indicated in reasonable measure. Some few passages of peculiar difficulty might profitably have received fuller treatment, and some traditional misconceptions of a delicate point have been repeated. But the commentary, taken as a whole, is extremely well done. The introduction, though somewhat prolix (50 pp.), is valuable. The book is furnished with a useful critical appendix and with indices. It deserves to rank with the best American work of its kind.

The Department of History in the University of Pennsylvania has put forth number one, a thin brochure, of "Translations and Reprints from the Original Sources of European History," edited by Prof. Edward P. Cheyney. These sixteen duodecimo pages deal with the Early Reformation Period in England. Another series, edited by Prof. James H. Robinson, will illustrate the Modern History of Continental Europe, and a third, edited by Dana C. Munro, will be concerned with Mediæval History. It is, of course, too early to pass judgment on the execution of this design, which can easily be made very useful.

In the October Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society at Worcester, Mass., Senator Hoar convincingly corrects a charge that his predecessor, Senator John Davis, talked out a session in which the Wilmot Proviso would have been passed as it came from the House. Von Holst has adopted this, and Senator Hoar apologizes for his and Mr. Bryce's occasional errors on the score of "the influence upon their judgment of the class of persons with whom they have chiefly associated here." In the same Proceedings Mr. Franklin B. Dexter has a very curious and valuable paper on "Social Distinctions at Harvard and Yale" in the early days when the catalogue was not arranged alphabetically, and when family, wealth, or other social consideration determined precedence and privilege. Noteworthy is his statement that "there was never any disposition [at either college] to exalt the ministerial order above laymen of distinction." In the Harvard class of 1653, "Joshua Long, son of an innkeeper in England, takes precedence of Samuel Whiting, the son of a clergyman, who was in turn son of a Mayor of Boston"; and the innkeeper was exalted as late

as 1667, but the calling afterwards seemed to lose caste.

The Proceedings of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin of December last contain the announcement that a catalogue of the nearly 7,000 bound volumes of newspapers owned by the society will be ready in the spring. It has been a novel undertaking, and presented special difficulties.

The current *Hartford Seminary Record* attempts an estimate of the Müller Semitic library lately acquired by the Seminary, and pronounces it fit to rank, in printed books (chiefly Arabic), with any similar library on this side of the Atlantic.

The second number of Mr. P. G. Hamerton's *Portfolio* is devoted to "Malta and the Knights Hospitallers," by W. K. R. Bedford, M.A. The illustrations, as might be expected from Mr. Hamerton's experience, are attractive and instructive, although the aquatints scarce have sufficient variety of tone. The letterpress is a curious jumble of topography, antiquities, and history without order or method. Not much can be expected from a writer who solemnly tells us (p. 5), "The fields in March are red with clover blossom; the orange groves are in flower or fruit all the year long, yet there is no vacuity or want of energy about the people." Still, we might hope for accuracy in historical details which are readily accessible; but even in this we are disappointed. The military organization of the Knights of St. John was contemporary with that of the Templars, and was not postponed until after the latter had acquired "so prominent a rank in the warlike concerns of Christendom" (p. 15); nor was it only after the capture of Rhodes in 1310 that the Hospitallers first "began to attract recruits from different countries" (p. 15). When Mr. Bedford says (p. 16) of the unfortunate Djem, the brother of Bajazet II., that "he was transferred to the protection, first of the King of France, and then of the Pope (Borgia), by whom he was poisoned in 1495," he commits two blunders. It was from the hands of Alexander VI. that Djem passed into those of Charles VIII., and the story of his poisoning, though largely believed at the time, is now almost universally discredited. It is to be hoped that Mr. Hamerton will be more fortunate in the selection of contributors to future numbers.

Antarctic exploration is the subject of the first two papers in the February number of the *Scottish Geographical Magazine*. They embody the results of observations made by officers of the Dundee whaling-fleet which spent the winter of 1892-93 in these regions. Among the most important is the remarkable uniformity of temperature which prevailed; 20.8° Fahr. being the lowest, 37.6° the highest, with an average for the three months of 30.76°, the result of four hundred and twenty-nine readings. There is also a paper on the British sea fisheries, by W. L. Calderwood, containing many interesting facts, as well as suggestions as to their proper regulation; and one advocating the teaching of geography by combining physical and social facts.

The veteran African traveller Gerhardt Rohlfs sounds a note of alarm in the Cologne *Gazette* at the recent occupation of Timbuctoo by the French. He fears that the fall into Christian hands of a place second only to Mecca in the estimation of African Mohammedans will lead to a widespread agitation throughout Northern Africa, and possibly to a religious war. No traveller will now be able to cross the desert, and the construction of the trans-Saharan railway is for the present impossible. The true policy for the French to pursue is to declare that they have occupied the city only temporarily in order to re-establish the Government, and that as soon as this is accomplished, they will voluntarily abandon their conquest.

A strikingly graphic account of the closing incident of the Matabele war, the massacre of Major Wilson's force, is given in the London *Times* by Mr. F. C. Selous, the well-known hunter and explorer. It is derived principally from the report of two American scouts named Burnum and Ingram, who, he says, "have rendered most valuable services to the expedition." These men accompanied Major Wilson in his daring pursuit of the king and retreated with him, when attacked by overwhelming numbers, to the spot where he made his last stand. Before the final assault they were sent to seek aid from the main body of the English who were encamped on the opposite bank of the Tchangani, within hearing distance of the battle-ground. It was a desperate task, as they were already surrounded by bodies of natives armed mostly with rifles, but it was safely accomplished, though all in vain.

The new *Revue de Paris* (New York: F. W. Christern) is another rival to the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and it seems more promising and important than the *Nouvelle Revue*. Its typographic appearance is most enticing. It is edited by M. James Darmesteter and M. Louis Ganderax (formerly dramatic critic of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*). The opening number contains letters by Balzac to the lady he married fifteen years later, Renan's essay on Philo Judæus, the beginning of a story by "Gyp," and a vigorous analysis, by M. Émile Faguet, of the new editor of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, M. Brunetière. Among the announcements for the forthcoming numbers are serials by M. Paul Bourget, M. Ludovic Halévy, and M. Alphonse Daudet, shorter stories by MM. Henri Meilhac and Henri Lavedan, notes of the table-talk of Victor Hugo by M. Jules Claretie, and reminiscences by M. Sarcey and M. Sardou.

The list of Private Libraries in America now being compiled by Mr. G. Hedeler of Leipzig already includes 500 considerable libraries, but he still desires to obtain, from owners with whom he has been unable to communicate, brief details as to the extent of their treasures and the special bent of their collections. Mr. Hedeler's address is No. 3 Poststrasse.

It appears that the civil service-reform club which has just been formed at Harvard College, derived its inspiration from the collected volume of reform addresses by the late George William Curtis. The impression made by these on a student who assisted Prof. Norton in passing them through the press, resulted in the very encouraging movement to which the Harvard officials have lent prompt countenance. We improve this opportunity to note that the statement, in the volume in question, that Mr. Curtis did not deliver his last address before the Civil Service Reform League in person, is incorrect. He did so on April 28, 1892, and spoke again at the banquet in the evening in his happiest vein.

Many readers will have observed the slip by which, in our Note last week on 'Echoes of Old Florence,' we prefixed "Mr." to "Leader Scott," the *nom de plume* of Miss Lucy E. Baxter.

—No less than one-fifth of President Eliot's Harvard report is given up to the abuse of athletics in institutions of learning whose position in the judgment of the civilized world, as the dean of the Graduate School tells us a little later, finds its final test in "the work of advancing knowledge by the original researches and the joint labors of its professors and its students." President Eliot's objections to the present state of athletics might be enlarged, but they could not be better stated. His reasons for excluding freshmen altogether from intercollegiate contests are impregnable. On the scholastic side, these contests "are peculiarly injurious because they tend to lower the standard of college work at the important epoch of transition from school to college, from a régime of study under observation to a régime of large liberty." On the physical and moral side, in the language of Dean Briggs, "a freshman's whole career is hazarded for a single game with Yale." The remedy indicated is so wholesome that, if carried out, the friends of intercollegiate matches affect to believe it would be fatal to them; and their total abolition will be desirable, according to President Eliot, if the remedy fails. What we miss in his discussion is any attempt to weigh the advantages and the evils of these matches, though it is assumed that there is a tolerable equilibrium. We note that the excessive time bestowed upon athletics has naturally led the faculty to raise the minimum standard of the A. B. degree.

—Other topics of general interest are the newly established "censorship over all the examination papers," with a view to dispelling "the notion that our questions are enigmas for specialists," and establishing the examinations in the confidence of the public; the operations of the Schools Examination Board, by whom "it is the school and its teachers that are examined, not the pupils," at a cost of $120 to $250, as was found in the case of nine secondary schools examined last year; the sudden and rapid growth of the Scientific School, which has now more than twenty times as many students as it had seven years ago; the steady growth of the Graduate School, "already larger than Harvard College was fifty years ago"; the inexplicable decline in the numbers of college and scientific-school graduates in the entering classes of the Medical School; and the attraction of certain courses in the Divinity School for college undergraduates (to the extent of no less than 421 elections). As for the Law School, it has felt, on the whole to its detriment, the efforts made of late years to reduce the college term from four years to three—efforts which President Eliot still approves. The trolley and the electric lights have attacked the efficiency of the Observatory, and threaten to reduce it to the mere function of computing the results of observations at Arequipa and publishing the Annals.

—A four-sheet map of Pennsylvania on a scale of six miles to an inch, colored geologically, has recently been prepared by Mr. A. D. W. Smith under the direction of Prof. J. P. Lesley, and published by the Second Geological Survey of that State. It is a noteworthy addition to our geological libraries. The first effective geological map of Pennsylvania was published in 1858, along with the two large quarto reports by Rogers, then State Geologist. This older map was drawn by Lesley, although his name does not appear on it. The stronger topographical features were sketched in by his expressive hand, and these aided greatly in the interpretation of the geological structure. Twenty-four colors were attempted, but several of them were pale and confusingly similar; yet through the middle mountainous belt of the State the structure was

shown with surprising correctness, judging by the small measure of the changes now introduced there. The new map is essentially a compilation of the separate county sheets of the Grand Atlas, issued several years ago; and, to the general student, the compilation adds vastly to the value of the data represented. The map has, unfortunately, no indication whatever of topographic form, so that in this sense it retrogrades somewhat from the older map—probably because it was felt that, under the sharper criticism of these later years, a sketched topography might be hazardous. Yet we greatly regret the necessity of the omission of so essential a basis, and feel that the poverty of Pennsylvania in this respect is as blamable as the similar poverty of New York; and that both are in glaring contrast to the thrifty progress of New Jersey, whose topographic sheets are probably the best of any State maps yet issued. Under the pretext of economy, but with the practice of penny wisdom and pound folly, the Legislatures of New York and Pennsylvania successfully prevent the undertaking of local topographical surveys—a mortifying indication of the character of the legislators.

—The colors of the new map follow the rather gaudy scale that was adopted on the county sheets; the lithographic work being by Bien, as heretofore in the Survey publications. The formations are as a rule easily distinguished; but we are persuaded that it is a mistake to apply pale, inconspicuous colors to those resistant rock members which determine the stronger topographical forms. In the absence of other indications of relief, strength of color might be employed to designate ridge-making formations, while paler colors were reserved for the formations on which valleys are habitually eroded; but the practice on this map is just the reverse. The Mauch Chunk red shale, for example, which always sinks into valleys, quite overpowers the pale colors of the Pocono and Pottsville sandstones on either side, although they rise in dominating ridges. In comparing the old and new maps, the changes introduced within the middle belt of Appalachian ridges are not conspicuous, as has already been said. The map here repeats the always marvellous lessons of the expression of internal structure in surface form, and of the adjustment of streams to structures, nowhere better illustrated in the world yet mapped. But in the plateau to the northwest, and in the high and low lands to the southeast of the ridges, the new map presents a great body of details not indicated in the older one. Where the plateau is deeply dissected by the west branch of the Susquehanna, the scalloping outcrops of successive formations on the hillsides are well shown—an apparently intricate pattern, but really simple in its scheme. Much additional detail is presented concerning the western coal fields and their areal distribution, as might naturally be expected from the great increase in the railroads by which that former wilderness is now so generally traversed. In the southeast, the mapping of the shales and limestones of the great valley, and of the sandstones and traps of the red sandstone belt, is greatly improved; but much remains yet to be done in the South Mountain region, as is indicated by the recent work of Miss Bascom. The limit of the drift area follows the map of ten years ago by Lewis and Wright; no additional details being introduced concerning the extra-morainic drift or the valley gravel-trains, on whose newer interpretation so great a part of glacial history depends.

—A vigorous protest against the methods of literary history now prevailing in Germany under the influence of the all-powerful school of the late Wilhelm Scherer is raised by Prof. Friedrich Braitmaier in his 'Goethekult und Goethe-philologie' (Tübingen and Leipzig: Gustav Fock). Braitmaier is himself a trained philologist; his 'Geschichte der poetischen Theorien von den Diskursen der Maler bis auf Lessing' has given him an honorable place among scientific students of literature; his criticism is, therefore, entitled to a respectful hearing, and the outcries of indignation which his words have called forth from the reigning school are nothing but an additional proof of the essential soundness of his position. At the outset he sketches, with a few telling strokes, the genesis of the present methods: how the historian Gervinus, than whom none has thus far dealt with German literature in a more comprehensive and truly scientific manner, was forced to the wall by the philologists; how Schiller, whose simple and clear-cut mental outlines offer a comparatively limited opportunity for conjectural interpretation, was thrown aside by the schoolmen; how the enigmatic figure of Goethe was seized upon by the hungry swarm of monograph writers as the most fitting subject for hairsplitting text criticism and scholastic problem-hunting. As a final move, "dry Mr. Philology became allied to bright Miss Feuilleton. Wilhelm Scherer took Herman Grimm to wife. Scherer-Grimm begat Erich Schmidt and the numerous host of professional Goethe philologists." There follows a detailed analysis of the tactics of the new school. The falsification of history in Goethe's behalf, the attempt to represent him as a statesman and patriot of the highest order, the slanderous misrepresentation of such men as Merck, Herder, and others with whom he was at loggerheads at one time or another, the effort at lowering our estimate of Friederike, Lilli, and other victims of Goethe's faithlessness, and at raising the most ignoble of his love attachments (that with Christiane Vulpius) to the level of a domestic idyl—in short, nearly all the absurdities and misconceptions of the modern Goethe mythology are brought out with more or less clearness. Next comes a chapter devoted to the demolition of Scherer's æsthetic theories. Here Braitmaier has indeed an easy game; for, of all of Scherer's ephemeral successes, perhaps none will be more ephemeral than the stir which was created some years ago by the appearance of his 'Poetik.' It seems almost incredible that a man of such undoubted critical acumen as he should have based a theory of poetry upon the fundamental axiom that "memory and imagination are essentially the same thing: a capacity for reproducing former impressions"; and Braitmaier's laughing remark that the logical consequence of this system would be to attribute the masterworks of Sophocles, Shakspere, or Goethe to defective memory is entirely in point. The greatest value, however, of this little volume lies in the fact that Braitmaier most forcibly insists on the necessity of looking at literary productions from a larger point of view than that of mere literary technique, and that he sees the task of the literary historian not so much in searching for the thousand and one different elements out of which a given production has grown together—although this, too, is a useful undertaking—as in defining its place in the intellectual, moral, and artistic development of the nation as a whole.

—The *ne plus ultra* of paternalism was perhaps reached in Constantinople under the later Byzantine Empire. A curious revelation of the details of this régime under Leo VI., surnamed "the Wise" (886-912 A. D.), is presented in a manuscript recently discovered and edited by Prof. Jules Nicole of the University of Geneva, Switzerland, under the title 'Le Livre du Préfet' (Geneva: Georg & Co.). The work is a handsome quarto of about 100 pages, containing the Greek text, a Latin translation, and a commentary in French, and offers new and valuable matter to the political economist as well as to the scholar. The Emperor prefaces his edict—as well he might—with a modest and not unjustifiable comparison of his own regulative functions to those of the Governor of the Universe. The purpose of the edict, which is issued for the guidance of the prefect, is to regulate the numerous guilds for trade and commerce which existed in Constantinople, their membership, their transactions, and their fees, to the minutest detail. The list of professions or trades touched on in the twenty-two sections includes notaries, jewellers, bankers, silk-merchants, linen-drapers, perfumers, grocers, etc. A good idea of the system may be obtained from the regulations of the silk-industry, which at that time, it will be remembered, was practically a monopoly of the Greeks, and especially of Constantinople. It was distributed among four guilds or corporations, (1) the dealers in raw silk, (2) the silk-dressers who prepared the raw material, (3) the weavers or manufacturers, (4) and finally, those who sold the manufactured fabrics. The functions of these are sharply distinguished: no corporation must perform the work of another, and no individual is allowed to belong to two corporations. Spinners, for example, if they have more of the raw silk on hand than they need, are not allowed to sell their surplus, as this would trench upon the business of No. 1. All the raw silk which comes to market is purchased in block by the corporation of silk-buyers, and is afterward partitioned among the members pro rata; individual members are forbidden to make private transactions, and the percentage of profits is in certain cases prescribed. Penalties of flogging, shaving the head, or of expulsion from the guild await the violation of these rules. If any one is detected in exporting the imperial purple silk, his hand is cut off.

—Other examples of minute interference abound. The notary or scrivener must keep but one clerk; the money-changer is not permitted to leave his stall in charge of an assistant. The prefect fixes from time to time the size of the baker's loaf. The practice of several trades is especially prohibited. The fishmonger is not allowed to catch the fish he deals in. Workmen, such as carpenters, stonecutters, and painters, are not permitted to change their occupation; if they lack employment, they must give notice to the prefect and receive formal permission from him before accepting another kind of work. Among so many regulations, a few strike one favorably: builders who botch their work are obliged to rebuild at their own expense, if an edifice falls within ten years "except by act of God." Penalties for all offences are slavish in character, such as flogging, shaving the head, mutilation; and these penalties are applied to the highest professions as well as to laborers. On the whole, it is no wonder that, at a later date, when the Turk supervened, his laxness in the supervision of commerce was a welcome and salutary change to the interests involved. Prof. Nicole's editorial work has been pe-

formed with the thoroughness which might be expected from the editor of the Genevan Scholia on the 'Iliad.'

LETTERS OF A PIANIST.

Franz Liszt's Briefe Herausgegeben von La Mara. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel. 2 vols.

FOUR years before his death Franz Liszt wrote to the German editor Otto Lessmann, in reference to a report that he (Liszt) had commenced an autobiography which he "was continuing regularly," that he, for his part, knew of no such manuscript:

"I have been asked repeatedly by publishers to write my memoirs. I declined, with the excuse that it had more than sufficed me to have lived my life, without recording it on paper. Were I married, I might indeed occasionally dictate something to my wife. But, as it is, I gladly abstain from efforts with the pen which continue to be disagreeable to me."

There are half-a-dozen other passages in the letters which La Mara (Marie Lipsius) has here collected, showing that Liszt did not write books and letters as he did his musical compositions, for the mere pleasure of writing. His collected critical and biographic essays fill six volumes, but most of them were written by way of championing neglected contemporary geniuses, not to further any literary ambition of his own. Among his correspondents, Wagner was the most favored, yet in the two volumes of the Wagner-Liszt letters the most numerous and by far the longest are Wagner's, while in the 659 additional letters now (with the exception of about 50) printed for the first time, it is easy to see that few were volunteered, the majority being answers to the notes showered upon him daily, almost hourly, by all sorts and conditions of men and women. In 1881 he wrote that he no longer made excuses for epistolary remissness: "My aversion to letters has become excessive. How is it possible to answer more than 2,000 letters a year without becoming an idiot?" To answer them all, he exclaims, he would have to devote ten hours a day to the task. It was, of course, his own extraordinary life-long amiability that had brought this deluge upon him, and he fully realized this when he wrote, in 1883, "I have a good mind to cry from the housetops some fine morning that I beg the public to consider me one of the most disagreeable, crotchety, and disobliging persons in the world." To appeals for autographs he had learned to become obdurate thirty years before this, and now at last his patience gave way entirely, and he begged Lessmann to announce in his paper that he could not in future allow his work to be interrupted by any more manuscripts sent for examination, or other uncalled-for missives. But he had reached his seventy-fourth year before he could thus make up his mind to curb his unselfish expenditure of time in the interest of others.

"Your life seems to me a grand *symphony of generosities*," he once wrote to the Baroness M. E. Schwartz, adding that the value of these benefits was increased by the discreet manner in which they were conferred, without flourish of trumpets and drums. How well these words describe Liszt's own life is unmistakably brought to light in dozens of his letters. He is constantly acknowledging receipt of manuscripts from ambitious young composers, whom he assists with advice and encouragement, whether they hail from Hungary, Germany, France, Russia, Italy, or America. Among these correspondents are such eminent ones as Franz, Grieg, Saint-Saëns, Rubinstein, Cornelius, even Brahms, and a host of minor names. He is always asking some gifted—and generally impecunious—young musician or other to come and enjoy the musical feasts at Weimar, and to be his guest during his sojourn, sometimes even paying his travelling expenses. This kindness is shown in trifling attentions as well as in services of lifelong value; for instance, when Köhler once forgot his overcoat, Liszt forwarded it after filling the pockets with choice cigars. Of his colossal services to Wagner as helping friend, conductor, essayist, and diplomatist, all the world knows; but few can realize before reading these new volumes of his letters how many other musicians were similarly benefited and popularized by him. The numerous young pianists of both sexes whom he trained at Weimar have made their advantages familiar to all, but it is not generally known that in the later years of his life, when he would have greatly preferred to remain at his quiet retreat near Rome composing, he allowed himself to be persuaded to spend several months every year at Pesth, giving four lessons a week at the National Academy of Music. In answer to inquiries by one of his biographers he wrote: "Since 1847 I have not earned a penny by playing the piano, teaching, and conducting. All these things, on the contrary, have cost me time and money." In other words, during the last forty years of life all his work was done gratuitously for the general benefit of mankind—including his compositions, which were not at that time profitable, thanks to the malicious attitude of the critics.

In the world of artists, where, as Liszt says, "character is rarer even than talent," it is gratifying to meet with a man so utterly free from all the petty vices, vanities, and jealousies of his tribe. He had the virtue, so rare in Christian countries, of generosity even to his enemies. An instance of this is to be found in No. 251, vol. i., where he urges Brendel not to protest against the introduction in a certain programme of a song by Hiller, who had behaved very shabbily towards Liszt: "Although we cannot expect reciprocity in this matter, we are in duty bound to carry out simple justice and fairness consistently, and at the same time to show these gentlemen how persons of honorable disposition and decent manners behave." When Liszt writes, "If it happens once in a while that I win a success, it gives me less pleasure than that of my friends," no one who knows his character doubts for a moment the sincerity of his statement. Even in the creative sphere, where his ambition was greatest, he would keep his own claims in the background if thereby he could benefit a friend. Read, for instance, the facts given in No. 311, vol. ii., regarding Berlioz's famous arrangement of the Rákóczy march. This arrangement was based on an earlier transcription by Liszt, with original harmonies, different from those employed by the Hungarian bands. Berlioz adopted the harmonies of Liszt, who here confesses that delicate sentiments of friendship had induced him to postpone the publication of his own fuller version until after Berlioz's death. Yet there was a limit even to Liszt's amiability. He was chary in bestowing letters of recommendation which young pianists were constantly begging for, doubtless because he felt that in such cases a kindness to one may easily prove an injustice to others. He had probably heard of the doings of some of the young men and women who, after being kindly allowed to attend a few of his free classes at Weimar, went about two continents advertising themselves as "pupils of Liszt." One girl gave concerts as a cousin of Liszt, although he had never heard of such a cousin. He adds:

"Concert-givers in provincial cities often make unwarranted use of our name. In Constantinople a pianist, Herr Listmann, begged my pardon for having omitted the second syllable of his name on his programme. For this he received a costly present from the Sultan Abdul-Medjid."

In one respect the readers of Liszt's letters will be somewhat disappointed. He disliked to write about himself, his private affairs, his personal feelings. When he writes from Wagner's apartments in the Palazzo Vendramin at Venice, a few months before his great friend's death, we naturally expect a few realistic bits of description, but he simply refers to the happy family life, and adds: "But I cannot talk without awkwardness of things that touch me most deeply. Therefore it is better to keep silent." Wagner, who always poured out his heart's deepest feelings to Liszt, repeatedly reproached him for not doing the same to him; and as Liszt is usually reticent even in his correspondence with this dearest friend of his, we can hardly expect him to be more outspoken in his letters to less intimate friends. Indirectly, however, and between the lines, we can discover a touch here and there that helps us to reconstruct Liszt's personality and his habits. If Goethe's *Faust* was troubled by having "two souls, alas, within my breast," Liszt was even worse distraught, for, as a friend once told him, "You are in reality a compound of three individualities running counter to each other: the social man of the world, the virtuoso, and the creative artist and thinker." This appreciation was shrewd and just, and Liszt quotes it approvingly. Doubtless he felt that in the first of these individualities lay the danger to his character, in the second the danger to his artistic worth; and he was fully aware of these two dangers. In 1846 he wrote to a friend: "My sojourn at Pesth might be of serious value, were it not for the fact that the *Byronic* element which you combat in me is asserting itself with more and more prominence." On this Byronic element Liszt's friends do not care to dwell, although they might advance the apology that he shared his moral weakness with most men of artistic genius, whereas his virtues are of a kind that is rare in the world to which he belonged.

In politics Liszt took little interest, although he knew personally most of the crowned heads and minor aristocrats of Europe, and in Nos. 120 and 311, volume ii., he reports two interesting conversations with Napoleon III. and the Czar Nicholas of Russia. He did, however, believe in genuine *active* patriotism, as he proved by his readiness to go to Paris in 1878 to serve as Hungarian member of the international jury, and his unselfish yearly sacrifice of several months of his time at the Pesth Academy; all this in spite of his aversion to travelling, which grew stronger every year. Yet he was condemned to divide his time between Weimar, Pesth, and Rome. His great desire was to spend the last years of his life in Italy, at his writing-desk. During the first part of his Roman sojourn he was the guest of Cardinal Hohenlohe at the Vatican; afterwards the residence was transferred to the Villa d'Este, several hours' distance from Rome. With this villa and its surroundings Liszt was so delighted that he actually more than once indulged in a few lines of description of it—the only instance of the kind in all his correspondence. Yet even here he was not permitted to compose uninterruptedly: his tormentors and visitors followed him even at

this distance, and he complains of necessary "visits, duties of politeness, musical fledglings, extensive and mostly useless correspondence." In Rome itself he had been "excessively annoyed," as he said, by all these interruptions, until he felt inclined to be "positively rude in order to keep these people at bay." In 1882 he wrote from Venice that he had resolved to be very economical as to paying visits: "Wagner makes none, and I shall imitate his example to the best of my ability."

But these social interruptions were not the main reasons why he spoke of himself as "a poor tormented man." What annoyed him more than anything else was the persistence with which people continued to ignore his work as a composer while trying to flatter him with allusions to his "former triumphal tours," his "unrivalled mastery of the piano," etc., "until it became positively nauseous, like stale, tepid champagne." As early as 1837 we find him wondering whether he was to be condemned for ever "à ce métier de baladin et d'amuseur de salons." In a few years this business of amusing mixed audiences became so distasteful to him that he ceased playing in public altogether, except when some monster calamity or occasion of artistic charity induced him to volunteer his services.

Although the piano was not entirely abandoned, we find Liszt in the last forty years of his life busy chiefly in other musical fields: first with his symphonic poems and symphonies, then with his songs, and finally with his sacred compositions. There is also an allusion to an early opera, but that plan was abandoned. In turning to the orchestra he found his thirty years' devotion to the piano a disadvantage at the beginning, and he was compelled to make many changes and improvements after the first performances, whereas Wagner's orchestral instinct, having been trained from his boyhood, became in his later period so infallible that he hardly ever was called upon to make any alteration. In view of this difference, it is surprising that Liszt should have achieved such brilliant results as an orchestrator. He is often strikingly original, especially in the ingenious use of the instruments of percussion, which, it should be added, he defends in an important letter (vol. i., No. 280) against those who assert that such instruments have no legitimate place on the concert stage. It is their abuse that has led to the questioning of their use. Liszt valued them as a means of emphasizing the rhythm, not for their capacity to rival the noise of a Chinese band in a murder scene. This same letter, which cannot be too highly commended to musical students, also contains some luminous remarks on Liszt's conception of musical form.

Occasionally we catch a glimpse of the composer at work on a symphonic poem, an oratorio, or a psalm "written with tears of blood"; unfortunately, they are for the most part glimpses only, where egotistic details would have been most welcome, in place of the altruistic business and shop-talk which takes up too much space in these letters. Liszt was modest —excessively so—in his estimate of his own creative powers; for instance, when Benfey had written a pamphlet entitled 'Beethoven and Liszt,' he wrote that this juxtaposition reminded him of a scene he had witnessed in his youth in the Jardin des Plantes in Paris—a harmless poodle caged as companion to a majestic lion. Still, he knew that he had contributed some immortal works of absolute originality to musical literature, and that the critics did not treat him fairly. To these critics there are many bitter or sarcastic allusions in the correspondence. Some critics, no doubt, were honest and simply Philistine—that is, impervious to new ideas and impressions—but others fully deserved the charges of persistent malice and mendacity which he brings against them. History has shown once more that negative criticism, when opposed to the truth, is impotent. In 1877 Liszt wrote regarding his symphonic poems that, "notwithstanding the abundant censure, ignoring, and abuse which these works have endured during the last twenty years, they have not perhaps been quite killed yet." Almost twenty years more have since elapsed, and these works are more frequently performed than ever, although it is still the critical fashion to abuse them.

Liszt's own criticisms of other composers constitute the most entertaining and valuable part of his letters. His own maxim appears to have been that it was better that five guilty composers should escape with undeserved praise than that one deserving one should languish in neglect. No harm was done by the attention he momentarily attracted or the encouragement he gave to certain mediocrities; but a great deal of good resulted from his championship of modern composers who were in danger of succumbing to the incompetence of conductors, the obtuseness of critics, and the indifference of the public. The term "modern composers," as here used, must be interpreted to include even Schubert, to whose fame and full appreciation Liszt contributed more than any one (except perhaps Schumann), as essayist, conductor, and pianist. In the days when he was giving concerts, most singers were of the "Italian school"—that is, there were few who had sufficient appreciation of the higher emotional elements of their art to be able to do justice to Schubert's songs; consequently an inestimable service was done to them by Liszt's transcriptions and performances of many of them. Some he also arranged for orchestra, and at Weimar he made an effort in behalf of Schubert's operas, which have never had justice done to them on account of their atrocious librettos. In his correspondence we find him especially active in behalf of Schubert's pianoforte works, concerning which he writes to Prof. Lebert: "Our pianists have scarcely the remotest conception of the delightful treasure we possess in Schubert's pianoforte compositions." He selected and edited a collection of them for Lebert's edition, and he calls attention, among other things, to the fact that in Schubert's little waltzes is to be found more originality than in many of the most ambitious works of all times.

These enthusiastic efforts in behalf of Schubert (and of many other composers) show that we must not take Liszt too literally when he writes to Schumann (1838), that his (Schumann's) works and Chopin's are the only ones which have a deep interest for him. The sixth letter of the first volume is an amusing one, written by Liszt and Chopin in alternate sentences. One of Chopin's sentences is: "I wish I could steal from him [Liszt] his way of playing my own études." The letters now before us contain several eloquent passages on Chopin, correcting popular misconceptions. To Lenz he writes: "You exaggerate, also, I think, the influence of the Parisian salons on Chopin. His soul was not affected by them, and his artistic work remains lucid, marvellous, ethereal, and of an incomparable genius—exalted above the errors of schools and the insipidities of the salon."

Liszt's relations to Schumann are fully discussed in No. 172, volume i., in which he regretfully explains how it came about that, after some vain attempts with this composer's pianoforte works, which he admired so intensely, he was led to neglect them for a time. At the same time he recalls his labors at Weimar in behalf of Schumann's choral works and his opera "Genoveva," which he happily calls "the sister of 'Fidelio,' but without *Leonora's* pistol." Of special interest is letter No. 347, volume ii., in which Liszt shows that Berlioz, who called the unappreciative Parisians "gredins," and "crétins," was in reality much more favored officially by his countrymen than Beethoven, Weber, Schubert, and Schumann (he might have added Bach and Mozart) were while alive by their countrymen. Of living composers most frequent mention is here made of St.-Saëns and Rubinstein, with both of whom Liszt corresponded. He favored St.-Saëns with advice and praise as a composer, speaks of him as the greatest of organists, and, two years before his own death, pays him this neat compliment: "When I now write music, I often ask myself in this or that place, 'Will it please St.-Saëns?'" Rubinstein, too, was greatly benefited by Liszt, who sought publishers and performances for his works, though he was aware of the differences in their opinion and ideals. He usually alludes to him as "Van II.," on account of the resemblance in his appearance to Beethoven. It seems that Rubinstein once, when Liszt's guest, mysteriously disappeared in order to avoid hearing a piece by Berlioz. All of Liszt's efforts to convert him to the new school failed. Unfortunately, too, Rubinstein paid no attention to the advice, in 1854, to curb his excessive productivity and compose more carefully. To Brendel Liszt wrote:

"He is a splendid fellow, possesses exceptional talent and character; therefore, no one can be more just to him than I have been for years. I have no desire, however, to preach, and he may wear off his horns as he pleases, and continue to fish in Mendelssohnian waters, or even swim in them, if he can."

An English version of these two volumes of Liszt's Letters was announced some time ago, but has been delayed by the illness of the translator, Miss Bache, sister of the great Liszt champion in London. Breitkopf & Härtel have just issued a supplementary volume of Liszt's letters to "a friend in Brussels" (probably Mme. Tardieu), and have completed Lina Ramann's biography of Liszt in three volumes. It is probable that there will be a fourth volume of letters later on, as the correspondence with his mother and daughter (Frau Cosima Wagner), with the Countess d'Agoult, the Princess von Wittgenstein, Berlioz, Tausig, Prince Lichnowsky, Joseffy, and others is not included in the above collections.

JEBB'S CLASSICAL GREEK POETRY.

The Growth and Influence of Classical Greek Poetry. By R. C. Jebb, Regius Professor of Greek in the University of Cambridge. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1893.

It is a pleasure to reflect that if we cannot claim this admirable volume for one of our own scholars, we can at least take the credit of suggesting and encouraging its production. These lectures were delivered at the Johns Hopkins University, they are dedicated to President Gilman, and are printed by an American firm. They are prefaced by a touching epigram, in which the editor of Sophocles gracefully alludes to that blighted youthful promise which the Trenholm Lectureship was founded to commemorate. This epigram is in

itself a slight but significant token of the many gifts and acquirements which render its author so peculiarly fitted to treat an old subject with the freshness, the sympathy, and the thoroughness of a master.

The introductory chapter has the rare merit of presenting in a clear and precise manner the significance of the appearance of Homeric poetry—the fact that it is, in truth, the beginning of European literature. In all Europe and Asia and Africa, at that period, there was nothing like this mysterious apparition—so marvellous, so transcendent that certain pious littérateurs have explained Homer as a special miracle, who made the 'Iliad' and the 'Odyssey,' so to speak, out of his own Olympian head. And this is only another way of expressing the unique character of this poetic outbreak, as compared with any product of Egyptian or Chaldean or Phœnician intellect. If we take an inventory of the literary stock of the world in the tenth century A. C., we find in Egypt some hymns and religious texts, state records, a few biographies, some fables or folk-tales—the sole product of an immemorial civilization, whose literature had become stereotyped into formulas, and "stricken," to use Mr. Jebb's phrase, "with intellectual barrenness." In Assyria we encounter the bombastic chronicles of a Tiglath-Pileser—the same literary poverty and dryness as in Egypt, with even less imagination and spirituality, save in those early Chaldean fragments of the epics of Ishtar and of Isdubar. Among the Phœnicians, the commercial spirit, with all its enterprise, has issued in nothing but successful imitation and diffusion of their neighbors' arts and acquirements. In contrast with this frozen waste of priestly or official formulas, "swims into our ken" the sunny world of Homeric imagination, a world where human life and affections have free play in the open air, where the beauty of nature and of human intercourse is not only felt keenly, but for the first time adequately expressed. It is a society delivered alike from despots and from priests, free from the fetters of Egyptian sacerdotalism and from the hobgoblins of Assyrian superstition. In it, says Mr. Jebb, "the hieratic spirit has given place to the lay spirit."

If we are to take into account at all in this comparison the Sanskrit epic whose period is so dubious, we find in the 'Mahâbhârata' a vast conglomerate which is to the Homeric epos as a jungle to a landscape of the Aegean. Measure and proportion are gone; some of the episodes are the mere midsummer madness of the dreaming Oriental brain. The best of these with which translators have made us familiar offer interesting pictures of life, and a romantic sentiment that appeals to the modern mind; but, even in these, the original, if we may trust our present texts, shows an incurable tendency to exaggeration, to rhetorical and childish tricks of expression, which contrast strongly with the straightforwardness, the pure taste, and the natural self-restraint of the 'Iliad' and the 'Odyssey.' With all its capacity for verbal *tours de force*, the Sanskrit, with its unwieldy compounds and its inorganic sentence-structure, lacks a refinement, a flexibility, a precision, of which the Homeric poetry first suggested the possibility, and Plato's prose the final triumph of development.

Passing by Mr. Jebb's analysis of Homeric types and styles, in which he rightly discerns "the promise and potency" of all subsequent development in Greek life and character and poetry, we turn to the elaborate chapter he has done well to bestow on Pindar. None of the Greek poets is so remote from us, none needs more the friendly aid and illumination of the antiquarian's magic telescope. Even Fitz Gerald finds him hard to get at, and is evidently rather bored by the imaginative grandiloquence he expends upon the jockeys and the "sluggers." In fact, Pindar shows us a phase of life that is clean gone out of our sight and conception, unless it be shadowed forth dimly by the contests of Matthew Arnold's "barbarians" on the Cam and the Isis and the Thames. Our own sophisticated football captains would smile at the wreath of laurel or of olive, and at the innocence of a people who understood so little how to turn an honest penny out of their sport. Yet the spectacle at Olympia really showed at its height the Greek gift of gilding and ennobling what with other races has usually sunk into vulgar and sordid brutality. Athletics, presided over by grave and reverend judges in purple robes of office, dignified by religious ceremonial and associations, made brilliant by the presence of all that was beautiful in nature and in art, linked by golden chains of poesy with heroic legend and historic memories, and reserving a quiet corner for Lysias or Herodotus—this was perhaps the crowning triumph of Greek taste, the peculiar offering to the Graces, at which Pindar assisted as high priest and *sacer vates*. That inmost shrine is hard for us to penetrate who breathe all day the smoke of Mr. Gradgrind's factories, and gather once a year to see the choicest of our youth earn their "gate-money" and contend in the sympathetic presence of gamblers and of blacklegs. It is a long step from these to the young "sprinter" Asopichus and his choir of comrades chanting Pindar's hymn to the "Queen-graces who bestow on mortals all that is sweet and pleasant—beauty and the poet's skill, and resplendent victory."

The balance and delicacy of Mr. Jebb's judgment are shown conspicuously in his estimate of the complex and puzzling genius of Euripides. "He has the qualities," says Prof. Jebb, "by which he became the first prophet of a cosmopolitan humanity." The romantic coloring of his plays, his understanding of the heart and the lot of women, his sense of the beauty of nature, his poignant feeling of human sorrows and burdens, his moods of doubt, perplexity, and melancholy, are all kindred to the modern mind; "in one phase or another of his reflections he has a kinship with the troubled spirits of every race and century." For these reasons he demands no special interpreter, no historical training and imagination. He appeals alike to the Parthian Orodes, to Ennius and Cicero, to the Christian Clemens of Alexandria. He opens the door upon the new comedy of Menander and of Terence—on the distant vista, beyond the centuries, of Corneille and Racine. He stands, that is to say, upon the threshold of two worlds, the old Hellenic world that was fading out of existence, the new Hellenistic world that was waiting to be born. In all these tendencies he did not merely swim with the current; he is not following the taste of his public so much as prescribing it. "He was not driven to his reform," says our critic, "he imposed it." He replaced, for example, the radiant Jason of Pindar's Pythian ode by the pitiful Jason of the "Medea." He had broken with the heroic ideals and the heroic manner. Yet, in deposing the Homeric heroes from their pedestal, he was taking away the only ideals to which the men of his age looked back and aspired. By his rationalism, his sophistry, his new-fangled notions, he was employing the Dionysiac theatre and festival against the very deity who gave sanction to Comedy as well as Tragedy. Hence it was by an unerring instinct that Aristophanes directed against him the satire of the "Acharnians" and the "Frogs." From his point of view Aristophanes was perfectly right. He could not divine that what to him meant iconoclasm and corruption, was in reality the breaking of the shell, the opening life of a new order of ideas.

We have mentioned the criticism contained in the "Frogs"; and this recalls a peculiar fortune which the best Greek poetry enjoyed—a fortune, as Prof. Jebb remarks, unparalleled in the history of literature. Before the Alexandrian period, indeed, Greek poetry was not literature in our modern sense; whether epic or lyric or dramatic, it appealed directly to hearers rather than to readers—and to what hearers! To the sort of judges who, during half a century of the Periclean age, awarded the first prize a score of times to that severe height of literary art which parallels the perfections of Phidias—that is to say, to the dramas of Sophocles. Compare such recognition with the fortune of Dante, or of Shakspere, or of Milton. Think of the aid and comfort such a public must have afforded to genius; of the wholesome discomfiture it administered to poetasters and pretenders. True, this public made mistakes occasionally, and crowned an inferior dramatist who could command a more costly and magnificent chorus. But in the main the great poet had the privilege which now survives only to the orator or preacher. He could keep directly in touch with his audience—an audience whose sympathy, whose intelligence, whose sanity of taste were unexampled; who could tolerate nothing insincere, nothing frigid and false in sentiment, nothing affected in expression; who, on the other hand, responded with inspiring geniality and enthusiasm to the best and greatest that was offered them. Thus "their great poetry," says Mr. Jebb, "was not merely inspired by life, it was regulated by life." We read a good deal nowadays about the uselessness of the critic, his superfluity, and his naughtiness; but if the function of the critic is to admire with discrimination and condemn with reason, who except the greatest can afford to dispense with the regulative and life-giving influence that flows from a large body of intelligent and responsive minds like those twenty or thirty thousand who sat in the Dionysian theatre at Athens?—a body which was neither an academy, nor a mob, nor an isolated censor, remote and unknown, possibly hostile and unsympathetic. How admirable must have been that action and reaction of wits in keeping a man to his best work, with a comforting sense that he was not throwing his pearls before swine—in keeping him from the wilfulness, the bizarreries, the misspent time of the author who now shuts himself up in his study and his theories, and has no electric communication with an audience of sensible and critical readers. And this reflection leads us naturally to the final trait which Prof. Jebb notes as characteristic of the great period of true Hellenic poetry—its essential moral purity—a purity which runs in the blood of the great line of bards that succeeded the creator of Nausicaa and Penelope, and which is naturally joined with the sanity, the beauty, and the faith that animated their poetry. Compare such a public, taught by such moralists as Æschylus and Sophocles, with the relation that now subsists between our "enterprising" press and its readers—that frowsy Circe who manufactures swine and feeds them daily after their kind.

If any claim in this brief summary seems extravagant, the fault must not be laid at Prof. Jebb's door, for he writes with the moderation of one who has adequately surveyed the wide field of letters, who is fully aware that modern literature exists, and, filling its own needs, can never be squared down to the narrow yet ideal perfections of the period which he treats. His book is popular in that it demands no previous knowledge of the subject, and presents its subject with the charm of a finished man of letters—a charm which is traditionally supposed to be the offspring of the studies he professes; but it is scholarly inasmuch as no sentence is written at random, without due warrant in the researches of a lifetime. No general survey in English presents so clearly the value of Greek poetry in the history of literature, the surprising phenomenon of its first dawning on the world, and its vital relation to the later growths of the centuries.

CABINET GOVERNMENT.—I.

Les Ministres dans les principaux pays d'Europe et d'Amérique. Par L. Dupriez, Professeur à l'Université de Louvain. Paris: J. Rothschild. 1893.

THIS work is preceded by a report made by the Comte de Franqueville, Member of the Institute (whose name alone is a sufficient imprimatur), to the Academy of Moral and Political Science, relating to a competition upon the subject of the book for the Odilon Barrot prize. As the report justly says, there is perhaps no subject in the whole domain of constitutional law more important, or, on the whole, more delicate to treat. In the century's experience of popular government, public attention has been almost wholly absorbed by the representative branch—that is, the Legislature. Whether this should consist of one chamber or two, the number of each, how they are to be elected and by how wide a suffrage; whether minorities should be represented; how the quality and purity of the legislative bodies are to be maintained—these are the chief topics of interest and discussion. But as to the relations of the Executive and the Legislature, the respective functions of each, and in general the constitution of executive power, these are things to which it seems almost impossible to attract public attention in this country. And the reason is very simple. All our constitutions are based upon the principle of the separation of legislative and executive power, but none of them defines the limits of these powers. In practice it is left to the legislatures to fix these limits, which they do by reducing the nominal executive to a cipher or a tool in their hands. The executive officers, having no means of resistance, yield without opposition, and the people, hearing only one side, are not aware of the danger. Hence the value of a work which sets forth the executive side of the question.

After noticing the other essays submitted, the report says:

"It remains for us to speak of one other memoir, which has appeared to us very notably superior to all the others, and to which, by a unanimous vote, the section proposes to you to award the prize of Odilon Barrot. The work is recommended by most important merits—clearness of exposition, exactitude of investigation, profound study of the subject; while the author has the further advantage of treating the question from the point of view of the jurisconsult and not of the politician."

Agreeing thoroughly with this view, we find it difficult to express the degree of our admiration, which can be appreciated only by those who, having long groped about for a particular kind of information, have suddenly found it set forth with almost startling clearness.

The first volume treats of the constitutional monarchies, England, Belgium, Italy, and Prussia, with an added survey of the German empire. The second volume is devoted to the leading republics, the United States of America, Switzerland, and France. All these divisions are classified under corresponding heads—thus, for the monarchies, "The Cabinet and the Constitution," "The Ministers and the King," "The Ministers and the Chambers," "The Ministers and the Administration"—with a separate section, one of the most striking in the book, on the position of the Chancellor in the German empire. For the republics the classification is the same, "The Ministers and the Constitution," "The Ministers and the President" (except in Switzerland), "The Ministers and the Chambers," "The Ministers and the Administration." The mere arrangement shows how interesting the comparison may be made.

The English system of cabinet government is more or less familiar to all Americans who have examined constitutional law at all; and yet that system, which has furnished the basis for all modern parliamentary practice, and is certainly one of the most important political discoveries ever made, grew up silently and almost unperceived during two centuries, and has only within a generation become an object of conscious study and analysis. No doubt it is the result of gradually formed usages; but, as M. Dupriez remarks, that is the case with all constitutions:

"The lawmaker can enumerate in a text the rights of the great political powers, regulate their organization up to a certain point, determine the exterior forms of their action; he is powerless to control the exact position of authority which each shall possess. That is a question which can be decided only by the relative strength of the several powers. Constitutional usages only establish the result of the struggle which inevitably arises between them."

It would be hardly possible to condense more perfectly in one paragraph the political history of the United States.

Belgium, for the last half century, has been among those happy countries which have had no history, though the recent extension from a very narrow to almost universal suffrage would hold out the expectation of interesting developments of her constitutional machinery, if she did not seem in danger of being ground out of existence by the upper and the nether millstones of Europe, which threaten soon to exert their terrible friction. M. Dupriez's clear analysis is ready for the student when it is wanted. For the rest the Belgian approaches more nearly than any other of the parliamentary governments to the English type.

The disastrous condition of Italy is attracting universal attention. That within twenty-five years of the glorious history of her consolidation, and in a time of general peace, she should have landed in bankruptcy, with a forced paper currency at a heavy discount, a serious annual deficit in the budget, and such an exodus of population as seems justified only by pestilence, points to some deep-seated cause. The apparent one is the triple alliance and the heavy burden of military and naval armament, but that is only a part. With well-ordered finances the burden could be borne, but the finances are not well ordered, and finances in disorder mean bad government. The pages of M. Dupriez lay bare the whole anatomy. The first difficulty which he finds with parliamentary government in Italy is in the condition of political parties. At the outset there was a great anti-constitutional party, consisting of the clericals and their allies, who refused to have anything to do with politics at all, while as to the rest the breaking up into political groups prevented the formation of any stable majority. But as the ministry depends upon a majority for its existence, it is driven to all sorts of expedients to form and maintain one. The result is, that the ministry has no power of resistance against the encroachments of the chambers. It is reduced to begging for the support of members by distributing among their constituents Government favors and places. It cannot turn for support to the King, who, as a constitutional monarch, can have no will as against the chambers. It cannot turn to the people, because the people does not elect its executive and has no idea of looking to it as the agent of all, while the people does elect its deputies and naturally supports them. The deputy himself, often elected on special grounds by a coalition of discordant elements, is not a representative of ideas and principles. He is only the organ of local interests; the agent, the solicitor, the patron of those who gave him his place.

"The standing committees have assumed in Italy an exaggerated importance, to the detriment of the ministerial influence. The cabinet, far from finding in the members of these committees and their reporters [that is, those who report their conclusions to the Chamber] devoted partisans, often meet among them uncertain friends, whose ambition and whose personal interests are not held in check by party discipline, or else hidden enemies, always ready to apply a checkmate. Sometimes the Government plans come from their hands wholly transformed; at other times these plans find themselves opposed by counter projects, starting from totally opposite principles. Sometimes the work of the committee is conducted with a calculated slowness, and the Government and the Chamber are powerless before this obstruction."

The results of this state of things are apparent in two departments of deep interest to the people of this country, the finances and the civil service.

(1.) "The Italian ministers do not enjoy an authority stable or strong enough to remain the sole guides of financial policy. It is especially in the discussion of the budgets that their influence is found to be counterbalanced and compromised by the existence of this standing committee which centres in itself the consideration of all plans. Powerful as well by the importance of its work as by the number and the authority of its members, the committee uses its power not only to exercise complete control in the revision of the plans submitted to it, but even to direct the policy of the Government and to thrust its hand into the administration. It is rarely that a ministry can contend openly with the conclusions of the budget commission and its reporter. Often it finds itself forced to accept compromises of which the Treasury almost always pays the cost. Suppose, for instance, that the ministry has proposed an increase of credit which it thought necessary for the public services. The reporter refuses it under pretext of rigorous economy, but yields in the end, provided there is an equal increase of credit for some establishment of interest to his province."

(2.) As to the civil service:

"The minister, absolute master of his subordinates, finds his own master in the deputies who support him. The omnipotence of the cabinet over the Administration is equalled only by its servility towards the parliamentary majority. It has to put its exaggerated authority at the disposal of its partisans upon pain of seeing itself overturned by them. The functionary has not to fear the arbitrary will of a superior, upon whom rests, after all, a certain responsibility; he has to dread besides the caprices of deputies who

have no direct authority over him, and can yet exercise a decisive influence upon his fate, the real instigators of acts of which they throw the responsibility upon others."

If in Italy the executive is too weak and overpowered by the chambers, M. Dupriez sets forth in dramatic contrast the rather thin semblance of parliamentary government in Prussia and the German empire:

"In Prussia the result of the struggle has been very different. Royalty, forced to abandon a part of its powers to the national representation, has known how to defend successfully all the rights which it had reserved for itself, and has even had strength enough to annul virtually more than one restriction upon its liberty of action. . . . The constitutional provisions gave to the King the right of naming and revoking the ministers; this right he has persisted in exercising in perfect freedom without permitting the chambers to limit it by their intervention. The ministers are then fully responsible for all their acts to him alone. They have not been called to power by the Landtag, and, whatever distrust that body may feel towards them, they will remain at their post as long as the royal favor keeps them there.

"Supported by the royal power, the ministers have profited by their strength to restrict as much as possible the rights of the chambers, or at least to destroy their effects. Though not necessarily members, the right of ministers to be heard upon any subject extends to the sessions both of the chambers and of the committees. The 'floor' can never be refused them; they can speak even after closure of the discussion has been voted, and thus reopen debate. While a simple member of the Landtag can speak only once upon the same subject, any minister can demand the floor as often as he pleases, and the president must give it to him as soon as the member who is speaking has finished, in preference to all the members whose names are down before him. If an 'interpellation' is addressed to them, the ministers answer what they please, or refuse all explanation. If the Chamber insists upon discussing it, they show how much they care by abruptly quitting the hall and not coming back before the end of the discussion. If the chambers appoint a committee of investigation, the Government will forbid officials to answer their inquiries, and will openly declare in the Landtag 'that a committee appointed contrary to the wish of the Government cannot expect to enjoy the cooperation of the Government.' In a word, their responsibility to the chambers is always in the condition of a constitutional principle without possible effect."

The best illustration of the result is, that the Government, having carried on the business of the country for four years, 1862–66, without any regular budget, obtained a bill of indemnity after the success of the campaign in Austria. "The conflicts of powers always degenerate into a question of strength," said Prince Bismarck one day, and, sure of his strength, he did not try to cover his conduct with an appearance of legality. Yet in Prussia the tenure of the civil service is permanent during good behavior, as it always is where the executive is strong, because it is for the interest of the executive to make it so. In Great Britain, which has the strongest executive of any really constitutional government, the "spoils system" has been wholly done away with. It is in France, Italy, and the United States, where the executive is completely subject to the legislature, that that system flourishes in full vigor.

The ingenious way in which the constitution of the German empire has bettered that of Prussia is set forth by M. Dupriez in an amusing manner; but we cannot follow him in detail. The institution of a single minister, president of the Federal Council, is wholly original and unlike that of any other State. It may be a matter of surprise that the imperial constitution, in so many respects copied from that of Prussia, did not establish by the side of the Emperor a council of ministers similar to the Prussian ministry of state. The proposal was made under various forms in the Reichstag, when the plan of the constitution was under discussion, but Prince Bismarck opposed it with all his might.

"In fact, the Prussian Government wished above all to prevent, the parliamentary system from taking root in the empire. It rejected the institution of a council of ministers borrowed expressly from this form of government, and, for the rest, asked for with a view to the establishment of this form. The conflict between the King and the Chamber of Deputies in Prussia had just terminated in the victory of the former; but this victory, which might be attributed to contingent causes, did not appear to be definitive, nor even necessarily to have durable effects. New struggles might arise, after the enthusiasm excited by recent triumphs had cooled off. To establish personal government in the empire, it was necessary not to accept an institution like a council of ministers, which would have reminded the Reichstag of parliamentary governments, and might have given the desire of resuming against the Emperor a struggle in which the Landtag had just succumbed.

"Seeking, on the contrary, a model in the national traditions, the Prussian Government revived in the new German Confederation an institution of the old Germanic empire. By the institution of the Chancellor, as it was organized, the Constitution centralized in the highest degree in one powerful hand all the activity of the imperial powers: it placed over all the branches of the administration a single chief, in order to impress upon their action the strictest unity of views: it placed this same chief at the head of the Federal Council, where the autonomist tendencies of the small States were to find expression, in order that he might watch over and repress them; finally, it exposed singly to the attacks of the Reichstag a man who had shown in the Prussian Landtag his power of resistance to the blows of a parliament. 'The chiefs of administration of the Empire,' said Prince Bismarck to the Reichstag in 1881, 'are not responsible for me, it is I who am responsible for them; it is I who have to choose them in such a manner that they are political men, approving of the general direction of the empire, and for whom I assume the responsibility. And from the moment that I no longer receive from them this approbation, it becomes my duty to say to them, We can no longer continue in office together.'"

This explanation throws some light upon the separation between Prince Bismarck and the young Emperor William II. It reads as if we were transported back to the times of Wolsey and Richelieu.

In the Land of Cave and Cliff Dwellers. By Lieut. Frederick Schwatka. Cassell Publishing Co.

THIS volume of 384 pages, 12mo, bears a deceptive title. So far from being, primarily, an account of the uncivilized portion of the Tarahumari, as these cliff-dwelling Indians are called, it is, in great part, taken up with descriptions of a visit to Guaymas, and of an excursion which the author made to certain mining districts in the Sierra Madre Mountains of Chihuahua. Seven of the ten chapters into which the book is divided are, in fact, given up to these trips; and while there is no objection to the way in which the story of Lieut. Schwatka's travels is told, yet, with deference be it said, this is not the feast to which we were invited. What we wanted, and what, from the title of the work, we were led to expect, was a statement of the writer's observations and experiences among these savages, and this we do not get. Unquestionably, during his trip through the mountains, he saw a number of cave and cliff dwellings, and no doubt he caught distant views of some of their occupants, but apparently he did not come into actual contact with any of them, as he did with some of the "civilized" members of the tribe. Consequently, in what he tells of their mode of life, etc., he had to depend upon hearsay, previous report, and an occasional glimpse of some of these people as they flitted among the rocks and trees in their efforts to escape observation. This, of course, was unfortunate, but it does not necessarily cast a doubt upon his statements. Indeed, so far is this from being the case that, in the present instance, it may have been an advantage, for it led our author to give us, in place of his own impressions, the accounts of those whose opportunities for investigation seem to have been better than any he could have enjoyed in the course of a short and relatively hasty journey on mule-back.

Of these accounts, the one by Bandelier (Final Report, part I., pp. 98, 244) is probably as satisfactory as any. He, first among recent explorers, called our attention to the existence of these cliff-dwellers; and though he did not see any of them, yet he vouches for the truth of what he heard about them, and, moreover, he tells us in a few paragraphs what is here spread over several chapters. Summarizing these different accounts, we find that these Indians live in southwestern Chihuahua, and that their number is variously estimated at from fifteen to thirty thousand souls. They are well formed, of swarthy appearance, and are divided into two great "sections or factions," who have "different habits and ways of living, and hold no intercourse with each other, though they occupy the same region." Of these two sections, the civilized portion, or "Christians," live in villages, in log and adobe houses, cultivate corn, do a little trading, and are not unlike their Mexican neighbors in their general manner of life. The other section of the tribe—the uncivilized, or "Gentiles"—live in caves in the sides of the mountains, in holes burrowed under the curving base of some boulder, and in cavities weathered in the face of the cliffs. They, too, cultivate corn in a small way, and tend a few goats, but they depend, for their food, chiefly upon the chase. They are shy, run away on the appearance of a white man, and have Eden-like notions as to their clothing. This is, practically, all that is known about these people, though our author tells a curious story of the deference paid by them to a "mace or sceptre, called God's justice," which reminds us, in a fashion, of the deference paid to the calumet by the Indians of the Mississippi valley. He also relates several instances of the speed and endurance of these Indians, which may be true, though they test our credulity severely.

The volume is illustrated, or said to be, and there are a number of pictures of caves, cliff-houses, and natural scenery. We doubt, however, whether they are of a character to help any one to a better understanding of the text.

The First Stages of the Tariff Policy of the United States. By William Hill, A.M., sometime Henry Lee Memorial Fellow in Harvard University; Tutor in Political Economy in the University of Chicago. Published by the American Economic Association. 8vo, pp. 162. 1893.

NOTHING has been more curious in the tariff history of the United States than the desire, both of the protectionists and of the free-traders, to show that the fathers of the country were really on their side. Snatches from the writings of Washington, Jefferson, Hamilton, and Madison have been quoted for campaign effect by both sides, and the tariff act of 1789 has been cited as an illustration of the beauties

both of protection and of free trade. Under these circumstances a detailed and careful investigation of the truth of the matter is welcome, and such we have in Mr. Hill's monograph, which shows careful use of the sources, and the impartial spirit of science. It is a valuable contribution to the history of our tariff legislation and of the genesis of the national Government, creditable to its author and worthy a place in the publications of the Economic Association.

Mr. Hill traces the course of tariff legislation in the colonies before the Revolution, and finds a pretty general system of duties, imposed almost exclusively for revenue. After the Revolutionary war, the several States at first were enthusiastically in favor of a liberal policy in foreign trade, and imposed duties sparingly and for purposes of revenue only. Massachusetts, in 1782, when compelled to levy import duties by the pressing need of revenue, stated, in so many words, in the preamble to an act imposing duties of 2½ and 5 per cent.: "Whereas, all restrictions upon trade have been found to be highly injurious to those countries which derive a great part of their wealth and strength from commerce, . . . be it enacted that this act shall continue and be enforced until six months after peace, and no longer." But this first burst of liberal feeling was followed within a year or two by an equally strong feeling for restriction and protection. The change was unquestionably due to the selfish and narrow-minded policy of Great Britain, and her application to the States of the extreme mercantile policy. One State after another, by way of retaliation against Great Britain, passed protective tariff acts. Massachusetts, in which the shipping interest was strong, was hit particularly hard by the restrictions which Great Britain imposed on commerce with her colonies, and especially with the West Indies; and in 1786 she passed an act which absolutely prohibited the importation of a great variety of manufactures. Pennsylvania also passed a protective tariff act. Rhode Island and New York moved in the same direction. The whole temper of the community was changed.

All this had a distinct effect on the tariff act of 1789. After the formation of the Union, Congress proceeded at once to the imperative task of providing revenue for the new government, and the tariff act was the first measure passed. Mr. Hill shows conclusively not only that it was designed to secure revenue, but that there were incorporated into it many provisions of the protective legislation of the individual States, notably of Pennsylvania. That the duties were moderate, in comparison with the exactions of our later day, is not essential to the spirit of the act, which was unquestionably protective.

Mr. Hill's investigation does not carry him beyond the act of 1789, and he has no occasion to note the unmistakable decline in the protective feeling which began within a year or two thereafter. That decline, like the previous burst of favor, was due much more to shifting political and industrial conditions than to any new convictions on the general policy of freedom or restriction. At best, the opinions of the fathers justify even less of superstitious reverence on this topic than on others. Economic thought had then barely begun to develop on the lines which we now think worth following, and the utterances of our statesmen are interesting to the student of economics chiefly in the evidence they give of the gradual permeation of the influence of Adam Smith. To the student of political history, their doings and sayings are of signal importance; and for him Mr. Hill brings much fresh and helpful material.

Economic Geology of the United States. With briefer mention of Foreign Mineral Products. By Ralph S. Tarr, B.S., F.G.S.A., Assistant Professor of Geology at Cornell University. Macmillan & Co. 1894. Pp. 509. 2 plates and 27 figures.

THE object of the geological survey of a State or country, as commonly understood by the legislators who are asked to vote public funds for it, is the development of its mineral resources. Not that it is expected that the geologists employed on the survey shall actually conduct mining operations, but that they shall direct their studies of the geological structure and of the composition of the rocks in such a manner as to facilitate the extraction of the useful minerals from the earth by those who are practically engaged in mining industry. This may be accomplished, first, by showing the position and character of the various mineral-bearing formations; then, the rules which govern the occurrence of the useful minerals; and, finally, as far as possible, the origin and manner of formation of the deposits of these minerals—facts which not only will be of use in the region under survey, but may, with the proper modification, be applied to all regions. The necessary preliminary of all this work is the outlining on maps of the distribution of the various rock formations, by means of which the geologist is enabled to work out the geological history of the region. Many of our surveys have not got beyond this preliminary stage, and if the economic application of geological research were to wait until the structural history of our country was entirely worked out, the present generation would reap but little practical result from their work, however fruitful it might be in more abstract theoretical teachings.

A few geologists, possessing the necessary technical training of mining engineers, have recognized the force of the public demand for practical results from geological research, and have applied scientific methods to the study of the ore deposits of individual regions of whose geological history, if not already known, they made a preliminary study themselves. By the efforts of such men attached to the National Geological Survey, an annual quantitative investigation of the mineral resources of the country was instituted as a branch of that work, and exhaustive studies have been made of a few typical mining districts. In this manner a great deal of scientific information has been obtained with regard to our deposits of useful minerals. The vast field, however, is as yet very incompletely studied. The attractive looking little work under consideration might be thought, from its title, to promise an exhaustive treatise on this subject, but an examination of its preface shows that it is the outcome of the necessity felt by a young professor for some text-book on the subject to serve as a basis for his teachings to his students. It must be gauged, therefore, not as a work of original research, but as a compilation showing the existing state of knowledge of the subject. As such, in spite of the incompleteness of the data, it is necessarily a very much condensed statement to be brought within the compass of a volume of its size. As the author has hoped to find a wider field of readers than his immediate students, he has couched it in plain and, for the most part, untechnical language, thereby rendering it more readily understood by the layman. What is less desirable, however, and we trust not a necessary consequence of popularization, he has thereby sometimes sacrificed strict scientific accuracy.

As contrasted with the recent work of Prof. Kemp on the ore deposits of the United States, this is much less exhaustive in its treatment, yet includes not only the metallic but the non-metallic minerals, such as coal, salt, clay, stone, etc. Some preliminary geological conceptions are given in the introductory chapters on mineralogy and physical geography. The brief chapter on the latter subject is admirable as far as it goes. The same cannot be said for that on the origin of ore deposits, in which the author's attempt at an original classification involves some very ill-defined subdivisions, and the giving different names to forms of deposits which are essentially the same. His descriptions of typical occurrences of the various useful minerals, which occupy the greater part of the book, are for the most part admirable (though very short) résumés of the best published accounts, and with each are given tables of statistics of production, which would be more satisfactory if the author mentioned in each case the source from which the figures were derived, as authorities are apt to differ very widely. In a work intended primarily for students it is somewhat surprising to find statements that are not scientifically accurate or consistent, such as, for instance, the distinguishing smelting and metallurgy as being the one a dry, the other a wet, way of reducing ores; and again, calling the Huronian iron-bearing formation of Lake Superior a division of the Archean, when at other places it is recognized as Algonkian. Older geologists could have told Mr. Tarr that beds of graphite are known which once were coal; that fire clays are not confined to the Paleozoic beds; that the oil-bearing horizon of the Rocky Mountain region, where it has been accurately determined, is lower than the Laramie; that the rocks in which magnetic iron ores mostly occur are not undoubted Archean, etc., etc. Such slips are fortunately not numerous, and may possibly be due to haste of preparation. On the whole, his statements have as great scientific accuracy as their extreme brevity will admit of, and are probably, in so far, more useful and acceptable to the general reader, to whom this work is evidently addressed—though we must except the bimetallist, in view of remarks concerning silver, that "coinage has been an important use of the metal, but promises to become more and more unimportant," and that silver "is far too common for use as a standard of coinage, and its continued use for this purpose means a progressively increasing production which will call for a frequent re-establishment of the ratio. The nations which have not yet discovered this fact are liable to suffer for their shortness of vision."

The book is printed on heavy paper and in large type that contrasts favorably with the average scientific publication, in which the author's object generally is to squeeze as many words into a page as possible, regardless of the reader's eyesight.

Manual of Linguistics. By John Clark. Edinburgh: James Thin; New York: Putnams. 1893.

ENGLISH philology has been suddenly awakened to the existence of German linguistic science. The first surprise expresses itself in primers, which follow each other thick and fast, like catechisms in the track of the Re-

formation. They deal out German science, some of them with a spoon, some through rubber. It must be allowed that most of them do it exceedingly well. To those who have communed much with *Beiträge* and their ilk, it will be a refreshment occasionally to sample the products of the German mind in a liquid form. It is amazing how much dilution they will bear. This 'Manual of Linguistics,' by John Clark, second classical master in the High School of Dundee, Scotland, is also a primer, and on the whole is a very good and useful one. It undertakes to give "a concise account of general and English phonology, with supplementary chapters on kindred topics."

The book is based upon a few convenient hand-books. It is always easy to track the author to his sources, and he makes no attempt to deny his dependence upon them. He follows his authorities reverently. There is little or no attempt at criticism or independent judgment. He selects the most important statements of principle and the best illustrations, and presents them in pleasing, readable style. The introductory chapter on "The Aryans, their culture and original home," is a summary of Schrader's 'Sprachvergleichung und Urgeschichte'; that on "Letters, their origin and order," of Taylor's 'Alphabet'; those on "Sound-relations in Indo-European," of Brugmann's 'Grundriss'; that on analogy, of Wheeler's 'Analogy'; that on ablaut and accent, of Brugmann's and Bloomfield's treatment of the subject; those on "Sound-relations in English," of Sweet's 'English Sounds.' Traces of his dependence are often to be found in inconsistent use of terminology, as when the author uses "Aryan" sometimes in the sense of Indo-European (pp. xlv, xlvii, xlix), sometimes in the sense of Indo-Iranian (p. 22), and interchanges freely between "Lithu-Slavonic" (p. xviii), "Letto-Slavonic" (p. xx), and "Letto-Slavic" (p. 13). He gives Schrader's theory of the original home in the Russian steppes as "plausible," though he has seen Hirt's criticism of it, and knows that bears and honey unknown to the steppes were familiar to the Indo-Europeans, that various trees, the birch, willow, fir, and probably the oak, were part of their common environment, that the word for sea was in their vocabulary; and though he might have known that the eel, an Indo-European attaché, is not found in the tributaries of the Euxine. He omits *z* from his list of I. E. "consonant vowels," and states that "some deny a place in the list of vowels to *i* and *u*." The ρα of Greek πατράσι he thinks (p. 14) is "a Greek fashion of writing the Sk. *ṛi*-vowel," and says (p. 15) that the *a* in question is "merely a ghost-vowel," which may or may not be explained by his allusion to the "ghost-word οὔτεκα" (p. 42). On p. 105 in attempting to explain the *u* of Goth. *augō*, eye, vs. Lat. *oculus*, he ignores the patent fact of its being influenced by the word for ear, Goth. *ausō*. In his discussion of accent (pp. 156 ff.), he shows that he has not read Wackernagel (Kuhn's *Zeitschrift*, xxv), and does not recognize his property.

It would be easy to multiply petty criticisms, but it would be entirely wrong to suggest the impression that the book is not a convenient and helpful introduction to modern comparative philology.

Essays on Rural Hygiene. By George Vivian Poore, M.D., F.R.C.P. Longmans, Green & Co. 1893.

THIS book might appropriately bear as its epigraph, "God made the country but man made the town, and made it bad," with the further motto, "And he is trying to spoil the country." As from a private standpoint the health of the community should be second only to the health of the individual, and from a public point of view the health of the community is one of the highest aims, it follows that these essays by an intelligent sanitarian commend themselves to all who choose to think about the conditions under which they live. Even should he prove a revolutionist who would overturn some established doctrines, it is refreshing to find an enthusiast in a good cause, for should our principles and our practice not be assault-proof, it is well that they should be damaged; while if they are impregnable, it is satisfactory to have it shown. Dr. Poore is convinced that many of our modern sanitary arrangements have an unscientific basis, and, therefore, are politically, morally, economically, and hygienically bad; and he does not hesitate to say so. But he does not mistake vehemence of assertion for demonstration. He speaks with emphasis, but with the emphasis of facts, or what he believes to be such. The key of his position is that the greatest and the most lasting source of wealth is the soil; that the soil may be enriched or impoverished by the restoration or the deprivation of organic refuse properly belonging to it; and that the water-carriage of sewage starves the earth just as wanton waste starves the masses. He holds that it pollutes the very water supply upon whose purity health depends; that water-borne epidemic disease is the outcome of the elaborate machinery for fouling the streams of the country; and that water-closets and typhoid go together. Water-carriage is wasteful. Its only good point is that it transports from the original scene refuse which, ordinarily, it is inconvenient and it may be hurtful to retain.

For a long time it has been recognized that nitrates, valuable to growing crops, are formed in the soil, but the exact process was undetermined. It has now been established that nitrification is accomplished by certain bacteria, which, with others, live in the upper layers and work to the decomposition of refuse within their reach. They disintegrate the dead that the living may be nourished. From the enormous number of these minute organisms and from the earth-worms (whose service to man Darwin has explained) and other animal forms, the author is justified in describing the upper mould as the living earth. It is in this living earth, in the superficial layers of the soil, that he would deposit all organic refuse, confident of its speedy dissolution without offence and of its appropriation with advantage. For the water-closet he would substitute the earth-closet, but not in the imperfect form in which most of us know it, and for the water itself the spade and barrow. Instead of washing away into the sea or sterilizing with corrosive chemicals the waste of our habitations and of our surroundings, he would incorporate that waste in the living earth, sure of the prompt and ample return it would make in the harvest. And he points to China on a large scale and to his own garden on a small one for practical results.

He also holds that all deep wells are liable to be contaminated by leaks, often remote, from subterranean sewers, and that, in the presence of cesspools and pipes, surface wells, carefully defended against lateral infection and properly covered, are the safest, even in the midst of ground fertilized with domestic refuse. It is a doubtful doctrine, but he seems to have demonstrated its possibility by one practical example of a five-foot well so arranged. But where one well would be constructed under rigorous inspection on sanitary principles, a thousand would have defects, possibly vital; and it may be questioned whether the system of conservancy that works so admirably under his intelligent supervision would also succeed in the hands of incompetent rustics.

When disease-charged excreta are properly buried (and properly seems to mean superficially), we may believe that the morbific element will be destroyed within the soil. But with typhoid and cholera we must remember that they may not always stay buried in the upper layers. A heavy rainstorm may sweep their germs into the nearest water-course, which may yield a water supply; a hot sun and a fair wind may transform fields into clouds of dust and carry yet living spores broadcast. Those germs seem thus in part to carry out their mission in India, and before complete desiccation they may do the same in other lands. Besides which, it is in evidence that anthrax and scarlet fever at least will survive burial for many years.

These essays are by no means confined to sewers and earth treatment. They touch on many themes, and, although native to English skies, they change their weather but not their meaning in drifting across the sea. They are attractively prepared, and the dwellers by the Passaic and the Bronx may read with interest, and, if they will, rival in practice, the trials and the triumphs in the valleys of the Thames and the Anton.

The South Sea Islanders and the Queensland Labor Trade. A Record of Voyages and Experiences in the Western Pacific, from 1875 to 1891. By William T. Wawn. With illustrations. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1893. Pp. xvi, 440, 8vo.

THE bitter controversy over the introduction of Polynesian labor into Queensland practically ceased with its prohibition in 1891. Capt. Wawn's book, therefore, has only an historical interest as showing how the "labor trade" was conducted during the last sixteen years of its existence. He describes with much detail his twenty-three voyages for natives to the islands of the western Pacific, giving incidentally a full account of the methods of recruiting, both legal and illegal, as well as much information relative to the islands, and the life and customs of their inhabitants. The most favorable side of the labor trade is naturally presented, and, though he writes at times with some heat and treats his opponents with sailor-like frankness, it is hard to question his fairness and honesty. The abuses to which the business was peculiarly liable he freely acknowledges, but he shows that it was for the interest of those engaged in it that it should be conducted fairly. The crews of the labor vessels were invariably the first to suffer for the wrongs done to natives. Was an islander kidnapped, his enraged tribesmen would attempt to avenge the injury on the next white man, whether innocent or guilty, who fell into their hands. He denies the assertion, often made, that the labor traffic as carried on since 1875 was the cause of the decrease of population in Polynesia. On the other hand, he asserts that it tended to lessen the frequency of intertribal wars, and to check cannibalism. This certainly seems reasonable, and, considering the testimony to the excellent treatment of the Kanakas by the Queensland sugar-planters, especially, that given by the correspondent of the London

Times, Miss Shaw, it is difficult to see why this three years' training should not have elevated and civilized the savage.

Capt. Wawn had a number of adventures during his voyages, which were always attended with more or less danger from hostile natives as well as from the perils run in navigating comparatively unknown waters. Perhaps the most entertaining chapters in his book are those relating to the cruise of the *Victoria*, which was chartered by the Government to return certain natives, said to have been kidnapped, to their homes in New Guinea. He would have had far more readers, however (for he tells his story very well), if he had confined himself to the noteworthy incidents of his various voyages and omitted the numerous minute details of each one, mere extracts from his "log" and interesting only to sailors. There are five excellent maps of the islands visited which add much to the value of the book, together with some rather crude but suggestive illustrations from sketches by the author.

Abbotsford: The Personal Relics and Antiquarian Treasures of Sir Walter Scott, described by the Hon. Mary Monica Maxwell Scott of Abbotsford, and illustrated by William Gibb. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. 1893.

Mrs. Maxwell Scott's 'Abbotsford' is a sumptuous monument of filial, or nepotal, piety. It is not, as its title may suggest, a description of Sir Walter Scott's home, but chiefly an account of his personal relics and knick-knacks—"gabions," the author is apt to call them, using a word for which we confess ourselves unable to find, except by guess-work, a meaning that is appropriate here. The interest of the book to the general reader is more in the bits of information and gossip, historic, personal, and anecdotal, which Mrs. Scott gives in a straightforward, agreeable way, than in the elaborate chromo prints whose crudeness of color and effect tend to disguise the facile cleverness of Mr. Gibb's drawing. The illustrations are very catholic, not disdaining to include with the sword of Montrose, the pistols of Napoleon I., or Prince Charlie's quaigh, Scott's old beaver hat and spectacles, or even a crumb of oatcake found in a Highlander's pocket after the famishing battle of Culloden—things whose interest is not enhanced by depicting them. It is rather noticeable how little of positive history attaches to many of these relics, even to some of most imposing claims, and this may be a stumbling-block to the doubting. We may trust, however, that Sir Walter, though he was an ardent antiquary and collector, was too canny to be easily imposed upon by shallow claims.

The book is a handsome quarto, printed on the heaviest of paper, and refulgent with more than two dozen of Mr. Gibb's high-colored drawings. The brief account of the building of Abbotsford would have been made more interesting by the addition of a plan of the house.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Atkinson, Prof. G. F. The Biology of Ferns. Macmillan. $2.

Betts, C. W. American Colonial History Illustrated by Contemporary Medals. Scott Stamp and Coin Co. $3.

Carnegie, Rev. D. Among the Matabele. F. H. Revell Co. 50 cents.

Cotterell, Constance. Tempe. Harpers. 50 cents.

Davis, Prof. W. M. Elementary Meteorology. Boston: Ginn & Co. $2.70.

Dillon, Prof. J. F. The Laws and Jurisprudence of England and America. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $4.

Edwards, Dr. J. F. Catechism of Hygiene. Philadelphia: The Author.

Fairbairn, Prof. A. M. Religion in History and in Modern Life. New ed. Randolph. $1.50.

Foote, Mrs. Mary H. In Exile, and Other Stories. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.

Gates, L. E. Selections from the Essays of Francis Jeffrey. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.

Hittell, J. S. A History of the Mental Growth of Mankind in Ancient Times. 4 vols. Henry Holt & Co.

Jackson, Prof. A. V. W. Avestâ Reader. First Series. Stuttgart: W. Kohlhammer; Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.85.

Lumby, Prof. J. R. The Epistles of St. Peter. [Expositor's Bible.] Armstrong. $1.50.

Macleod, H. D. The Theory and Practice of Banking. Vol. I. 5th ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.50.

Marshall, H. R. Pain, Pleasure and Æsthetics. Macmillan.

Matthews, Brander. Studies of the Stage. Harpers. $1.

Overton, Rev. J. H. The English Church in the Nineteenth Century. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.

Palgrave, R. H. I. Dictionary of Political Economy. Sixth Part. Drengage—Eyton. Macmillan. $1.

Pepper, Prof. William. A Text-Book of the Theory and Practice of Medicine. Vol. II. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders. $5.

Reed, T. B. A Manual of General Parliamentary Law. Rand, McNally & Co.

Reid, John. A Chronicle of Small Beer. Anglo-American Publishing Co. $1.

Remsen, D. S. Primary Elections. Putnams. 75 cents.

Smith, George. The Conversion of India, from Pantænus to the Present Time. F. H. Revell Co. $1.50.

Smith, J. H. Elementary Algebra. New and Revised ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.

Southworth, Mrs. E. D. E. N. The Curse of Clifton. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.

Tales from *Town Topics*. *Town Topics* Publishing Co. 50 cents.

The Sir Roger de Coverly Papers. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 40 cents.

Traill, H. D. Social England. Vol. I. From the Earliest Times to the Accession of Edward I. 2d ed. London: Cassell; New York: Putnams. $3.50.

Transactions and Proceedings of the Japan Society, London. Vol. I. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.

White's Manual for Fifth Year Art Instruction. American Book Co. 50 cents.

Winsor, Justin. Cartier to Frontenac: Geographical Discovery in the Interior of North America in its Historical Relations. 1534-1700. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.

Zangwill, I. The King of Schnorrers: Grotesques and Fantasies. Macmillan. $1.50.

MARCH
EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

Articles—The Universities of Germany, by E. D. Perry; Governmental Maps in Schools, by William M. Davis; An Experiment in Correcting Compositions, by W. H. Maxwell; The Study of Education at Harvard, by Paul H. Hanus; Educational Exhibits at the Columbian Exposition, III., by R. Waterman, Jr.; Report of the Committee of Ten, by Chas. De Garmo and C. F. P. Bancroft.
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NET ASSETS, January 1, 1893		$59,037,395 74
RECEIVED IN 1893.		
For Premiums	$4,623,200 08	
For Interest and Rents,	3,144,574 64	
Profit and Loss	8,358 82	
		$7,776,133 54
		$66,813,529 28
DISBURSED IN 1893.		
For claims by death and matured endowments	$3,970,458 56	
Surplus returned to policyholders	1,256,201 69	
Lapsed and Surrendered Policies	597,355 08	
TOTAL TO POLICY-HOLDERS	$5,824,015 33	
Commissions to Agents, Salaries, Medical Examiners' fees, Printing, Advertising, Legal, Real Estate, and all other expenses	770,158 09	
TAXES	293,156 27	
		6,887,329 69
BALANCE NET ASSETS, Dec. 31, 1893		$59,926,199 59
SCHEDULE OF ASSETS.		
Loans upon Real Estate, first lien		$37,669,494 86
Loans upon Stocks and Bonds		12,849 50
Premium Notes on Policies in force		1,351,625 21
Cost of Real Estate owned by the Co		7,105,311 33
Cost of United States and other Bonds		12,423,628 55
Cost of Bank and Railroad Stocks		380,960 25
Cash in Banks		973,999 00
Cash in Office		3,813 39
Bills receivable		990 67
Agents' Ledger Balances		3,526 83
		$59,926,199 59
ADD		
Interest due and accrued	$1,010,541 36	
Rents accrued	8,271 27	
Market value of Stocks and Bonds over cost	224,102 70	
Net deferred premiums	194,289 69	
		$1,437,205 02
GROSS ASSETS, December 31, 1893		$61,363,404 61
LIABILITIES:		
Amount required to reinsure all outstanding Policies net, Company's Standard	$53,817,154 00	
All other liabilities	1,098 222 74	
		$54,915,376 74
SURPLUS by Company's Standard		$6,448,027 87
SURPLUS by State Reports will exceed		7,250,000 00
Ratio of expenses of management to receipts in 1893		9 90 per cent.
Policies in force Dec 31, 1893, 65,701 Insuring		$156,994,498 00

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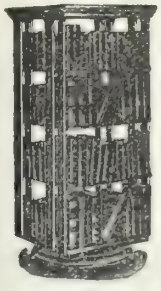

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 8, 1894.

The Week.

IDLE money continues to heap up at an extraordinary rate in the vaults of the world's great banks. Since the opening of the year the Bank of England's supply of coin has increased $26,000,000; the Imperial Bank of Germany has gained $18,500,000, the Bank of France $5,000,000. Our own clearing-house banks gained $42,000,000 cash up to the opening of February, when payment of Government-bond subscriptions began, and, despite the $46,000,000 subscribed in this city, our total bank reserve even now is greater than at December's close. To show how useless these huge funds have become for investment in business enterprise, it may be added that the Bank of England's total reserve was last week 60 per cent. of its liabilities, the Bank of France's coin holdings 75 per cent. of liabilities, and the Bank of Germany's 65 per cent., while the legal-tender reserve of our New York city banks stands now at 29¼ per cent. of their total liabilities, and nearly 40 per cent. of the deposit account alone. This situation amply explains why the maximum of discount rates at all of the world's financial centres is as low as our own 2½ per cent. three months' rate, or lower. The official bank rates in London and Berlin have been twice reduced within the last two months.

To a practical mind it would surely seem a strange remedy for such a condition to pour into the money circulation of this or other nations some hundred millions of new silver currency. This is, however, precisely what Mr. Bland proposes, in his fiat-money bill disguised under the fiction of a coined "seigniorage." In one shape or another, it is the remedy contemplated by every advocate of a return to a silver currency. Of course, the new money, like the old, would flow at once to the great reserve depositories. If a full supply of money at the lending centres means revived activity in trade, why does not industry leap forward now, when the idle money in almost every central market of the world has reached a volume greater than financial history has ever yet recorded? Even those broad-minded economists who lay the whole blame of our present trade stagnation on the tariff issue, will find trouble in fitting their theory to England, Germany, and France. The plainest fact of all in the situation is, that currency uncertainty has been a fruitful cause of recent financial ills. Uncertainty redoubled by legislation would hardly serve to revive financial confidence.

An attempt was made on Monday to obstruct the tariff bill by planting in its pathway the Bland seigniorage bill—the "bill to coin a vacuum." The plan is to keep the bill on the table instead of referring it to the committee on finance, and to take it up for endless discussion whenever the tariff bill is reported back. Mr. Stewart of Nevada is prepared to speak several days on it, and his colleague Jones can repeat his old speech of the Brussels conference and of the last session of Congress, with such additions as have come into his mind since its last production. It is said that Mr. Lodge of Massachusetts is much impressed with the need of action on the Bland bill, and that the Republicans generally will "antagonize" the tariff bill with the Bland bill. The Democrats are not very bright, but we presume that they can see that the killing of the tariff bill by indirection will destroy their party as effectually as killing it in any other way. They can break their necks over the Bland bill and get no tariff bill at all, if they are so dull as to allow Stewart and Lodge to plan their campaign for the next election. It should be added that they are losing precious time even apart from the Bland bill. They are acquiring the reputation of people who do not know their own mind—the most fatal of all plights for a political party. If it should turn out that they have been dilly-dallying in order to fall at last into the embrace of the Sugar Trust, or to favor speculations in sugar, we would not give much for their future chances.

Of course ex-President Harrison had to assure the Colorado people of his friendliness to silver as he passed through their State on his way to California last week. But he made a bad mistake when he ventured beyond this position, as he did, when he said at Trinidad:

> "There are clear indications now in England and in Germany that they are feeling the effects of a scarcity of gold and its prostrating effects upon the industries. I believe those two great countries are nearer right to-day than they have been for the last twenty years. They are considering favorably the question of a larger and freer use of silver as a money metal and bimetallism. I do not think that those countries are coming to the next silver conference as a country maiden waiting for us to make the advances, holding back, but will come with greater readiness than in recent years, and will agree with us upon a basis for a larger use of silver as money."

These remarks were made by the ex-President on Wednesday week. On Thursday Sir William Harcourt announced in the House of Commons that the Government had no information which would lead it to believe that any government desired a reassembling of the Monetary Conference. The British Government did not intend to make such a proposal, as it saw no advantage in it.

The question of free ships, or at least of some radical modification of our navigation laws, will probably come before the House this week. It is already clear that the floodgates were opened by the admission to American registry of the foreign-built *Paris* and *New York*, and that an equivalent privilege must be extended to other steamship lines. That is the least that can be done in fairness, and the final step of allowing an American to fly his flag over his own property, wherever bought, cannot be long delayed. The statistics compiled from Lloyd's Register by the Bureau of Navigation show how steadily vessels are increasing in size and substituting steel for wood, thus making the purpose of our antiquated shipping laws more and more impossible of attainment.

Mr. Theodore Roosevelt, the Civil-Service Commissioner, has been having a sharp correspondence with Secretary Carlisle touching removals for political reasons, of which it appears there have been several in the Treasury, and the matter has been now turned over to the Senate in response to a resolution. We have not seen Mr. Carlisle's side of the controversy, and therefore know of his position only from Mr. Roosevelt's report, from which it appears that the secretary holds that if a man is removed, his only remedy is through the courts of law. "This," says Mr. Roosevelt,

> "is practically the position taken by Postmaster-General Wanamaker in reference to the persons in the Baltimore post-office who were accused of violating the civil-service law. Secretary Carlisle, moreover, is, as far as the commission now remembers, the first public officer who has ever taken the position that it is no violation of the civil-service law to discharge a man for political reasons."

The civil-service law provides a penalty of fine and imprisonment for any United States official who solicits subscriptions or contributions for political purposes from other United States officials, or who receives such subscriptions in a United States building, or who degrades or discharges any United States official for refusing to contribute, or who gives money to any other United States official for political purposes. But there is apparently no legal punishment for dismissing a United States employee for political reasons, although the rules prohibit it, and also declare that nobody "has any right to use his official authority or influence to influence or coerce the political action" of anybody in the service of the United States. It will

thus be seen that if Secretary Carlisle chooses to disregard the rules, he is pretty well protected against everybody but the President and public opinion.

Mr. Josiah Quincy's reluctance to give his testimony before the Senate committee on printing, in connection with the scandal of the *Patent Office Gazette* contract, was fully accounted for by the admissions forced out of him on Saturday. In fact, we think he might have refused to testify at all, on the ground that no man can be compelled to incriminate himself. His testimony was tantamount to a confession that the charges made against him were true. He admitted that he had intrigued with the commissioner of patents, and used his official influence to get the contract away from a firm that had done the work efficiently for years, and to give it to a non-existent corporation, with a capital (on paper) of $300 and without any plant—all for the benefit of a man who was deeply in Mr. Quincy's debt. He also admitted that he had used his influence to secure the dismissal of an official of the Patent Office "on account of discrimination" against the company got up by Mr. Quincy and his friend—which is the elegant way of saying that he had had turned out an honest employee who was trying to prevent the Government from being robbed.

This record of a "gentleman in politics," certified to by himself, is a confirmation of the view, which is as old as Sophocles, that you can never be sure of the character of a man until you have seen it tested by his holding public office. Mr. Quincy defends himself in almost the same words as our wonderful Tammany street commissioner. Mr. Andrews is "not able to see" why he should not give a friend a fat contract for dumping garbage, and Mr. Quincy is not able to see why he should not get rich pickings for a friend out of the Patent Office. The sense of propriety and the official methods of the two men are, so far, on precisely the same level. And it is important to note, also, that this contract-jobbing of Mr. Quincy's is all of a piece with his office-jobbing. A man of his intelligence and previous professions going in unblushingly for the latter, as he did, excites no surprise when caught in the former. The two things are perfectly consistent in treating the public business as private spoil, and it would be just as logical for Mr. Quincy to pull a long face and argue that party necessity demanded contract-jobbing as office-jobbing. Indeed, at one time he seemed disposed to take that tack, and to assert that the exposure of his crookedness was "a blow at the Administration"; but he had the grace to drop that in his testimony on Saturday.

Congressman Dunphy's reasons for withdrawing from Tammany Hall furnish a striking picture of the inside workings of that institution as they were revealed in "Paddy" Divver's banner district at the last election. Mr. Dunphy says on one very interesting point·

> "My information is that to the election district giving the greatest majority to Maynard was to be given a $1,200 position; to the next best another position; to the next a gold watch and chain. In three separate election districts the entire registered vote was polled, and in these districts Maynard got every vote. Such a result was most startling, and was never known before in our district. Did the presence in our district of the regiment of tramps have anything to do with the enormous vote registered and polled? Were the offers of positions and expensive jewelry sufficient to induce election officers to do wrong? Did the acts or omissions of our election officers produce these wonderful results? Each person must answer these questions for himself. I have drawn my conclusions, and have resigned from my district committee."

These incentives to activity which Mr. Dunphy enumerates were the famous prizes which were said to have been offered by Divver as inducements for his workers to win the prize banner which Croker offered to the Assembly District rolling up the largest percentage of Maynard votes. After the election all Divver's followers were ready to declare under oath that they had never heard of these or any other prizes, their memories having been ruined utterly by a rumor that Divver was to be indicted for offering them. Divver himself, in the course of a sulphurous interview with a reporter on November 18, admitted the fact of the offer by declaring that he would give no information to a newspaper of such low character as the *Evening Post*, adding: "The prizes have not been awarded yet." Mr. Dunphy shows that one effect of the offer was to crowd the district with tramps and loafers before election, all of whom "disappeared like snow before the sun" after election.

The list of the convictions for electoral fraud recently obtained before Judge Barrett in this city is in many respects the most remarkable document which has ever appeared in a New York newspaper, because no such punishment for cheating at elections has ever been dealt out in this city before. There have been frauds on a considerable scale at every election for a quarter of a century, but never before have thirty-nine of the cheats been indicted, convicted, and sentenced. The honor of this achievement is mainly, if not entirely, due to the Bar Association. They appointed the committee to ferret out the frauds, and the committee employed and paid the counsel and collected the evidence which Mr. Wellman of the district attorney's office was able to turn to such good account. Moreover, of the special committee of four who did the actual work, three were Democrats. Of the thirty-nine cheats who were convicted, "Paddy" Divver was as "district leader" responsible for eighteen, and "Barney" Martin for nine. Paddy and Barney are both police magistrates—"the Lord be betune us an' harm," as Paddy would say. Paddy was recommended for this office by a President of the Board of Education and an eminent criminal judge, under the style and title of "the Hon. Patrick Divver." Paddy, who is more active than Barney, instigated the frauds—in fact, called for them—by offering prizes to his "heelers" for rolling up heavy majorities in his district. The first prize was to be "a $1,500 place, which the winner could take himself or give to one of his friends." The second was to be a gold watch and chain, and the third a silk banner. When the grand jury began to look into this matter, everybody forgot about the prizes; in fact, nobody had ever heard of them, and Paddy started for California. There is, in fact, to be a great gathering of Tammany riff-raff there this month. Why they go so far for their health it is difficult to make out, but their doing so has given rise to the report that they were running away from justice—which has naturally annoyed them a good deal. The reason why they are in special need of recuperation this year probably is that it has been an abnormally prosperous year, and they have guzzled far more whiskey and champagne than usual.

The passage of the "Greater New York" bill, in accordance with which the voters of the district which it is proposed to convert into the larger city will be given an opportunity to express their opinion on the subject, furnishes an issue of much interest for the approaching campaign. While there is probably considerable sentimental opinion in favor of the proposition, there is also a strong undercurrent of opposition, based upon the fear that the tax rate of New York will be greatly increased if Brooklyn and other outlying communities are added to ours. Brooklyn is at present taxed almost beyond the point of endurance, while our tax rate, owing to the city's enormous wealth, is very low. If New York is to be called upon to help Brooklyn bear its burdens, and to help others of the proposed suburban additions to make improvements, as opponents of the consolidation plan allege will be the result, then the voters of New York are likely to be timid about favoring the plan. As a whole, public opinion in this city at present is in an inchoate condition, little thought having been given to the matter except by the few persons who have been leading the movement. There is a great field for argument and discussion, for the voters will need to have much more light than they have

at present in order to vote intelligently upon the matter.

The N. Y. *Times*, in castigating "certain friends of the higher education of women in this city" for meddling in the controversy about Radcliffe College, falls into a grievous error. They sent no "appeal to the Society for the Collegiate Instruction of Women." They sent it only to the Harvard Overseers, and all they asked for was the full Harvard degree for graduates of Radcliffe College instead of one countersigned by the president of Harvard. That this of itself did any "harm to an excellent cause" probably never entered any one's head but that of the editor of the *Times*. What did the "harm," if harm was done, was the use of this petition before the Legislature by a certain "Society of Alumnæ," to prevent Radcliffe College getting its charter —something for which "certain friends of the higher education in this city" were no more responsible than the editor of the *Times*. The petition to the overseers of Harvard has been referred to a committee who will report on it in April, and we have no doubt that, if the money for Radcliffe comes in freely, as is expected, the prayer will be granted before very long. The opposition to the charter has, we believe, been based on the notion that it would postpone, instead of hastening, this result, but the friends of the charter maintain that it will hasten it, and are in thorough accord with those who desire the full degree for women. There was also opposition in some quarters on the ground that a college so slenderly equipped as Radcliffe ought not to have the power of granting degrees, but this was met last week by an agreement to grant no degrees without the approval of Harvard College. There is considerable diversity of opinion among the authorities of Harvard College touching the value of the countersigned Radcliffe degree; but we believe nobody is disposed to drive any of them into a corner on this point.

Mr. Astor has had a great triumph over his enemies in the matter of Mr. Gladstone's resignation. He announced it as impending some weeks ago, and the English papers all said the announcement was false, and was published to "boom" the *Pall Mall Gazette;* and some added, "How American!" He now shows that he was right and they were wrong, and "hurls back" their epithets. It is true he was correct, but the announcement was a very discreditable affair just the same. Mr. Gladstone was keeping his probable resignation secret because he naturally, whenever the time came, wished to make it known to his cabinet first. Some one in his confidence betrayed him, offered the news "exclusively" to various papers, and found none mean enough or credulous enough to accept it till he got to the *Pall Mall Gazette*. It is not a thing for a "gentleman in politics" to be proud of.

Mr. Gladstone is probably the readier to quit the scene of his trials and triumphs because with the passage of the home-rule bill he really considered that his work was done. For the new Radical fight with the Lords he is not prepared, and doubtless never thought of carrying it on, and "the Newcastle programme" never greatly interested him. He made no secret to his friends at the last election that what he sought office for mainly was the settlement of the Irish question; and his disappointment over the smallness of his majority was largely due to the fear that it would not suffice for this purpose. When the home-rule bill was passed in the Commons, his career was virtually closed. His attendance in the House has since then been less close, and his intervention in debate less frequent, and his attention to the new Radical measures more perfunctory. No more splendid figure has ever appeared in English politics, and not one has ever quitted it who will be more distinctly missed. The silly creatures who for twenty-five years have been defaming him now begin to see this themselves. The announcement of the *Times* that "the Commons will be profoundly changed by the withdrawal of his leadership," and will "sadly miss his restraining influence," coming from an organ which has been reviling him as if he were an old pickpocket, shows that English Conservatives are recovering their common sense in the presence of the new dangers. Gladstone has really been for many years a check on the advance of the "New Radicalism," which is the most formidable foe English institutions have ever encountered. It will be a great satisfaction, doubtless, to him and to his friends that this revulsion of feeling has occurred during his lifetime, and while he is still capable of enjoying such reverence and gratitude as no other statesman will probably ever receive, for the new democracy does not seem to cherish or build up great parliamentary reputations.

The advantage of having a man like Léon Say in the French Chamber was never more conspicuous than in the session of February 10, when he encountered the socialist Deputies in a sort of free-for-all debate, and left them, one after another, flat on their backs. The most deadly weapon in his hand was his repeated demand for definitions on the part of his adversaries, and precise details in regard to their social revolution. He excited laughter at their general phrases, like the one advanced by a certain solemn Deputy who defined socialism as aiming at "the generalized well-being of all classes of society" (Ely's "broad social standpoint"). Then another legislator, seeing the need, under M. Say's raillery, of being more definite, declared that what the socialists really meant to do was to abolish "the iron law of wages." This gave the trained economist a still better opening, and he soon had his opponent committed to the position that the iron law of gravitation should be abolished also. Thus he kept on bowling them over as fast as they came on, until their only resource was to shake their fists at him and try to hiss him off the tribune. But the president of the Chamber remarked that such intense lovers of freedom ought to respect the freedom of speech, and so shamed them into silence, while M. Say went on to tell them more wholesome truths than they had heard for many a day. Such puncturing of socialistic wind-bags is a work which is going to be often required in the near future, and we hope that the Sumners will keep right on letting the gas out of the Bellamys and Elys.

The discourse pronounced by M. Ferdinand Brunetière, on taking his seat in the French Academy two weeks ago, was, according to precedent, mainly a eulogy of his predecessor, M. John Lemoinne of the *Débats*, but contained also a good many sensible observations about journalism, with special reference to its modern developments. The orator contrasted the practice of 1840, when "journalists were not extemporized," and when men of vast attainments like Lemoinne and Littré were in the habit of knowing thoroughly what they wrote about, with the modern journalistic habit —"the deplorable, the alarming, the detestable facility in writing about everything without knowing anything." M. Brunetière had also hard things to say of the triviality and intrusiveness of the modern press, which can tell you all about "the furniture" of a writer, but nothing about his works, and which throws all its strength in the direction of what the readers of fifty years ago would have considered curious impertinences and frivolities. He also lamented the ravages of the reporter of to-day, who extorts "copy" out of his victims, and throws in a liberal assortment of inventions of his own. "This is what is called being very well informed." Still more of a rebuke to the complacent journalism of the present was Brunetière's assertion that "all the ideas on which we live to-day, and which go to make up the substance of contemporary thought, have come to us from the Kants and the Hegels, the Comtes and the Darwins, the Claude Bernards and the Pasteurs and the Taines and the Renans; while the press, after having begun, as a rule, by ridiculing them, has done nothing, or almost nothing, to develop or propagate them."

THE SEIGNIORAGE BILL.

SOME persons may be inclined to take a despondent view of the passage of Mr. Bland's seigniorage bill in the House of Representatives. It is only necessary, however, to look backward a brief space in order to see how great a gain has been made in the interest of sound finance. Less than two years ago, *i. e.*, on the 24th of March, 1892, Mr. Bland was defeated by a majority of two votes only, on a parliamentary motion which had for its aim the free coinage of silver. The fight had been going on ever since the Fifty-second Congress assembled, and it was only by that narrow majority that Mr. Bland was defeated.

Little more than one year passed when the silver panic so long predicted hove in sight. The country was aroused and thoroughly alarmed. Public opinion demanded the immediate repeal of the Sherman act. President Cleveland called Congress together in extraordinary session and recommended such repeal. Before the vote was taken on that question, Mr. Bland offered an amendment providing for the free coinage of silver, and this was voted down, yeas 125, nays 226—that is, by a majority of 101; after which the repeal bill was passed by yeas 239, nays 109—a majority of 130. These votes were given last August by the same House which has now passed the so-called seigniorage bill.

The seigniorage bill is simply a tub to the whale. It enables members who were compelled by public opinion to vote for the repeal of the Sherman act, but who did so reluctantly, to say that they have got something in return. They can tell their Populist allies or enemies, as the case may be, that they are no longer empty-handed. Behold, we are coining silver. We are adding to the stock of money. Hurrah for us!

The bill has been changed since it was first introduced. It does not provide for injecting silver certificates into the currency before the corresponding silver can be coined. There is a certain amount of silver bullion in the Treasury from which a certain number of dollars of 412½ grains each can be coined. If it were all coined at this rate, $55,156,681 of them would belong to the Government; but under existing laws the Government must treat them as it treats its paper money, *i. e.*, keep them at par with gold. The seigniorage bill provides that this sum of $55,156,681 shall be first coined and "used in the payment of public expenditures." Then it authorizes the secretary of the treasury, in his discretion, to anticipate the coinage by means of silver certificates, provided that he shall not issue more than the sum which the whole seigniorage fund would amount to.

After this coinage is effected, the bill provides that the remainder of the bullion—that which theoretically belongs to the holders of the Treasury notes—shall also be coined, and that when any of the corresponding Treasury notes are taken in, they shall be cancelled and destroyed, "and silver certificates shall be issued on such coin in the manner now provided by law."

This is a very curious provision. Let us see how it would work in practice. The Government redeems a million of these Treasury notes in gold, or takes in a million at the custom-house and tax-offices. Then the law says they shall be cancelled and destroyed. How are silver certificates to be issued in place of them "in the manner now provided by law"? The only law on the subject is that of February 28, 1878, the Bland-Allison law, which provides that any holder of silver dollars may deposit the same in the Treasury and receive certificates therefor, and that the coin shall be retained in the Treasury for the payment of the certificates on demand. Now the silver dollars provided for in the pending measure are already in the Treasury. Nobody can deposit any of them, because they have never been outside of the Treasury a single moment, and could not lawfully be outside. The only workable part of this section of the bill is that which requires the secretary to cancel and destroy all of the Treasury notes of 1890 which come into his possession. This would not be a bad thing. Eventually all of these notes and all of the greenbacks must be retired. They are a bastard currency, and the sooner they are got rid of the better.

It is a great humiliation that such a bill should pass one branch of Congress. If it passes both branches, it will, we have little doubt, be brained by an Executive veto. Probably many of the members who voted for it, and who have thus made themselves "solid" with the Populist vote at home, will be glad to have it vetoed.

SOME REFLECTIONS ON McKANE.

THE great spectacle of McKane's march to the penitentiary, to which the morning papers gave from two to four columns, with copious illustrations, will be of little value if we overlook the fact that bosses are not autochthonous—that is, do not spring out of the ground without manure or culture. Consequently, when we put one of them in jail, we do not by any means rid ourselves of bossism. They are the product of a certain condition of the public mind to which we all contribute something. Some of us contribute more than others, but, taking us all together, we produced Tweed, Kelly, Croker, Gilroy, McKane, Paddy Divver, Tom Grady, and scores of others of the same breed. They owe their political existence to the community at large just as much as a child owes his existence to his parents. Tweed had, therefore, a fair right to complain of us as unnatural parents when we put him in jail. So has McKane to-day. We have let his rascality go on unchecked for several years, until at last he reasonably came to the conclusion that the writs of our courts did not run in his bailiwick. Both parties, as we have frequently observed, knew he was a cheat years ago, but both were ready to use him when the occasion came, and each crowed over the votes he illegally cast on its side.

We may say much the same thing of some other bosses. Croker and Gilroy are the heads of a far more formidable conspiracy against the public welfare than either Tweed or McKane ever was, but one of them "owned" the last Legislature and directed corrupt legislation by telegraph from New York, and Gilroy is mayor of the city by a majority vote. "Paddy" Divver, too, who has fled to California, leaving his followers in the lurch, undoubtedly concocted an extensive scheme of electoral fraud before the election, but "Paddy" was actually recommended for a judicial office by the president of the Board of Education and a judge of a court of record; and the Legislature to-day, seeing and knowing the kind of men he and "Barney" Martin are, leave them to administer "justice" to the poor. Can we wonder that the criminal class in this city to-day is bolder and more ambitious and more sure of its position than it ever was in any civilized city before, and feels more wronged when it is sent to the penitentiary?

The encouraging feature about McKane's case is that he is the first boss who has ever been locked up for electoral frauds, which, taken in connection with the wholesale convictions of the Tammany underlings, and the flight of the chiefs to various "warm springs" and mild climates, is a very cheering sign of the times. But these convictions do not go to the root of the evil. The root of the evil is the use of the vote of this city for federal purposes by the Republican party, and its readiness to "deal" with the local Democrats in local offices and in legislation. As long as these practices prevail, the return of the bosses is only a question of time. As long as the city cannot command the votes of its respectable and intelligent class at the election of local officers as long, in short, as the Republican party is ready to "sell the Governorship for the Presidency," and give Croker additional police justiceships or other offices in return for something "equally as good" for the Republican machine—we must expect a continuance of the system which produces Croker and McKane, and which will produce them hereafter as surely as mushrooms grow on dunghills. The very sight of Croker and Gilroy in high places ought to rouse a consuming flame of indignation; but they are really taken as the most natural thing in the world. It was absolutely impossible four (and two) years ago to

keep the voters of the city from handing over the government and all its appurtenances, lock, stock, and barrel, to an organization which everybody you spoke to admitted to be a gang of thieves and reprobates, characterless, conscienceless criminals and adventurers.

If the defeat of Maynard, the conviction of McKane and of the election cheats in this city have the effect of showing the community what it can do if it tries, against the forces of crime and disorder, it will accomplish a most beneficent revolution. The courts have served the public faithfully and well. So have the prosecuting officers. More trying tasks than Mr. Tracy in Brooklyn and Mr. Wellman have had to perform it is difficult to imagine, and Judge Bartlett in trying the case, and Judge Cullen in reviewing it, and Judges Hardin and Barrett in refusing to review it, have all laid the State under great obligations. But they have labored in vain if public opinion does not give them a continuing support. Government by "uprisings" is unworthy of a free people. It may do very well for semi-barbarians, but surely a great commercial city like New York ought not to be the one such place on earth where cheats, thieves, and corruptionists are sure of a good living out of the public treasury.

CONGRESSIONAL APPLAUSE.

No little study has been given to the nature of theatrical applause, with the result that most critics are agreed in finding an element of deep mystery in it. They can do little but classify the sentiments and actions which infallibly bring the audible approval of the audience, without being able to assign any rational or æsthetic principle as the cause. Fine and subtle work by an actor may win him applause, but horse-play is certain to; neat epigram sometimes starts a ripple, but the most flaunting fustian always does; and the thing that invariably sets the thunder rolling from orchestra to top gallery is some such sentiment as, "The man who would put his hand upon a woman save in the way of kindness," etc.

Congressional applause has not had as much critical investigation, so far as we know, but its study yields as much to make the judicious wonder, if not grieve. A first difficulty which besets the inquirer is the question of the trustworthiness of the documents which make up the material of his study. Can he be sure that the thickly sprinkled "[applause]" in the pages of the *Congressional Record* corresponds to actual occurrences on the floor of the House? When an orator is revising his speech, may he not also revise the "[applause]"? Unsettling rumors have been afloat in relation to such practices, and it has been darkly hinted that the official stenographers of the House, when they find a speaker sticking close to the letter of the printed slips he has furnished them in advance, reward him for lightening their labors by being particularly acute of hearing in the matter of applause, so much so that they often mistake a slight stirring of their own feet for an enthusiastic outburst of the whole House. All this makes it necessary to apply the methods of the higher criticism, and compare newspaper reports with the veracious *Record*. Even here caution is necessary. The keen advertising instinct of Congressman Morse of Massachusetts once led him to telegraph his favorite Boston organ to add to the speech of his already in type, "Applause on the Republican side," though attentive observers on the spot noticed nothing but sighs of relief when the end was reached. Still, this was an exceptional case, and where we find, as we are able to, in many instances, newspaper accounts agreeing with the official report, we may be fairly confident that the material for studying congressional applause is sufficiently trustworthy.

But sift his material as carefully as he may, the patient inquirer will not be able to get much beyond his fellow-worker in the theatrical field in his attempts to decide what the real reason is for applause of the actors on the congressional stage. Certain general classifications of applause-compelling sentiment can be made. There is the patriotic sentiment, which no Representative with the eyes of the people upon him can neglect to applaud. Let the most plodding orator pause a moment in his monotonous career to remark that this is the greatest, strongest, freest, happiest, wisest, and most virtuous country God ever made, and the grateful uproar breaks out on both sides of the House impartially. Praise of our physical bigness, too, is sure of a flattering reception. Opening the *Record* by chance, we find Congressman Patterson of Tennessee declaring, on January 31:

> "The Mediterranean of Europe pales into insignificance compared with this our Mediterranean. For the fertile valleys which are drained by the rivers flowing into this great American sea surpass in extent and in variety of production all the fertile valleys drained by all the other navigable rivers of the habitable globe. [Great applause.]"

This is no great mystery, nor is the partisan applause which follows in the wake of party eulogy. Logical retort, in the shape of glowing predictions of a great party triumph at the next election, naturally rouses the associates of the speaker into rapture as great as the mortification with which it overwhelms his opponents. All this the investigator can understand, even while he mourns over it; but what is he going to do when he runs upon such a passage as this: "The farmers of the United States are annually robbed [great applause]"? Or this: "Every grant in the Constitution is stretched and distorted [great applause]"? Or this: "We contemplate the misery of our country [loud applause on the Republican side]"?

At first sight this looks alarmingly like applauding the villain of the play at the very moment when he is gloating over his victims. This, as every well-instructed theatre-goer knows, would be highly dangerous to public morals, and on no stage but the congressional would it be tolerated for an instant. The hypothesis might be advanced that the villany, open and unblushing as it seems, was yet veiled to the simple-minded auditors of the House, who applauded it, as Partridge did the acting of the *King* in "Hamlet," on the ground that any man so capable of concealing his real character, and of shouting so loudly, must be a transcendent actor. Narrower scrutiny, however, will show that the applause given such cold-blooded sentiments was of an exculpatory sort. Loudly to applaud the assertion that the farmers are robbed and the Constitution violated, is clear proof that you are not one of the robbers or the violators, as it is well known that they always hang their heads in shame on such occasions. And when the Republicans were so gleeful over the miseries of the country, they simply meant to insinuate that the way to give every man an office and diffuse peace and plenty at a tremendous per capita, was to give them a chance to enact some more panic-breeding laws.

One development of congressional applause every lover of his kind will deprecate, and that is the political-convention kind. This broke out at the close of the tariff debate in the House, and the rival cheers for Messrs. Reed and Wilson were like the insensate shouting and banner-waving at a national convention, designed to convince wavering delegates that the cat is going to jump this way or that. But the congressional cat is not frightened off the fence by such outcries, and the House should firmly resist this attempt to rob it of one of its last remaining semblances of rationality.

PUBLIC LOAN-OFFICES IN EUROPE.

The public pawnshop in Bologna, Italy, recently received a bequest of over 300,000 lire. The incident attracted some attention locally because of the amount of the legacy, but none whatever because of the character of the legatee. The incorporation in New York of the Provident Loan Society with a capital of $100,000 attracts attention for an opposite reason. Compared with the wealth of its incorporators, the sum involved is trivial, but the purpose of the society is new here. This community, following the English example, has long regarded the lending of money upon any personal property except securities or other evidences of indebt-

edness as a gainful occupation, much like any other. The incorporators of the Provident Loan Society take a different view, familiar enough upon the continent of Europe: they regard such lending as a form of charity. Licensed pawnbrokers, pursuing their trade for profit, are, indeed, common in Italy and in Germany. But the endowed *monti di pietà* in the former country and the municipal loan offices in the latter as a rule set the tone in the poor men's money market almost as completely as does the Bank of England in the money market of the rich.

Public loan-offices in Europe are almost invariably conducted on business principles. They are self-supporting. A surplus, however, is the signal for prompt lowering of the rate of interest. Consequently they lend cheap. In New York the legal rate of pawnbroker's interest on loans of less than one hundred dollars is 3 per cent. per month for the first six months, and 2 per cent. per month thereafter; in other words, 30 per cent. per annum. And this rate is exacted. In Prussia the maximum rate permitted upon loans of less than $7.50 is 2 per cent. per month; upon larger loans, as upon all loans in France, it is 12½ per cent. yearly. The actual interest is frequently lower, and, in general, pawnbrokers' loans are probably made on the Continent at less than half the rates which prevail in New York. Whether, on the other hand, the amounts advanced upon pledges of like value are on the whole larger there than here, may well be doubted. A general comparison is difficult to make, since conditions vary not only with the nature of the article pawned, but also with the place. For example, the unredeemed pledges sold by the public loan-offices in Belgium during the year 1890 brought in for their former owners 27 per cent. more than the amount loaned upon them, with accrued interest; whereas the Paris *mont-de-piété* lost over five thousand dollars by valuing articles too high. Upon household furniture and upon clothing, save the most expensive, the American pawnbroker, when he accepts them at all, advances very little, partly, no doubt, because of the uncertainty of their value, partly, too, because of the expense of storing them for more than a year before the law allows them to be sold. Upon such articles Continental loan-offices are, so far as an observer can judge, more liberal in their advances.

A curious result of this liberality is, that, in parts of southern Germany and of Italy, many of the wage-earners keep their best clothes regularly in pawn, redeeming them the evening before Sundays and other holidays and returning them the morning after. The amounts lent upon ordinary clothing in New York are too small to encourage this peculiar method of realizing upon idle assets. But upon valuable jewelry, and especially upon diamonds, sharp competition apparently forces the American pawnbroker to advance a larger proportion of the price which a dealer would pay for them out and out than could be obtained at the majority of public loan-offices in Europe. Indeed, many managers of such offices purposely refuse to make advances upon gems to the full limit of safety, holding that, in such cases, moderate undervaluation helps to secure the ultimate redemption of the pawn.

It is not unusual for Continental offices, especially before advancing any considerable sum upon a pledge, to demand some certificate of good character from the person offering it. The organizers of the Provident Loan Society likewise plan, it is reported, to require from each would-be borrower the recommendation of some charitable organization. This requirement may exclude the drunkard and the spendthrift from the society's offices, but so long as thousands of commercial pawnshops remain open, it will not diminish pawning for the wherewithal of a spree. Your low-class drunkard is no provident fellow. A few per cent. more interest will not deter him from pawning anything pawnable, nor will a few per cent. less entice him to more frequent dissipation. In short, the proposed requirement will diminish very little if at all the amount of undesirable pawning. Meanwhile there is danger that it may lessen the usefulness of the society to those classes whom the society most desires to serve. The proud needy—and in time of depression such are especially numerous—know well that with the commercial pawnbroker they stand on a business basis. He may drive an extortionate bargain—but a bargain it is, not alms. The society's requirement gratuitously thrusts in their faces the fact that at its hands they are the recipients of charity; and many of them will avoid the society in consequence. This may seem fanciful, but it is not; experience bears it out. At the royal pawnshop in Berlin, which lends to all comers, there were, according to an investigation made in October, 1890, among 3,000 borrowers 626 widows and spinsters and 234 artists, students, civil officials, and officers, a large proportion of whom would have shunned direct public relief. Even as it is, many Berliners are believed to avoid a personal visit to the pawnshop, and it is by no means singular for a *Dienstmann*, who must be paid at least twelve cents for the service, to be employed to bring in a pledge upon which but a dollar or two is lent. On the other hand, those loan-offices (and there are not a few of them in various Continental cities) which loan to approved persons without any interest whatever, find nevertheless relatively few frequenters—a fact that must be explained rather by the sensitiveness than by the unworthiness of the needy.

The public loan-office has, as compared with commercial pawnshops, certain indisputable advantages. It conceals no "fences." It lowers pawn interest. It effectually limits the number of pawnshops. The German industrial census of 1882 reports for the city of Berlin 155 establishments, public and private. Dresden, a larger city than Buffalo, had in 1890 but 23. Thus, while municipal pawnshops, by their low rate of interest, protect the needy from extortion, their small number prevents the extended abuse of their privileges by the idle and the vicious. To pay next year at the rate of 30 per cent. is, for the indolent, a less present evil than to carry a bundle today for thirty blocks or for half that distance. The results of fewer pawnshops are plain. Berlin had in 1890 a population of over a million and a half. In that year 236,949 articles were pledged in the loan-offices, perhaps twice or thrice as many more in various private pawnshops. In the inner circle of London, with a population of about three and one-half millions, there were, according to the report of the Commons' committee on pawnbrokers (1870), over thirty million articles pawned. Similar statistics for New York are not at hand, but there can be no doubt that the swarm of pawnshops which crowd the poorer parts of the city by their very number and accessibility contribute largely towards keeping those parts poor.

Relief from the abuses of the pawnbroking trade may, however, be secured by another and safer channel than that of municipalization. That a score of private citizens should come forward at this time of need to undertake a public duty for whose performance German and Frenchman alike look to the state, is significant not alone because of the direct philanthropic value of their act, but also because of its broader aspects and implications. If the competition of the Provident Loan Society results, as it eventually may, in lowering pawn interest and in reducing the number of pawnshops in this city, its incorporators will have succeeded in much more than their first intent: they will have given a conspicuous and intelligent exhibition of a spirit of individualism in the best sense American.

THE SITUATION IN ENGLAND.

It has been settled that, Lord Rosebery being prime minister, Sir William Harcourt will act under him as leader of the House of Commons. There is no one else in the Liberal party in the House who is fit for this latter place, and it is also safe to say that there is no one at all quite fit for the former at the

present crisis. Sir William Harcourt is not quite trusted by the Radicals, his conversion to their doctrines being somewhat recent, and it being well known that he never had much heart in home rule. But the most serious obstacle in his way is the badness of his manners, which is in these days, when there are so many sensitive men of low degree in the House, very important. Mr. Gladstone was the pink of courtesy to everybody, gentle and simple, young and old, and he finds on this point a worthy successor in Lord Rosebery, who is cheery, good-humored, humorous, and democratic in his ways. It is a serious loss to the party to have him in the House of Lords. Lord Kimberley has been an excellent colonial secretary, and will probably make just as good a foreign secretary, as long as the object is to keep the peace.

But the cabinet changes, except the filling of Mr. Gladstone's place, are unimportant compared to the probable attitude of the Irish and extreme Radicals towards his successor. The existence of the ministry depends on the Irish. Gladstone was an enthusiastic advocate of their cause. His heart was wholly in it. No one who succeeds him is likely to take it up so seriously—certainly not Lord Rosebery. His speech in the House of Lords on the home-rule bill showed that the whole Irish question was somewhat of a puzzle to him, if indeed he did not consider it wholly insoluble. Mr. John Morley, too, is tired out, as any man must be who tries to administer Ireland from Dublin Castle and at the same time sit in the House of Commons. He has not answered all the expectations of the Irish, especially in the matter of the evicted tenants, but they had faith in him and, therefore, patience with him. Whether these things will last under his successor, and especially under Gladstone's successor, is open to doubt. The Parnellite section of the Irish are already beginning to push the rumor that home rule will now be dropped, and shout, "I told you so."

There is one consideration, however, which is likely to keep them quiet for a considerable time. The House of Lords is now the main, if not the only, obstacle to home rule. There is little doubt that the bill could be passed again in the Commons without much difficulty. The rejection of it by the Lords did not rouse the English Liberals against the Lords, which was a great disappointment to the Irish. It showed, however, that there were very serious limits to English enthusiasm on that subject. The treatment of the parish-councils bill and the employers'-liability bill by the Lords has done what their treatment of the home-rule bill failed to do. It has made the reform or abolition of the Lords a question of practical politics, and inserted it in the Radical programme.

It would be madness for the Irish to interrupt this movement against the upper house by the overthrow of the Liberal ministry, and they are not at all likely to do so. There are various things, short of the abolition of the upper chamber, which would bring the Lords to reason. One would be a simple resolution of the House of Commons denying their right to veto bills. This would probably reduce their rôle to that of simple revisers, without much trouble. The practice of rejecting bills would drop into desuetude without one specific abrogation, just as the practice of hearing legal appeals by lay lords has dropped into desuetude. They might all sit and vote on legal appeals, but they never do it; it is left to the law lords. Another plan of reform is the abolition of hereditary succession and the election to the House of Lords for life by the whole body of peers, as the Irish and Scotch peers are now elected; but this would not get over the difficulty of the persistent Toryism of all peers. No matter what changes may occur in public opinion, or how large the Liberal majority in the lower house may be, the Lords remain always overwhelmingly Conservative, and pass with alacrity all bills of whatever character sent up to them by a Conservative Ministry, and as unfailingly throw out all Liberal measures sent up by a Liberal Ministry. The system of election by the peers themselves would not change this. If a second chamber is to be preserved, nothing will satisfy the Radicals but some mode of changing the composition of the upper house directly or indirectly by the popular vote. The house might still be composed of peers, but they would have to be peers who owed their seats to popular election. This would probably end in filling that house with new creations on account of some kind of previous distinction, thus making it a body somewhat like the Roman Senate. The sovereign would make a man a peer, but it would remain with the people to make him a legislator.

However the question may be settled, it is probably going to be the question of the day, and the one which will keep the Irish in the Liberal ranks. They, more than Englishmen, have to complain of the Lords. There are very few of their grievances which, during the past fifty years, the Commons have not made some attempt to redress, and which the vote of the Lords has not kept standing.

THE LIGNEROLLES LIBRARY.

PARIS, February 15, 1894.

THERE was a Lignerolles among the companions of Henri IV. His last descendant, Comte de Lignerolles, who died last year, acquired a great reputation in the small world of the bibliophiles. He was himself a bibliophile *par excellence;* he was never married, he had a good income, and his income was spent almost wholly in the acquisition of rare and choice books. He devoted his whole life—a long life, as he was more than seventy years old when he died—to making a library which is now being sold at auction. There has always been in Paris a certain number of book-collectors. There is a society called "Société des Bibliophiles Français," which holds regular meetings and which occasionally publishes a book; its honorary president is the prince of bibliophiles, the Duc d'Aumale. Baron Jérôme Pichon was long its acting president; now M. de Villeneuve is. A younger society, called "Les Amis des Livres," has since its origin been presided over by M. Paillet, son of a famous lawyer and himself a magistrate at the Court of Appeals; the Duc d'Aumale is also honorary president of this younger society, which publishes illustrated works that have acquired some reputation.

M. de Lignerolles belonged to the elder society, and was one of its most important members. He was to be seen in all parts of Paris where a bookseller is found, especially on the quays of the Seine. He read all the catalogues; he did not disdain to rummage in those wooden boxes which the *bouquinistes* fill with all the rubbish of old books and pamphlets they can lay their hands upon. He was very modest, very learned, extremely cautious. He had a separate apartment for his immense library, and he very seldom allowed anybody to see his treasures. Nobody ever knew to whom he gave his commissions in a public sale; he had all the passion of a man who keeps a hoard.

This treasury is now under all eyes; the library collected during so many years with such care, such labor, and kept with such vigilance, will be sold in three separate parts. The first part is already sold; it was the portion of the library consecrated to "manuscripts, theology, jurisprudence, sciences, and arts." The manuscripts were chiefly old "Horæ," executed on vellum and adorned with miniatures. One of these volumes bears the arms of Philip V., King of Spain. Among later manuscripts, a very high place is always given to those which were written in the seventeenth century by Nicolas Jarry; this remarkable artist has never been equalled. I must mention also a "Vision of Tondal," a manuscript executed for Margaret of York, Duchess of Burgundy, the wife of Charles the Bold. The "Vision of Tondal" was analyzed by Thomas Wright in his 'St. Patrick's Purgatory,' published in London in 1844.

It is difficult to analyze a catalogue, and I will enumerate only a few of the most interesting works collected by M. de Lignerolles. The 'Office de la Semaine Sainte,' presented by Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette to the Princesse de Lamballe, was one of the finest jewels of his collection. He bought it many years ago for the sum of 2,000 francs, and it was sold on February 1, 1894, for the sum of 30,000 francs to an agent, it is said, of M. Ferdinand de Rothschild of London. This precious relic was given to Mme. de Lamballe, with these lines inscribed by Louis XVI. on a flyleaf: "Madame my cousin, to-day is your fête-day. I beg you to accept this book, which came to me from my mother, in which I learned to pray God. I pray to Him for you. He blesses your virtues"—signed "Louis." Beneath these lines are a few more in the hand of Marie Antoinette: "My dear heart, I also will speak to you of my utter friendship on this occasion. I come after the King, but I am in the same rank in my friendship for you. My children also love you. We all pray to God on our

knees for your happiness. The children know well, my dear Lamballe, that you like to look upon them as if they were your own, and you are in their prayers as well as in their hearts." A long autograph letter of Marie Antoinette to Mme. de Lamballe, on the subject of her mother's death, and a few lines from the King, had been added to this 'Semaine Sainte,' but the dedication was enough to give it a very high value.

Books which bear the arms of Marie Antoinette (France and Austria) have attained a very great value since the time of the Second Empire. The Empress Eugénie contributed more than anybody to increase their price by becoming a collector of all the relics of the unfortunate Queen. She had a notion that she would perhaps some day have the same fate—a notion which has fortunately been contradicted by the facts, as the Empress Eugénie comes to Paris as often as she likes, and nobody has ever shown the slightest intention to interfere with her liberty. The library of Marie Antoinette has been catalogued, and this catalogue has been published; it is a singular mixture of serious books and of the light novels of her time. We find in M. de Lignerolles's library a volume of 'Prières et Instructions Chrétiennes,' and 'L'Esprit de Nicole,' with the arms of the Queen.

A very interesting volume is an 'Imitation of Jesus-Christ' bearing the arms of Henrietta of France, Queen of England, the wife of Charles I. On the binding is the device, "Honi soit qui mal y pense." An interesting autograph letter of Henrietta to Cardinal Mazarin has been inserted in the volume. It is dated December 10, 1645, and written from St.-Germain:

"My Cousin: Having received a letter from the King my Lord, I send it to you by Firmin, as I feared that a journey as sudden as mine would excite some suspicion in our friends and enemies if I carried it myself, since it is to ask some succor in our last extremities, as you will see in the letter which I send to you. I will not press you on any particular point, as you know well enough our necessities and have sufficiently manifested to me your disposition to assist us. What I will do is to show the state to which the King my Lord is reduced, and ask your advice, etc."

There have always been ladies among our most celebrated bibliophiles, and their books are very much disputed in the public sales. None rank higher than those of Mme. de Maintenon. M. de Lignerolles had a precious copy of the 'Imitation of Jesus Christ,' translated by the Abbé de Choisy (Paris: Antoine Dezallier, 1692). This copy, which bears the lion of the D'Aubignés, has, besides, a note: "This book was given to Mlle. de Gentil La Jonchapt [Mme. de Rutant] by Mme. de Maintenon." This edition has become very rare. In the second book there is an engraving representing Mme. de Maintenon praying in the chapel of Versailles, with the words "Audi, filia" in a ray of light coming from heaven. The courtiers, who knew what followed—"quia rex concupiscet carnem tuam" (these words, of course, did not appear in the engraving)—made merry over this singular illustration of a religious work. Most of the copies were afterwards suppressed, and in the succeeding editions this engraving does not appear. At the head of the dedicatory epistle to the King there is a small vignette representing the chapel of Versailles.

We find another work with the arms of Mme. de Maintenon, the 'Instruction Pastorale' of the Archbishop of Paris, Louis Antoine de Noailles, on Christian perfection and inner life, written against the "false mystics" at the time of the great struggle between the Jesuits and the Jansenists. We find, also, and this is certainly one of the most precious books in the collection, a copy of the original edition of "Esther," written by Racine for the demoiselles de Saint Cyr, at the request of Mme. de Maintenon; her own copy with her arms.

Among the best bound books we know are the books of Mme. de Chamillart; they are always invariably bound in olive morocco trimmed with red morocco. Her arms are always inside on the lining. She was the wife of Chamillart, a great favorite of Louis XIV. and of Mme. de Maintenon. Saint-Simon does not speak well of her intelligence, but admits that she was a good woman. She has become one of the idols of the bibliophiles. M. de Lignerolles owned her copy of Pascal's 'Provinciales' (the eighth edition only), her copy of Fontenelle's 'Entretiens sur la Pluralité des Mondes,' her copy of the works of Corneille in ten beautiful volumes.

Among other books which belonged to illustrious ladies, I may cite 'Les Soliloques, les Méditations de St. Augustin,' the copy of the Duchesse de Bourgogne, and Bossuet's 'Politique tirée de l'Écriture Sainte,' with the arms of Marie-Éléonore d'Este, daughter of Alphonse d'Este, Duke of Modena, the wife of James II. There are several works bearing the joint and crowned monograms of Louis XIII. and of Anne of Austria, a 'Life of Christ,' a theological work under the title of 'Fleurs des Exemples,' and "Célestine," a sort of tragi-comedy, by Jacques de Lavardin. M. de Lignerolles possessed several other books of a royal origin. The 'Livre singulier et utile,' a work on astronomy and geometry, printed by Simon de Collines in Paris in 1543, is a magnificent volume, which bears the royal crown, the salamander (which was the emblem adopted by Francis I., and is everywhere to be found in the château of Fontainebleau), and the crowned F. The style of these bindings of the time of the Valois has never been surpassed. Grolier, for instance, had a large number of books, but their ornamentation was never the same; you cannot find two identical bindings of this celebrated collector. They all, however, have the inscription, "Grolieri et amicorum," and many have, besides, "Pars mea sit in terra viventium." The finest Groliers are in our great public libraries. M. de Lignerolles had but one, the 'Catullus, Tibullus, et Propertius' of Aldus, 1515, a copy in an excellent state of preservation. Henri III. had admirable binders and a very curious and large collection of books. We find in M. de Lignerolles's collection his 'Treatise on the most Holy Communion,' with the usual ornaments of his books, the death's head, the holy women at the foot of the cross, and the device, "Spes mea Deus." Henri IV. had not much time to collect books; the few which have been left bearing his arms are extremely dear. M. de Lignerolles had one, which is a perfect jewel, with its original binding in white vellum, all covered with golden fleurs-de-lis, and with the double arms of France and Navarre. This volume is a 'Recueil de quelques vers amoureux,' by Bertaut, who was one of the favorite authors of the King.

So far, we have only two volumes of the catalogue. The second volume, which has more than two thousand items, is devoted entirely to belles-lettres. The third volume will embrace all the works, pamphlets, and documents which concern history. M. de Lignerolles was among those who understood early the great value, for the history of France, of those numberless small *pièces* which were printed in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and of which the "Mazarinades" are a type. These *pièces* were really the press of the time; they are the echo of all the prevailing passions; they give us the true color of an age which has too often been studied in the light of modern ideas. It is almost a pity that a collection made with so much care and bound at such expense by M. de Lignerolles should be dispersed, and should not have been kept as a whole in one of our public libraries.

Correspondence.

NO QUORUM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Alluding to the fact that the House of Representatives passed the month of February in futile attempts to get its own members to come in and vote, the *Nation* of the 1st inst. asks this question:

"Why is it that in the one legislative body [Congress] there is this frequently recurring condition of affairs, and that in the other [the Legislature of New York] it never exists?"

I have propounded the enigma to a number of intelligent persons in this city without receiving one satisfactory reply. The explanations attempted were mere suppositions: that the rules were different; that the Legislature, being a small body, there were few if any absentees, etc., etc. If some of your New York readers would propound the question to a hundred intelligent New Yorkers, *who have not read the article above referred to*, and publish the result of their replies, it would enable us to judge whether even the thinking part of the community have ever noticed a difference between majority and minority legislation. N.

Washington, March 2, 1894.

SCOTT'S FIRST LOVE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the March number of the *Atlantic Monthly*, in commenting upon the recently published 'Letters of Sir Walter Scott,' a contributor says: "It is strange that any attempt should be made to keep up the mystery connected with Scott's first love." Is it to be expected that the children of Lady Ann Scott will unveil it? It was not only a mystery but a tragedy which altered Scott's whole life, and made possible its sorrowful close. Whoever wishes to see her beautiful face and learn what the Forbeses are willing to tell, will find it in the 'Life of Principal Forbes of St. Andrews,' published a few years since.

If I could remember as completely and satisfactorily as I can forget, I could give you the minutest details of the story, but of what follows I am sure. Coming out of church in Edinburgh one summer's day, Scott found himself confronted by a heavy shower. After his canny fashion, he had his umbrella under his arm; but near him, under the porch, stood a delicate young girl, thinly dressed and entirely unprotected. It was supposed that the shower would pass, but the rain grew heavier and heavier. They had chatted as they waited, and at last Scott timidly offered her his umbrella. It was discovered that their paths lay in the same direction, and his offer was accepted on condition that he should himself carry it. On the way it was discovered that the mother of Scott and the mother of the lady had been intimate friends in their early life, but had lost sight of each other. This natu-

rally led to further intercourse, which continued for about three years. Scott was infatuated from the first, and always believed he should win the lady, until the appearance of the man she married. She hesitated long, but finally decided as we know. In a fit of mingled pique and pride, Scott hastened away, and offered himself at once to the young French girl whom he hardly knew, having danced with her once at a ball.

I learned these particulars (and I have them in writing) from a dear friend, who had been also the friend of Scott, of the Forbeses, and of the whole set to which they belonged, as well as Dr. Brown and "Pet Marjorie." Many are the precious letters that I have read touching on this matter.

It was the opinion of the whole circle that Scott's impetuous nature needed precisely the balance that this lady would have given it. If he had married her, Abbotsford would never have been built, and his sweet and cordial nature would never have known the tortures of bankruptcy. The steady and tender affection which Scott gave to his wife, to whom he had told the whole story in the beginning, and the magnanimous assistance and sympathy given to his first love's husband after her death, never failed to elicit from his old friends a half-indignant admiration.

CAROLINE H. DALL.

WASHINGTON, March 3, 1894.

A BRACE OF WHIMS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The following significant question, proposed by a critic writing from California, appears in the issue of the *Educational Review* for last October:

"What good results in teaching English, pure but not affected, and easy without slovenliness, can be looked for from young women who say *I wished I was home*, and *at all?*"

"I wished I *was home*," as a phrase of familiar discourse, is, far from infrequently, English which no well-informed person will censure. Though "I *was home* all last week" is not to be tolerated, yet, except in purposely formal language, there is no objection to such an expression as "I *was home* by sunset," for "I *reached home* by sunset," or "I *am home* again," return home being intended. That expressions more or less similar to these have long obtained could be shown by many quotations besides those hereto subjoined:

"He *is home* to his fadir." John Pampyng (1470), in *Paston Letters* (1872-'75), vol. ii., p. 403.

"The Erle of Northomberlonde is *hoome* in to the Northe." Sir John Paston (1472), *ibid.*, vol. iii., p. 39.

"He expected *to be home* this last Spring." "My dear brother *has* now *been home* these three weeks." Miss Frances Burney (1769), *Early Diary* (1889), vol. i., pp. 56, 61.

"We *shall be home* in five minutes." "I . . . asked Mrs. Selwyn if we *should* not *be* late *home*." *Ead.*, *Evelina* (1778), chapters xxi., lxiii.

"Sister, . . . we *shall be* dark *home*." Mrs. A. M. Bennett, *Juvenile Indiscretions* (1785), vol. i., p. 47 (ed. 1786).

"He informed him . . . that he *would be home* to dinner." "They were informed . . . that he intended *being home* to dinner." Anon., *History of Ned Evans* (1796), vol. i., pp. 196, 222.

"Assuring her . . . that Mr. Fitzroy *would be home* in a short period." Mrs. M. Pilkington, *Celebrity* (1815), vol. ii , p. 202.

"I think it very probable I *shall* not *be home* by Easter." Cardinal Newman (1832), *Letters* (1891), vol. i., p. 285.

"Peter Young . . . talked of *being home* in three weeks." "Peter Young *is home* again." Rev. John Keble (1854), in Sir J. T. Coleridge's *Memoir*, etc., pp. 404, 409 (ed. 1869).

"I *shall be home* by midnight." Rev. F. E. Paget, *Owlet of Owlstone Edge* (1856), p. 190.

"The deceased gentleman *had* not *been home* all night." London *Daily News*, Jan. 1, 1894, p. 6, col. 6.

These quotations are additional to ten of like character, one of them being from Dr. Johnson, which I brought forward in the *Nation*, No. 1294, dated April 17, 1890.

But not only when it is connected with the verb *be*, implying motion, and in many such phrases as "go *home*," "strike *home*," etc., is *home* an adverb:

"I wolde have it *hoome* for my suster Anne." Sir John Paston (1476), in *Paston Letters* (1872-75), vol. iii., p. 166.

"They do not onely not call themselues *home* & turne to a better mynde. nor yet be pacified and appeased," etc. Anon., Trans. of *Erasmus Paraphrase* (1548), *John*, fol. 57 *v.*

"The captaine of the isle had them *home* vnto his house." Rev. Richard Hakluyt, Trans. of *Galvano's Discoveries of the World* (1601), p. 126 (ed. 1862).

"These . . . swore for Cæsar, and swore the Matter *home*." Rev. Edmund Hickeringill (1681), *Works* (1716), vol. i., p. 191.

"My Father then told me, he would send for my Brother *home*." "At Fourteen, my Father sent for me *home*." Miss Sarah Fielding, *Adventures of David Simple* (1744), vol. i., p. 266, vol. ii., p. 100 (2nd ed.).

"Send for your daughter and son-in-law *home*." Henry Fielding, *Tom Jones* (1750), Book vii., ch. x.

"How did we come *home* by it, think you?" T. L. Peacock, *Melincourt* (1817), ch. xxix. Here, apparently, is an Irishism.

"I have been writing to Bertha and her Sister concerning their return, wishing to have them *home* before I start for the south." Robert Southey (1825), *Letters* (1856), vol. iii., p. 481.

"The hydropathic system . . . rather seems to be constructed for the special benefit of Indian officers *home* on leave." *Saturday Review*, vol. xiv., p. 480 (1862).

"Sigvald and the Vikings prepared to see him *home*." Sir G. W. Dasent, *Vikings of the Baltic* (1875), vol. i., p. 230.

The *Standard Dictionary*, now coming out, has, under the adverb *home*, as its signification: "To or at home; as, let us go *home; home* at last." But, besides that "*home* at last" is thus explained inadequately, the definition given of its *home* would authorize the phrase which has been characterized above as not to be tolerated.

The omission of a preposition, as in "to *stay dinner*," a locution which lasted more than two hundred years, but has lately gone out of fashion, I have dwelt on elsewhere. And it is worth mentioning that, as might have been expected, since the intransitive *stop* acquired the sense of "stay," some writers, like the author of a novel before me, have used "to *stop dinner*," meaning "to *stay to dinner*."

In the same category with these shortenings is "to *stay home* from school," which is probably heard equally often in England and in the United States. No one, it may be presumed, would commend this way of speaking; and yet what is now a mere vulgarism, "to *keep home*," though unrecorded by all lexicographers known to me, enjoyed good repute in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and was not wholly obsolete in the literature of the eighteenth:

"See that you *keepe home* nowe in my absence." Richard Bernard, Trans. of *Terence* (1598), p. 144 (ed. 1607). The Latin is: "Domi adsitis, facite."

"True zeale loues to *keepe home*, studieth to bee quiet in other mens Dioces." Rev. Samuel Ward, *A Coale from the Altar* (1616), p. 14 (ed. 1627).

"The Citizens which *kept home*, vnderstanding what slaughter was made of their Friends and Neighbours, shut their doores," etc. Maxwell, Trans. of *Herodian of Alexandria his History*, etc. (1629), vol. i., p. 43. Also in vol. i., p. 178; vol. ii., pp. 60, 71. The original of the passage cited has οἱ ἐν τῇ πόλει μείναντες that of two of the places referred to, οἶκοι, etc., and νῦν ἡσυχάζουσιν for "are now glad to *keepe home*" (vol. ii., p. 60).

"Poland . . . in the mean time *kept home*, had an eye to the main chance, and defended Europe against forrein invaders." Rev. Dr. Thomas Fuller, *Historie of the Holy Warre* (1639), p. 267 (ed. 1647).

"For his particular, therefore, he would not come [printed *some*] there, as having more reason to *keep home*, and provide against the Rebellions and Mischiefs," etc. Lord Herbert (died 1649), *Life and Reign of King Henry the Eighth* (ed. 1683), p. 488.

"Do you *keep home?*" Laurence Echard, etc. Trans. of *Terence* (1694), p. 75 (ed. 1729).

"Though you *keep home*, you do not much 'tease the housewife's wool.'" *Test of Filial Duty* (1772), vol. i., p. 158.

Ward, in his homily already quoted, writes, in p. 56, "Wee professe, *keepe* our *Church*, heare Sermons, as Christians ought to doe"; and we have *keep house*, etc. With respect to "*keep* home," our ancestors, although they used also "*keep at* home," regarded the idea of being attentive to and that of restricting oneself to as near enough akin for one and the same word to convey both. Instead of *keep on one's feet*, 'be able to stand,' we at present optionally say, though by ellipsis, *keep one's feet*, as also *keep one's bed* for *keep to one's bed*, and so on. But the old *take one's bed*, for *take to one's bed*, *take one's heels or legs*, for *take to one's heels or legs*, and *take the water*, for *take to the water*, could hardly have been felt to be elliptical.

After these protracted details, the reader will, perhaps, require to be reminded that the second of the whims under notice is the cashiering of the phrasal adverb *at all*.

According to the philology of popular ignorance, with Mr. William Mathews, LL.D., as its mouthpiece:

"*At all* is a needless expletive, which is employed by many writers of what may be called the forcible-feeble school. For example: 'The coach was upset; but, strange to say, not a passenger received the slightest injury *at all*.' 'It is not *at all* strange.'" *Words: Their Use and Abuse* (1876), p. 347.

When and where English like "swear not *at all*" was ever the exclusive property of "the forcible-feeble school" of writers, we are not informed by Dr. Mathews. Whether there are any grounds for his estimate of it, one not unusual, certain of the annexed quotations will suffice to suggest:

"As to your brother, I have really no anger against him *at all*." Fielding, *Tom Jones* (1750), Book i., ch. xii.

"There may be some minute differences in the dress of the spectators, but none *at all* in their understandings." Goldsmith, *Citizen of the World* (1760), Letter lxxxvi.

"I was not tired *at all*, either last night or to-day." Dr. Johnson, *Letter*, June 22, 1771.

"I am ready to kill any one of you *at all*." Robert Bage, *Barham Downs* (1784), vol. ii., p. 44.

"Neither can I *at all* doubt that, if you were to tell me," etc. William Cowper, *Letter*, Dec. 7, 1785.

"The legislator, . . . who knows nothing *at all* about the matter," etc. Jeremy Bentham, *Defence of Usury* (1787), p. 36 (ed. 1816).

"He from that time ceased *at all* to mention an affair which before appeared to occupy his whole attention." Mrs. Hughes, *Henry and Isabella* (1788), vol. i., p. 51.

"Without *at all* excluding a principle of improvement." Burke, *Reflections*, etc. (1790), p. 48.

"Such is the proneness of all strong feelings, whether good or bad, that the progress from any one passion to any other seems to be quite as easy and natural as the progress from tranquillity to passion *at all*." Rev. Sydney Smith, *Elementary Sketches of Moral Philosophy* (1804-6), p. 339 (ed. 1850).

"It must surely be absurd to apprehend a preponderance of evil from works which cannot act *at all*, except," etc. Coleridge, *The Friend* (1809-10), vol. i., p. 95 (ed. 1818).

"One could not arrive *at all:* another, not till near day-break." Southey, *Life of Nelson* (1813), vol. ii., p. 174.

"Still the main question is, whence he derived his expectation that this wonderful infant would *at all* appear." Rev. G. S. Faber, *Horæ Mosaicæ* (ed. 1818), vol. i., p. 79. "It may be expected that I should say something as to their right to be considered Churches *at all*." *Id.*, *An Inquiry*, etc. (1838), p. 553.

"Do I complain of that masquerading? Not *at all*." De Quincey (1823), *Works* (ed. 1863), vol. xii., p. 101, foot-note.

"But it is not *at all* wonderful they should be moved in a certain form." Thomas Taylor, *Fragments of Proclus* (1825), p. 14.

"Has he interfered *at all* in the events of ages past?" Bp. Hampden, *Parochial Sermons* (1828), p. 23.

"Detached, did I say? No, not detached from the church *at all*." W. S. Landor, *Letters of a Conservative* (1836), p. 17. "He had no right to be there *at all*." *Id.*, *Letters of an American* (1854), p. 60.

"I do assure you that, if it were not on your account, I should have already given up writing for the Review *at all*." Lord Macaulay, *Letter*, Jan. 18, 1843. "Here, in June, 1783, he had a paralytic stroke, from which, however, he recovered, and which does not appear to have *at all* impaired his intellectual faculties." *Id.*, *Samuel Johnson* (1856).

"As life advances, and we find in how small a degree our happiness depends upon the sympathy of our acquaintances, the difficulty is to care for it *at all*, or to take any pains to seek it." Rev. Dr. W. Whewell (1847), *Life*, etc., by Mrs. Stair Douglas (1881), p. 337.

"Their want of faith absolutely hindered them from *at all* comprehending the words of faith." Rev. John Keble (1851), *Occasional Papers and Reviews* (1877), p. 253.

"His appearance *at all* during the summer is not an act de rigueur in this part of the world." Lord Dufferin, *Letters from High Latitudes* (1857), p. 337.

"Wilt thou send *at all* a man to tell him of the slaying?" Sir G. W. Dasent, *Story of Burnt Njal* (1861), vol. i., p. 116. "I only mention him *at all*, because you cannot know everything about me, unless I tell you a little about him." *Id.*, *Half a Life* (1874) vol. i., p. 4. "One of them died before he was *at all* old." *Id.*, *Tales from the Fjeld* (1874), p. 160.

"What do I know of substance or matter? Just as much as the greatest philosophers; and that is nothing *at all*. Cardinal Newman, *Apologia pro Vita sua* (1864), p. 375.

"The most complex of all sciences, the Social, had not, he maintained, become positive *at all*." J. S. Mill, *Auguste Comte and Positivism* (1865), p. 51.

"A tutor *at all* equal to the tutors of a good pension is a costly luxury, if one has him all to oneself." Matthew Arnold, *Schools and Universities*, etc. (1868), p. 68.

"But, when we come to Chaucer, we hardly find it *at all*." Rev. Prof. John Earle, *Philology of the English Tongue* (1871), p. 154.

"There is little or no evidence of his having existed *at all*." Rev. Charles Kingsley (1874), *Lectures delivered in America* (1875), p. 112.

But enough has surely been said to tempt the question how many books of fair compass are not likely to furnish instances of the occurrence of *at all*.

As to several of the passages which have been adduced, the uses of *at all* seen in them are now laid aside, or else are rare otherwise than colloquially. In the remaining passages, however, *at all* may be exchanged, according to circumstances, for *whatever*, *in the least*, *in any degree*, *to any extent*, *anything*, *by any means*, *in any way*, or *in any case*. None of these is "an expletive"; and no more is *at all* one. And are "he is not *any* better" and "I am *somewhat* pleased" expletival?

In presence of the fact that erroneous notions touching what is permissible in writing and speaking are widely prevalent, and are, indeed, not seldom inculcated by those who, their pretensions considered, should not be infected by them, a letter such as this is not to be looked on as expending paper and ink to no practical purpose. For the rest, even the amplest of our dictionaries admit, here and there, of being supplemented by discussions of matters which, by reason of their necessary limits, they are debarred from treating exhaustively. F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, February 10, 1894.

Notes.

ROBERT CLARKE & Co., Cincinnati, have in press 'Recollections of Life in Ohio, from 1813 to 1840,' by William Cooper Howells, with an introduction by his son, William Dean Howells; 'Queen Moó and the Egyptian Sphinx,' by Dr. Augustus Le Plongeon; a reprint of J. Ralston Skinner's 'Key to the Hebrew-Egyptian Mystery in the Source of Measures,' originally published in 1875; and 'Judaism at the World's Parliament of Religions,' a collection of papers read at Chicago.

J. B. Lippincott Co. announce 'Travels in a Tree-top,' by Dr. Charles C. Abbott; 'Bill Nye's History of the United States'; 'A Man of To-day,' by Helen Mathers; 'The Mystery of the Patrician Club,' a novel by Albert D. Vandam, author of 'An Englishman in Paris'; and 'Pain,' by J. Leonard Corning, M.D.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will publish directly 'The Natural Law of Money,' by William Brough; 'The Sphere of the State; or, The People as a Body Politic,' by Prof. Frank S. Hoffman of Union College; and 'The Story of Margrédel.'

E. P. Dutton & Co. have nearly ready a new and entirely revised edition of Archdeacon Farrar's 'Life of Christ.'

Harper & Bros.' March issues include 'The Jewish Question'; 'Our English Cousins,' by Richard Harding Davis; 'For Honor and Life,' by William Westall; and 'Life's Little Ironies,' by Thomas Hardy.

From Charles Scribner's Sons we are promised 'The Letters of Two Brothers, William T. and John Sherman,' edited by Mrs. Rachel Sherman Thorndike; a Life of Dr. J. G. Holland, by Mrs. Thomas F. Plunkett; 'Beyond the Rockies,' by Dr. Charles A. Stoddard; 'According to Season,' a discourse of wild flowers, by Mrs. William Starr Dana; Mr. Robert Bridges's ("Droch") literary studies in dialogue form reprinted from *Life;* 'Salem Kittredge, and Other Stories,' by Bliss Perry; and 'On the Offensive,' a new army novel, by George I. Putnam.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have in preparation 'Bayou Folk,' by Mrs. Kate Chopin; 'Brave Little Holland,' by the Rev. W. E. Griffis; and 'A Bird-Lover in the West,' by Olive Thorne Miller.

'By Moorland and Sea,' description and illustrations, by F. A. Knight, will be published by Roberts Bros.

'Dramatic Essays' is the title of a series of three volumes to be edited by Messrs. William Archer and Robert W. Lowe, and published in London by Walter Scott. They will relate —the first two to Leigh Hunt and W. Hazlitt respectively, and the third to John Forster, G. H. Lewes, and William Robson (the "Old Playgoer"); and much of the contents of all three volumes will be matter not hitherto collected. A fourth volume, containing the late Matthew Arnold's contributions to the *Pall Mall Gazette*, also signed "Old Playgoer," is to be desired; and a fifth would be welcome if devoted to early American theatrical criticism—Irving's, John Howard Payne's, and Dana's—in the *Idle Man*.

The *form* of the 'Memoirs of Anne C. L. Botta' (J. Selwyn Tait & Sons) is not that to which the public at large is entitled in the case of a private person. The history and the character, instead of being delineated firmly and consistently by one hand, are left to be inferred from the more or less vague and constantly repetitious tributes of friends, supplemented by letters to and from the deceased and by selections from her writings. Such as it is, the volume conveys a glimpse of a New York literary salon in the Knickerbocker period, presided over by an authoress sufficiently learned, and sufficiently versed in the practice of art, and possessed of social tact, conversational powers, and kindness of heart. The chief incident of the life is Mrs. Botta's founding of a prize to be awarded by the French Academy for an essay on the elevation of woman, which was rendered completely nugatory by the scruples of the Academy. Her losing of the Clay gold medal intrusted to her, and its strange discovery (but not recovery) in Switzerland, was painfully romantic. There are a few characteristic letters from Mrs. Child, Fanny Butler, Fitz-Greene Halleck, N. P. Willis, Frederika Bremer, Henry Giles, and others. Mrs. Botta's best piece of verse is to be found not among the selections, but on p. 138.

'Among the Matabele' (Fleming H. Revell Co.), by the Rev. David Carnegie, is a timely and interesting account of the last of the independent races of South Africa. It is the result of observations made during ten years' missionary labor among them, and contains simple but clear descriptions of their distinctive customs and beliefs. They have apparently no religious conceptions, an idol or fetish being unknown. There is, however, a curious festival of the first fruits, suggestive of some ancient ritual, which must be celebrated before any one dares to eat green food. The children make huts and sheepfolds out of white pebbles, "but their principal toy is pot-clay from the valley, with which they make for themselves mud oxen." A boy's first real work is herding sheep and goats, of which he is very proud; then from twelve to sixteen or eighteen he cares for the cattle. He then is enrolled in one of the regiments, where he serves for four years before he is permitted to marry and settle down. The principal occupations of this people, besides cattle-herding and raiding, are the smelting of iron and making of spears and shields, wood-carving, and basket-making—this last by the women only. The land is described as very fertile, yielding two crops a year if properly cultivated, and better adapted for Europeans to live in than any other land south of the Zambesi. A discouraging account is given of the progress made in civilizing and Christianizing the Matabele, but one great obstacle has been removed in the overthrow of Lobengula, who would not allow his people to buy wagons, ploughs, spades, or agricultural implements of any kind. An excellent portrait is given of this king, together with one of his great rival, the well-known Christian chief Khama. In a closing chapter the Rev. G. Cousins tells the romantic story of the life of this most remarkable of native Africans of the present time.

Dr. A. Schäffle's essay on 'The Theory and Policy of Labor Protection' has been translated, and is published in this country by Charles Scribner's Sons. The Von Berlepsch bill, which was brought in by the German Government in order to carry out the recom-

mendations of the Berlin Labor Conference, is inserted in the appendix. Dr. Schäffle limits his subject to "the moral and personal security of the wage-earner . . . in so far as the dangers which threaten his security arise out of the condition of dependence of the worker" in his service relations; and of course has in view the compulsory measures of Government intended to guard against these dangers. This special protection has become necessary "through the development of the factory system, with its merciless exploitation of wage-labor, and through the weakening of the patriarchal relations in workshops and in handicrafts." The author develops his system with German thoroughness, but is much hampered by the difficulty of maintaining that monarchical despotism is good while democratic despotism is bad.

A commendable practice exists in the Wharton School of Finance, connected with the University of Pennsylvania, of studying the institutions of municipal government as they are found in operation in the city of Philadelphia. As the result of these studies in 1893 the members of the senior class prepared essays upon the different departments of the city government, and these essays have been condensed and published by the university in a volume of 300 pages.

M. Cherbuliez's 'Un Cheval de Phidias,' one of his earliest ventures, is a delicate and discriminating piece of criticism, set in a species of Platonic dialogue, with modern variations, which students of Greek art will read with profit and delight. It has been translated by Mrs. Thomas Roberts, and is for sale at John Wanamaker's. The style is flowing and agreeable, rising quite successfully with the more enthusiastic flights of the original. But the translator ought to have had some old pedant at her elbow to save her from certain absurd footnotes, to nudge her when she wrote Patcht for Pasht, Gnide for Cnidus, Météque for Metic, etc., and to warn her when she slurred some choice idiom or boldly leapt what she did not understand. Such a high-barred fence occurs in the sentence from Rabelais about those noble gentlemen of Thélème who knew how to speak five or six languages, "et en iceulx composer, tant en carme qu'en oraison solue"; this last is heroically rendered, "and to compose a prayer as well as a Carmelite." She ought also to have taken into her confidence her groom, who would have given her useful points in equine lore, as, for example, that short-jointed horses are liable not to "balk" but to stumble. But the easy-going reader will not mind these slips one bit; and the other kind of reader may be charmed into visiting M. Cherbuliez in person, and learning how delightful he is *chez lui*.

Hachette & Cie. issue in book form the first eight lectures on "L'Évolution de la poésie lyrique en France au dix-neuvième siècle" which M. Brunetière delivered last winter at the Sorbonne. The seven other lectures which complete the course will form a second volume, soon to appear. These lectures were published, as delivered, in successive numbers of the *Revue Bleue*, and were then somewhat enlarged, footnotes especially being added with a liberal hand. Further additions, all of value, have been made to them before publication in book form, and analytical *en-têtes* and a table of contents added. The lectures are admirable—that is a matter of course—and are, like all M. Brunetière's work, full of interesting matter and food for reflection. His dogmatic manner provokes the healthiest kind of discussion; and the lucidity of his arguments, the directness of his assertions, and the unmistakable affirmation of his position make him a critic appreciated equally by those who differ from him and by that numerous class of readers who like to take their opinions ready-made from some great authority. And these cannot have a firmer and, with slight reservations, a better or greater authority than M. Brunetière.

In the two volumes of Moltke's 'Briefe an seine Braut und seine Frau und an andere Anverwandte' (Stuttgart: Deutsche Verlagsanstalt), we have a complete collection of the interesting letters which were printed, in part, in the sixth volume of his "Gesammelte Schriften." The first volume contains the letters from 1841 to 1856, and the second those from 1857 to 1890, thus covering a period of nearly half a century. The illustrations consist of a facsimile letter and two portraits, namely, Marie Burt as Moltke's betrothed, and, at a much later period, as his wife.

Dr. Emil Reich, privatdocent of philosophy in the University of Vienna, delivered during the winter of 1891-'92 a course of lectures on æsthetics in which he gave an historical survey and critical analysis of Ibsen's dramas from 'Catiline' (written in 1848, when the poet was only twenty years of age) to 'Master-Builder Solness.' These lectures have now been issued in a volume of nearly 300 pages, entitled 'Ibsen's Dramen: sechzehn Vorlesungen' (Dresden: Pierson). The author does not conceal his ardent admiration for the Norwegian dramatist, but at the same time does not permit his enthusiasm to pervert his judgment or to find expression in mere encomium. The work combines in an excellent manner biographical narration with literary criticism, and furnishes unquestionably the fullest and most accurate account of Ibsen's intellectual growth and evolution and of the peculiar character and purpose of his plays hitherto published.

Heinrich Seidel, whose "Gesammelte Schriften" have been published in ten handsome and handy volumes at Leipzig by A. G. Liebeskind, is a civil engineer by profession and a novelist by mental predisposition. He is endowed in a high degree with the genius of the story-teller, and possesses what so many German writers of fiction lack, a clear and simple style and a rich fund of genuine humor. His "Collected Writings" consist chiefly of short tales of real life, told with the inimitable "art that nature makes." They are about sixty in number, and the scenes are laid in Mecklenburg, where Herr Seidel was born, and in Berlin, where he has spent the greater part of his manhood in the pursuit of his profession. They are charming pictures of middle-class life, intermingled with idyls of the country and the seacoast (one of which, 'Hans Peiter Semmelmann,' is written in the dialect of his native province), and form a highly entertaining as well as thoroughly wholesome literature. The seventh volume is made up of serious, humorous, and satirical poems.

We have received specimen numbers of the *Bibliothèque d'Éducation Artistique*, published by the Librairie de *l'Art*. They are well-made reproductions of Japanese drawings, taken from old books, of flowers and plants, and of birds. Other numbers to follow will deal with animals and with fishes. The variations of style in them, from the most severe classical line to the splashiest of brush-work, and from heraldic-looking monsters to the most realistic nature studies, are interesting, and will, perhaps, prove surprising to many. How much a clever Japanese artist can get out of a humble carrot or other vegetable is well shown once or twice.

Mr. Henry C. Lea contributes to the *Yale Review* for February an article upon the "Ecclesiastical Treatment of Usury." It is hardly necessary to say that the vast store of learning at the author's command enables him to present a complete summary of the doctrine of the Church upon this subject, as well as a review of the expedients by which the stringency of this doctrine has been relieved. Partly in defiance of clerical prohibition, partly by the connivance of confessors and higher authorities, interest appears to have been pretty regularly collected by the faithful, and even by the officers of the Church themselves; and with a decorous hypocrisy the clergy have derived a revenue through dispensations and indulgences —the cost of it all presumptively being paid by the borrower. The maxim *Nulla vestigia retrorsum* has been adhered to, and the prohibition of usury is still maintained; but, as in the case of another prohibitory statute, the Church is now "in favor of the law, but against its enforcement."

In July is to open at the Palais de l'Industrie, in the Champs-Élysées, an international exhibition of books and of the industries pertaining thereto, under the auspices of the Paris Publishers' Club. The commissioner for the English and American sections is M. Gaston Rebours, the representative in France of *Scribner's Magazine*. Lord Dufferin has accepted the Presidency of the Paris English Committee of Patronage, and the American committee is headed by the U. S. Ambassador to France, while among those who have been invited to serve on it are Messrs. Henry Vignaud, General Meredith Read, Theodore Stanton, Henry Harrisse, Henry Bacon, etc.

We have received from C. Klackner, No. 7 West Twenty-eighth Street, a proof on Japan paper of Mr. Frank French's large wood-engraving after his own picture called "Spring." A comely damsel with a dreamy expression stands holding in her arms the plunder of the blossoming dogwood grove behind her, beside a brook. The composition is in every way pleasing, and has been engraved in a light tone with Mr. French's well-known skill and delicacy. This print is one more evidence of the admirable persistence with which the masters of an art that is in serious danger of succumbing to the competition of mechanical processes, are seeking recognition and possible salvation by the production of works of a scale and excellence rivalling the best metal engraving. Mr. French's *genre* takes its place beside Mr. Victor Bernstrom's strong "Pirates' Haven" landscape and G. Kruell's incomparable portraits.

—An important article in the *Atlantic* for March concerns education, a field in which the magazine has long shown a special and appropriate interest. The subject is timely at a moment when all bodies or individuals that have to do with secondary education are earnestly discussing the report of the so-called Committee of Ten. Of this somewhat intricate document Prof. Butler gives a lucid summary, bringing clearly to the front its more important recommendations and the effect they are likely to have on methods of instruction in this country, and comparing the scheme as a whole with those in use in France and Prussia. To sum up Prof. Butler's summary of what is in itself a summary of the converging views of experts on education may seem unnecessary, but we have not seen elsewhere so clear a statement of the three important conclusions we draw from an examination of the report: that it provides for a sound and sufficiently uniform

secondary education, that the plans recommended conform in general with the most rational of those adopted by other civilized nations, and that they are based largely on the humanities. The same number contains a brilliant little essay attempting to show that there is a physiological and philosophical reason for what has sometimes been considered accidental—the fact that women have never attained success as composers. The author maintains that this is because women, being really less deeply emotional than men, and constitutionally abhorring the abstract, are incapable as a sex of originating musical ideas, which are the height of the abstract and the emotional. It is odd to find, a few pages further on, an interesting analysis by Maurice Thompson of the secret by which a woman—Sappho—attained supremacy in the cognate art of poetry.

—So far as matter other than fiction goes, the *Century* seems at first glance merely a collection of pretty pictures and gossipy accounts of foreign life and New York architecture. A closer examination, however, reveals matter of more permanent value. Mr. Mason's critical study of Grieg is written with a skill that musicians rarely show in literary composition. Mr. Flynt's description of the city tramp throws light on the systematic mendicancy of a permanent and conservative class of rascals, whose nickname of tramp has perhaps helped to earn for them hospitality or aid that might rightfully be claimed by an unfortunate wayfarer, but not by a professional beggar. Further extracts from lectures of Lowell's, this time on the Imagination, enhance rather than lower his reputation as a critic, for his work was at its best when he was not under the necessity, as in a critical article, of sticking closely to a single subject. Last in place, but most interesting and important, come Prof. Jenks's account of the suppression of political bribery in England, and Dr. Gladden's vigorous exposing of the absurd anti-Catholic crusade aroused by secret political societies in some parts of the West. It is by spreading far and wide such sound and non-partisan ideas in politics and government that an American magazine may best win lasting honor.

—*Harper's* is more than usually rich in excellent illustrations. In the text the first place is given to another of Mr. Brander Matthews's "vignettes" of New York life, in which the author betrays so much of the keen observer that it seems almost a pity he should not cease to perplex us in them by an artificial ghost of a plot, and draw directly from life. "Trilby" continues its wayward course, becoming some what less interesting as it approaches direct psychological analysis, and Mr. Gibson contributes a nondescript article on the "Welcomes of the Flowers," beautifully lucid in explanation and illustration of the intricacies of cross-fertilization, but exasperatingly sentimental in its forced attribution of distinctly human moods and feelings to brutes and plants. Striking articles are Mr. Poultney Bigelow's autocratic utterances on the subject of the Russian Jew, and Dr. Prudden's compact exposition of the contagious character of consumption.

—The contents of *Scribner's* have a unity of their own, for, almost without exception, they deal with American subjects and with nothing else. Mr. Joel Chandler Harris writes charmingly about the work of relief, after the recent hurricanes, among the curious population of the Sea Islands. Mr. Cable continues his "John March, Southerner"; "Octave Thanet" sketches vividly various types of the Northern farmer, and other writers treat such peculiarly American products as the cable-car and the tall office-building. This latter abomination is vigorously defended against all detractors, whether they be devout Ruskinians with their dogma of sincerity, Beaux-Arts men with their dogma of design, or modest individuals who do not like to seek near the skies for what belongs by nature near the earth.

—Nothing more damnatory of intercollegiate football has appeared than the article on "The Abuses of Training," by a graduate of 1891, in the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for March. It stands next after Mr. L. F. Deland's recipe, "How to Reform Football," in which excess of training is not so much as hinted at. Intelligent parents will draw their own conclusions. Timely interest also attaches to Mr. J. B. Warner's temperate exposition of the growth of the Harvard Annex and its blossoming into Radcliffe College. Prof. Morgan lucidly describes the mounting of Terence's "Phormio" in Sanders Theatre for the performances on April 19, 20, and 21, with an express new prologue by Prof. Greenough and original musical accompaniment by Prof. Allen. Fourteen students will take part in the play, and the occasion promises to rival in interest that of the "Oedipus" a dozen years ago. A libretto containing the Latin text beside a new prose translation will be ready in the course of next week, and places must be bespoken before March 25 if alumni wish to avail themselves of the precedence granted them over the public at large. The present number of the *Magazine* is noteworthy also for the memorial articles—one on Francis Parkman, by Mr. James Schouler, the historian of the United States, and the other on the lamented Frank Bolles, whose posthumous contributions to the chronicle of the second quarter include a decided protest against the latest development of football. Each article is accompanied by an excellent portrait. The review of Asa Gray's, Lowell's, and Phillip Brooks's letters is written with an independence of the *Magazine*'s environment that is most commendable; but this would have been difficult if the writer's signature had been obligatory, and the instance is a good one of the advantages of anonymous criticism in matters literary.

—The resignation of the Pope Professor of Latin at Harvard, George Martin Lane, after a service to the college covering forty-three years, is an event out of the common. The admirable traits which have endeared this scholar to two generations of alumni will naturally cause regret that his active teaching is to terminate, by his own choice, with the present college year. This sentiment will, however, be agreeably modified by the announcement that the Corporation have voted Prof. Lane an allowance of $3,000 per annum as Professor Emeritus, with liberty to teach as the spirit moves him. This is, we believe, the first instance in which the Corporation has made fitting provision for a retired professor, and the precedent is therefore most important and gratifying, not only for Harvard but for all the colleges affected by her daily example. The prizes and pensions established in other callings and professions are non-existent for the teacher, whose middle life is often embittered by the dread of what is to befall him and his family when his working days are over. That Prof. Lane's treatment is not likely to be exceptional would appear from the Treasurer's Report, which shows a retiring allowance fund of some $280,000—an increase of nearly $13,000 over last year. No doubt, too, when the system takes effect, specific bequests will flow in to increase this fund. It is a pleasure to add that no infirmity has led to Prof. Lane's withdrawal. We may, therefore, hope that, from the scholarly point of view, his new leisure will be productive in a way heretofore impossible amid the cares of recitations and examination papers.

—A Society of Illustrators has just been organized in London. The wonder is that one was not instituted sooner, for the close competition in English illustrated journalism and the prevailing low standard, which is the outcome of the average English editor's preference for cheapness, have made such an association eminently desirable for some years past. The object of the society is to accomplish for illustrators what the Society of Authors is supposed to do for writers, *i. e.*, to protect their interests and defend their rights, lending them the strength that always comes from union. All the most distinguished black-and-white men in the country have already joined it, and as it is hoped to give the organization something of an international character, it ought to appeal to Americans as well as to Englishmen. The main objects are reduced to four heads. First, there is to be an endeavor to insure the making of contracts and agreements between editors and illustrators, such as are now made between editors and authors, and to allow the illustrator some share of responsibility in the reproduction of his work. Secondly, there will be an effort to amend and perfect the present artistic law of copyright, which is still in the haziest and vaguest condition, and thus to place some restriction upon the indiscriminate traffic in *clichés*. Third, to take in hand the publication of illustrated catalogues of current exhibitions, in order to do away with some of the abuses from which the artist suffers under the present system. And, fourth, to hold occasional shows of the drawings of the great illustrators, and gradually, by such reminders of what good work is, raise the art to the dignity it once enjoyed. Surely, these are legitimate and important ends, with which every intelligent editor and publisher, as well as artist, must be in sympathy.

—The appointment of a successor to Sir Frederick Burton, who is about to resign from his post of Director of the National Gallery in London, is just now agitating the English art world. The appointment lies with the premier, and the two candidates between whom, virtually, choice must be made are Mr. Poynter, the Royal Academician, and Mr. Sidney Colvin, keeper of prints and drawings at the British Museum. There are others, it is true, but they are mainly dealers in disguise who pose as art critics, or else foreigners, and their claims need not be considered seriously. Some Englishmen have found the chief objection to Mr. Poynter—it would be difficult to point out his special qualifications—to consist in the fact that he is a painter, while, so it is argued, an archæologist really is needed to fill worthily such a position. But this is rather a far-fetched reason. Mr. Poynter is not only a painter, but a member of the Royal Academy. To make the National Gallery a mere annex to Burlington House is a consummation devoutly to be avoided. Moreover, as the Tate Gallery of modern British work is to be under the control of the director of the National Gallery, this is a more legitimate reason for opposition to the appointment of Mr. Poynter. The Chantrey collection at South Kensington

explains but too plainly that it is to their own pictures academicians give the preference when they are purchasers and pay at somebody else's expense. On the other hand, Mr. Sidney Colvin has already acquitted himself remarkably well in somewhat similar posts, first at the Fitzwilliam in Cambridge, and then at the British Museum. In both places, however, he has had comparatively small opportunity, since the funds at his disposal have not been large. He would do wonders, his friends say, had he the chance. This may be, but the fact remains that his genius has still to be put to the test. However, there is not in his case, as in Mr. Poynter's, any positive objection; of the two candidates, he is by far the more promising. Whether Lord Rosebery will think so is another matter.

—During the past year there has been no dearth of German books treating of the United States, and, in the main, they have been of a superior quality. Besides the second edition of Prof. Friedrich Ratzel's 'Politische und Wirthschafts-Geographie der Vereinigten Staaten von Amerika' (Munich: Oldenburg), we have Friedrich Oetken's 'Die Landwirthschaft in den Vereinigten Staaten von Nordamerika' (Berlin: Parey) and Gustav Diercks's 'Kulturbilder aus den Vereinigten Staaten' (Berlin: Verein für Deutsche Literatur). Herr Oetken, who prepared himself for his elaborate and exhaustive work by a sojourn of two years in this country, has already published a volume containing a record of his travels ('Reise eines deutschen Landwirths durch die Vereinigten Staaten'), and another giving his impressions of our school system ('Ueber die Schulen in den Vereinigten Staaten'). In his latest and largest volume he traces the agricultural and economical development of the United States, and treats at length of soil, climate, price of land, products, stock-raising, dairying, horticulture, forestry, implements of husbandry, roads, buildings, the domestic and social life of the farming population, schools, taxes, immigration and American women, who, he declares, "hold unquestionably, as regards both their physical and mental endowments, the highest position among the women of the earth." Dr. Diercks's volume is essentially an expansion of his vade-mecum, 'Ein Jahrhundert nordamerikanischer Kultur: Ein Begleitbuch für die Chicago-Besucher' (Berlin: Lesser). It is interesting and instructive; but on the whole he is a less keen as well as a less sympathetic observer than Herr Oetken, and is too apt to draw general conclusions from superficial knowledge. Another work in process of publication is 'Amerika, eine allgemeine Landeskunde,' edited by Prof. Dr. Wilhelm Sievers, in collaboration with Dr. E. Deckert and Prof. Dr. W. Kukenthal (Leipzig: Bibliographisches Institut). It will be issued in six numbers at one mark (25 cents) each, and contain 180 illustrations, twelve maps, and twenty wood-cuts and chromolithographic plates.

RECENT FICTION.

In the Dwellings of Silence. A Romance of Russia. By Walker Kennedy. Dodd, Mead & Co.

A Motto Changed. By Jean Ingelow. Harper & Brothers.

Rachel Stanwood. By Lucy Gibbons Morse. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

It does not seem, on the face of things, unreasonable to demand that people shall refrain from writing on subjects of which they know nothing. Nevertheless, the demand must be unreasonable if we are to judge from the persistent stream of books written on that plan, with which the long-suffering public is constantly afflicted. The latest example is furnished by Mr. Kennedy's story of Russia and Siberia, entitled 'In the Dwellings of Silence,' which is evidently founded on inaccurate study of Mr. Kennan's utterances, a plan of St. Petersburg, and a map of Siberia. After remarking, by way of general criticism, that the style is forced and "spread-eagle," let us proceed to a somewhat detailed consideration of the evidences of ignorance which adorn the pages from the very beginning. George Vandorn and Frank Devereux, American consul and American secretary of legation at St. Petersburg, where they have lived for two years, are dressing to go to a court ball at the Winter Palace on January 14, 18—. "Through the offices of the United States minister they had secured invitations. It was an unusual concession, and, democratic though they were, they were not a little elated over their success." Owing to the wealthy and respectable ancestry of Vandorn, which is narrated at some length, "it had not been a difficult matter for the United States minister to obtain for him an invitation to the Czar's ball." As to this it may be remarked: (1) that the secretary of legation, having a sort of diplomatic right to such invitations, could not have remained for two years in the country without receiving a goodly number without the intervention of the minister; (2) that the consul, having no diplomatic rights, might have remained in the country for fifty years, and no intervention of the minister would have secured them for him; (3) January 14, American style, would be the day after the Russian New Year, and impossible for a ball; January 14, Russian style, might well be the date of a ball, but the ball would certainly not be of the sort known as the "palm-tree balls," which the author attempts inaccurately to describe.

The young men set out for the palace in a troïka; in real life they would go in a closed carriage. They pass "drozhkies, sleighs, and troïkas"; drozhkies and sledges are not used simultaneously on such a night as is described, viz., a genuine winter night, with snow. The topography of their drive to the palace is nothing less than bewildering. Setting out from some hotel in the Sadovaya (there is no hotel there which foreigners ever patronize, if there is one at all), they pass the Anitchkoff Palace on the "Prospekt Nevskiy," which lies to the southeast behind them, while they are going northwest, reach the Admiralty, are driven "about it" by the *izvostchik*, who would be a *yamstchik* in real life, and come out on the quay. This route involves about three-quarters of a mile extra in circuit, when a simple turn to the right at the head of the Nevsky Prospekt would bring them to the palace in a moment. The author next proceeds to place the famous equestrian statue of Peter the Great "where the Court of the Admiralty opens," with his hand pointing "towards the great city." The former Court of the Admiralty was filled with buildings years ago; the statue in question stands and has always stood well beyond the left wing of the building, in a park, and the hand points away from the city.

At last they reach the palace, where "drozhkies and sleighs were arriving every minute." Drozhkies, even if used in winter, would not be allowed to drive up, and open sleighs are never used by ladies on such occasions as represented. As "burlaks" are the men who towed barges on the Volga in former days, and the name is unknown in Petersburg, the author is hardly justified in introducing them for "local color" and in representing them as stamping about outside the palace with the drivers to keep warm. Inside the palace his descriptions are equally inaccurate. He clothes the lancers in crimson jackets and the hussars in green; introduces hussars of the army and of the guard; dresses the Empress's pages in white, and so forth. He is equally happy in his delineation of the beauty of the heroine, Valérie Melnikoff: "Her dark eyes were the faithful mirror of herself; they were pure and beautiful, and in their depths dwelt the icons of gentleness and strength." We should like to know what the author understands by *icons?* His French remarks are as incomprehensible: "These people are very *mal à propos*. They do not know how to conceal." The proper plural of *gendarme*, a favorite word of his, seems to be quite beyond his reach.

From these specimens of ignorance and inaccuracy the reader can judge how much dependence he may place on the facts or fancy of the narrative, which is not of much account. Valérie Melnikoff takes Frank Devereux to an evening meeting of "Nihilists." The use of this designation proves the author's information to be second-hand and of ancient date. She is arrested the next day, and Devereux, who loves her, swears to follow her to Siberia, if she is exiled there, and rescue her. Vandorn promises to help him. The rest of the book is merely the record of the escape. For his notes of Valérie's and Devereux's journeys in Siberia, Valérie's residence at the mines of Kara, and so on, all of a shadowy nature, the author seems to be indebted to Mr. Kennan's volumes. For the incidents of the escape, Vassily Tadmorski's uncontrolled roamings and marvellous stores of palatable provisions in inaccessible mountain fastnesses, he is evidently responsible himself, as he is for the absurd picture of the "Nihilist" skating daily on the Neva opposite the bastion where Valérie is imprisoned in the beginning, for the statements that Tiumen is situated on the Volga, which runs to Tomsk, that a solitary man can dance a *khorovod* (a choral dance), and other choice absurdities. Of course, the whole party makes good an escape to America across the Pacific, and so the little story ends. The one good point about it is the ingenuity of Devereux's and Tadmorski's devices at critical moments during the perilous journey. There is no study of character, no special interest attaching to the unsubstantial figures of Devereux, Valérie, Vandorn, or even the villain. It is a book to be forgotten as soon as read, so manifestly is it made out of an unintelligent compilation from the untested writings of other people, to meet a supposed demand for sensational literature on Russian topics.

It is difficult to decide what sex, age, and stage of mental development Miss Ingelow expects to interest with her little tale, whose title is as forced as is its conversation. The motto is: "A little less than kin and more than kind." It would take the powers of a soothsayer to divine it from the story. Isabel Larkin, a plain-featured young woman, aged twenty, is followed about and wooed by a former pupil of her father, who has caught sight of her by accident, after a lapse of years, and fallen violently in love with her. She does not like him and avoids him, carrying her stern sense of duty to the extreme as she considers it) of wearing her second-best, least becoming hat, lest he should be too much impressed with her charms. Her father is entirely opposed to

the match, and tells the young man so, his reason being that he does not wish to have his daughter seem to inveigle the son of a wealthy man, his friend. He also objects to the young man's lack of a profession, and to his lack of character, shown by his having taken a fancy to several professions, including that of missionary, and having abandoned them all during the preparatory stage. At this point, the young man's father arrives in England from India, announces his intention to marry again soon, struggles with himself over the question whether he shall tell his reputed son that he is only an adopted child, and ends by deciding to transfer his dead wife's property to the young fellow, in accordance with her will, and not to reveal the secret. The reader is led to expect great results from this secret and from the father's struggles, but nothing whatever ensues. The young man follows the girl to Scotland, and, strong in the consciousness of an income, he urges his father to consent to his marriage. The girl's father suddenly changes his mind on the subject, and the girl's stepmother bestows the combined family blessing. The girl dons her best hat, allows herself to be wooed, though she cares no more than before for the man, and ends by refusing him before he asks her. Shortly afterwards, the young man is injured in an accident; she is sent for, retains sufficient vanity, in the midst of her new-born interest and anxiety, to get into her best raiment during her hurried journey to him, and betroths herself to him by taking from his finger a ring which has changed, in the course of a few pages, from one pearl to several emeralds. All this is done, in regulation stage fashion, while the young man is lying, as she thinks, at death's door.

This very slender and very commonplace tale is enlivened by the preternaturally wise chatter of the heroine's little step-brother, who worries over such questions as, "Has mankind any duties towards vermin?" and the like. There are also scraps of adult conversation, evidently culled, like the preceding, from the author's note-book, and woven into the story with more or less awkwardness. In fact, a desire to utilize the dregs of a note-book is responsible for the publication of this volume, which is, to use plain language, unmitigated trash.

The great emotion which between thirty and forty years ago tore the heart of the United States and culminated in civil war, flickers through the pages of 'Rachel Stanwood.' The author has a knowledge in detail of the methods of the abolitionists, and a sympathy with their cause, which are invaluable for a forceful translation of dead issues and past interests into the sphere of the living present; it is therefore to be regretted that this knowledge and sympathy is not supplemented by a literary skill which would fasten the attention of a generation born in tamer times. There is moral rectitude in the effort to describe impartially the three parties to the strife—the abolitionist, the Southern slaveholder with his Northern ally, and the trimmer—admirable in an avowed historian, but fatal to the novelist, who has to reach the intellect by way of the emotions. If Mrs. Stowe had been severely fair, 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' would not to-day count readers by the thousand in divers tongues. It is very hard to resuscitate a passion, and probably nothing short of [illegible] give an adequate impression of the greatest historical example of enduring passion for the welfare of a servile race. Occasionally it thrills in Miss Mouse's pages, yet the heart is wanting, and one must wish that she could have let herself go more freely with the tide of her inclination and conviction.

FUNK'S STANDARD DICTIONARY.

A Standard Dictionary of the English Language. Prepared under the supervision of Isaac K. Funk, D.D., etc. In two volumes. Vol. I. New York: Funk & Wagnalls Co. 1893.

GREAT prominence is given in the advertisements to claims for this dictionary of an enormous number of words ("*Johnson*, 45,000; *Stormonth*, 50,000; *Worcester*, 105,000; *Webster* (International), 125,000; *Century*, 225,000; *Standard*, nearly 300,000"), although the strenuous effort of the good lexicographer is to *keep down* his vocabulary. In an ordinary dictionary of reference, 25,000 words comprise all that anybody ever looks out. The rest is obstructive rubbish. Completeness is not to be thought of in any dictionary. Murray's Dictionary is probably the best that ever was made of any extensive language—better than Grimm, better than the Della Crusca, far better than the performance of Littré. He has had the services of some 1,500 readers. Yet his failure to include every vocable can be made apparent in half an hour by running over the pages of a few books of diction anyways marked in character and which are books Murray's readers may probably have passed by. The statement that Funk's Dictionary contains four words to every three in the Century, of however little consequence it might be, seemed to us, considering the process of manufacture of these compilations, to be sufficiently remarkable to be subjected to some control. We have therefore taken, in the Ds, Fs, Gs, and Hs, evenly distributed alphabetic intervals, amounting in the well-proportioned International Webster to the 150th part of the whole, and have counted the words (rejecting mere variations of spelling and other very slight differences) in both the Century and Funk. We find 1,207 in the former and 1,243 in the latter. This would make a total of 181,000 words in the Century and 186,000 in Funk, which we have no doubt is about the truth. Dr. Funk has inserted all the words in the Century Dictionary, with a very few omissions for which no reason is discernible, unless they were made because good manners prescribes that something shall be left. To these he has added, in the first place, a quantity of derivatives. Thus, the Century having cumbered its pages with *Graciliariidæ*, Funk adds *graciliariid* (an individual of the family of *Graciliariidæ*) and *graciliarioid* (like a graciliariid). The next successor in the business will add *graciliarioidally*. In the second place, Dr. Funk has added a number of compound words, mostly of a technological kind, such as *flock-cutter* (a machine for making flocks), *flock-duster* (a machine for cleansing flock by removing ordinary dust), and *flock-opener* (a machine for loosening out bunches of wool-dust, or other flock, in order that it may feed properly to paper that is being flocked). In the third place, in number equal to less than one-seventh of all his additions, are such as really seem to be of value, such as *dadoy*, *fawncolor*, *gladsheim*.

One of the first questions to be asked concerning a dictionary is whether it is well proportioned in the sense of doing equal justice to different parts of the alphabet. Since it is useful for many purposes to have a ready means of dividing an English dictionary into approximately equal parts, we give the following table, showing the proportionate space occupied by different letters in several dictionaries. (The unit is the space occupied by the mean of E, F, G, M, and R, which is estimated for the unfinished dictionaries.)

	Int. Webster.	Century.	Murray.	Funk.
A	1.49	1.28	0.81	1.63
B	1.25	1.06	1.02	1.22
C—Cni	0.99	1.01	1.00	1.08
Co—Cz	1.31	1.17	1.20	1.15
D	1.39	1.18	.....	1.15
E	0.97	0.92	.....	0.93
F	0.76	0.78	.....	0.77
G	0.85	0.95	.....	0.88
H	1.17	0.94	.....	0.95
I, J	0.97	0.93	.....	0.96
K, L	1.15	1.16	.....	0.98
M	0.93	0.92		
N, O	1.06	1.12		
P—Pny	1.07	1.09		
Po—Quo	1.15	1.14		
R	1.01	1.02		
S—Shy	0.83	0.82		
Si—Spy	0.97	0.86		
Sq—Sz	1.30	1.33		
T, U, V	0.85	0.71		
W, X, Y, Z	0.85	0.79		

In almost all dictionaries the As are compiled on a different plan from the rest of the dictionary (or are deliberately increased to make a show). In a thoroughly well-proportioned work, they would occupy a space not far from one unit. Murray's plan seems to have been somewhat expanded after the As appeared. It was between the publication of Murray's second part, concluding the As, and his third, that the 'Century Dictionary' was announced. In the Century and in the International the space occupied by the As is disproportionately great; in Funk's Dictionary it is grotesquely so. In those parts of the alphabet where the dictionary with longer explanations will be most nearly like the briefer work, as in *un-*, *in-*, *de-*, *dis-*, *con-*, the relative space in the Century naturally sinks below that in Webster. In H, which abounds in words calling for long explanations (*hand*, *held*, *hold*, *hang*, *hard*, *he*, *have*, *horse*, *house*, *heart*, etc.) the number for the Century is greater. Funk's Dictionary, owing to its way of packing derivatives and compounds, has proportions closely agreeing with those of the Century. Its As and Bs are disproportionate, owing to its drawing largely from Murray. In order to satisfy ourselves in regard to the causes of the discrepant numbers for A, we have made a careful examination of parts of the above-mentioned dictionaries, together with the Imperial and some others, in a dozen equably distributed alphabetic intervals in the As and Bs. It is upon this comparison that the above assertions rest.

Dr. Funk has a most imposing array of editors and contributors. March (consulting editor), Newcomb, Dr. Doremus, Max Müller, Titus M. Coan, Huxley, Alexander Graham Bell, Henry M. Stanley, Mark Harrington, Gill, Kunz, F. Horace Teall, Rossiter Johnson, Steinitz, Amelia Edwards, Edward Everett Hale, Edward Morse, Bjerregaard, H. B. Storer, Ray Lankester, Benson J. Lossing, William R. Harper, Harrison Grey Fiske, A. H. Sayce, George W. Smalley, Horace Furness, and many others make a wonderful mixture. But they could not, all of them, put a large part of their souls into pages crowded with

"daffadilly‡, daffadowndilly‡, daffodilly‡, daffodowndilly‡, daffydowndilly‡," and the like.

To test the definitions, let us select (without consulting either work beforehand) a dozen words in H, which it seems likely that persons such as would wish to possess a dictionary like this would wish to find definitions for; and for these let us compare Funk's definitions with Webster's:

(1.) *Hæmony.* One of those enigmas with which Milton loved to empuzzle his readers. The two dictionaries give conflicting explanations.

(2.) *Hank.* "Humphrey had this double hank upon her inclinations" (Humphrey Clinker). Webster is slightly the better, and gives an appropriate example: "The devil hath got such a hank over him."

(3.) *Harry.* A common name in England for a cheap grade of playing-cards showing Henry VIII. on the wrappers. Omitted by both Funk and Webster.

(4.) *Half-sprit.* "She sailed with a half-sprit, like a yacht." (Defoe.) Neither work explains this.

(5.) *Haw.* What is the haw of a blood-hound? Neither dictionary tells.

(6.) *Headcheese.* Why is it called *cheese?* Neither informs us.

(7.) *Hecastotheism.* One of Major Powell's words, and a good one. Funk has it, the International not.

(8.) *Hector.* Defined by Funk as "A quarrelsome, domineering, threatening fellow"; by Webster as "A bully; a blustering, turbulent, insolent fellow." Neither explains this passage in Pepys: "We had a great many hectors in the same box with us, and one, a very fine one, went into the pit and played his dog for a wager."

(9.) *Hegelianism* receives in Funk a correct explanation, but one perfectly unintelligible to anybody who does not understand the system. Webster attempts no such statement.

(10.) *Helicoid.* Funk defines it as "A surface generated by a line one end of which moves along an axis while the other end describes a spiral." Now, since some sort of spiral can be described on every ruled surface, the last clause is without effect, and the definer might as well have said, "A ruled surface containing a straight line not a generator." Webster's definition is, "A warped surface which may be generated by a straight line moving in such a manner that every point of the line shall have a uniform motion in the direction of another fixed straight line, and at the same time an angular motion about it." This covers the "developable helicoid," which the other definition (though otherwise far too wide) excludes.

(11.) *Hertstone.* "King John ordered Doncaster to be enclosed in hertstone and pale." (Southey.) Neither dictionary gives *hertstone.*

(12.) *Heterokinesy.* A term much used by Cudworth. In neither Funk nor Webster.

In arranging the various meanings of a word, for the purpose of definition, Dr. Funk adopts the plan of putting the most ordinary everyday meaning first. At first blush, this looks like good sense in the case of a one-volume dictionary, which can make no pretension to serving the turn of those who wish to study the language scientifically, or even that of those who wish to learn its niceties of expression. Besides, he who is considering what words really *do* mean becomes so tired of lexicographers' attempts to *guess* the meaning from the derivation—attempts due to their study of English literature not being sufficient to inform them how that primeval meaning may have become modified in centuries of growth of associations—that he is disposed to welcome a rupture with etymology. But when he comes to see what Dr. Funk's rule leads to, he begins to think that, after all, there is some merit in definitions based on the very early history of words. The spelling in Funk is very nearly the same as that of the Century Dictionary. That the pronunciation is none too conservative is shown by the fact that no alternative is admitted to any of the following: ab'stract (adj.), ad'jectival, bŏmbast, confes'sor, consis'tory, cōny, cȳnosure (atonic sh), disinterested (atonic), dȳnasty, exhale (atonic), exile (atonic), ex'tirpate, gas (atonic), hoūsewīfe, im'becīle, isolate (atonic).

A few little things that have struck our attention in looking over Dr. Funk's pages may be mentioned.

Burton, in the sense of *ale* ("I am more inclined to think strong beer of myself, cwrw, Burton, audit-ale, old October." Southey) is omitted by Murray, the Century, and all the dictionaries.

Guillaume. Funk does not puzzle us by calling a *rabbit* a *rebate;* but why talk of "joiners"? They are a kind of carpenters hardly known in the breadth of this country.

Diarian. Badly defined. It means pertaining to a diary, an old-fashioned kind of almanac.

Asses' bridge. The figure of the 47th proposition is wrongly drawn.

Face of a polyhedron omitted.

Doddered, a second non-existing word introduced, from not understanding the first.

Blanch, the regular meaning in cookery not given, though right in Murray.

The omissions common to Funk and the Century are very curious unless causally connected. Such are, dissuava (a general), ditch-water (old wine), double-bob-major, doxoscopy, drop-handkerchief, dubitative (subs.), dudley-nose, dulling, dumrie, dungally, dupper, dyadison, and thousands more.

We should be glad to praise the typography of the Standard Dictionary, but there is no beauty in these pages, and the necessary condensation is extreme.

CABINET GOVERNMENT.—II.

Les Ministres dans les principaux pays d'Europe et d'Amérique. Par L. Dupriez, Professeur à l'Université de Louvain. Paris: J. Rothschild. 1893.

THE second volume of this book is devoted to the republics of the United States, France, and Switzerland. The account of the United States is of interest to an American chiefly as a test of the author's thoroughness and accuracy, and the test is borne extremely well. The usual preliminary and succinct review of the origin of our institutions precedes the actual analysis. The writer, like all foreigners, seems to derive satisfaction from pointing out ours as a peculiar and unique form of government, in that the members of the Cabinet are excluded from all access to the House, because the Constitution forbids them to be members of either house, although he remarks that in Prussia and in Switzerland the ministers have the right of entry into the chambers, while in the former they may not be and in the latter they cannot be members. Yet, like a staunch hound, he recovers the scent when later he says:

"Some years ago the proposition was made in the Federal Congress to permit the ministers to be admitted to speak before each of the two houses upon questions concerning their respective departments, without being able to take part in the debates upon general policy. But all efforts in this direction have failed through the fear of Congress of seeing this reform menace its independence and considerably increase the force of executive authority."

In other words, this change, which requires only a vote of the two houses, and is immensely for the interest of the nation, is barred merely by the jealousy with which Congress guards its usurpation of all the power of the Government. M. Dupriez sees, further, that in this respect the fear is well grounded.

"The people are generally happy to see the President make a bold use of his right of veto. In the struggles between the executive power and Congress, the people have rarely sided with the latter. Elected by the people, the first magistrate of the republic exercises upon the popular mind the natural ascendancy which a living and acting personality has over the masses. They see in him their direct representative, and they applaud the man whom they have made what he is, when he shows the strength of his character and acts resolutely upon a well-considered plan. The chambers, on the other hand, have too often given to the nation occasion to distrust their conduct. Sometimes obedient to intrigues, at others carried away by passion to hasty decisions, they have shown in their actions an incoherence and a confusion of ideas which have struck the people. Then they appear to the people as an abstract quantity, and the latter do not know how to analyze the causes or to fix the responsibility of their decisions. The President has all the prestige of a king, while his popular origin preserves him from the distrust which is excited by every hereditary and irresponsible power."

M. Dupriez shows further that in financial as well as all other legislation the initiative is entirely in the hands of Congress, neither the President nor his cabinet having the power to submit a bill. All that the executive can do is to send a message or sort of political manifesto, which is only a declaration of opinion, apart from which he has only a veto, or the power of saying what shall not be done. The President and his cabinet can exercise no serious influence upon either the House of Representatives or the Senate—directly, that is, for M. Dupriez shows how this may be done by the use of offices and the operations of the lobby, the spoils system resting upon too solid a foundation to be permanently displaced while the present relation between the two branches exists.

As is natural, our author, while avoiding conclusions, evidently cannot understand how a country can get on with such a complete violation of all well-established principles of government; but, like them also, he is silenced by the splendid material achievements which have been accomplished. An American may suggest that these are owing to the character and political intelligence of the people, to the happy combination of the federal and local governments, and to the strength of trained universal suffrage; that the logic of principles is working itself out here as elsewhere; and that the false relation of executive and legislature is the most threatening danger which confronts not merely our Federal Government, but those of our States and cities. Even the success of our civil war, with the restoration of the Union and the abolition of slavery, which has led Europeans to look upon our institutions with wondering respect, can be shown, in the light of studies like those of M. Dupriez, to have resulted from the fact that Congress, which had blundered along fairly well through some decades of peace, in such an emergency practically abdicated its functions, and surrendered the Government, with the tacit consent of the people, to four years of despotism, precisely in the same way, though with very different circumstances and

results, as the Convention of 1793 and the French nation submitted to the Committee of Public Safety through the Reign of Terror.

The Constitution of the Swiss Confederation has of late attracted a good deal of attention in this country, and M. Dupriez, in his account of it, refers frequently to two of the American writers upon the subject. We have, for our part, read most of these works, but have never met with so vivid and clear a statement of the working of the Swiss institutions as this of M. Dupriez. In his summing up of the different systems he distinguishes four, in a general way:

"(1.) The system of the separation of powers, of which the model is furnished by the Constitution of the United States.

"(2.) The system of the distinction and the union of powers with preponderance of royal power, or what may be called personal government tempered. Of this the Prussian Constitution offers the most characteristic type.

"(3.) The system of the distinction and the union of powers with the preponderance of Parliament. It is this which has passed from England to most European countries.

"(4.) Lastly, the system of the confusion of powers, wholly peculiar to Switzerland."

This confusion begins in the relations between the Federal and State Governments, which are by no means so clearly defined as in this country. For instance, the central Government in certain respects guarantees the citizens not merely against its own authorities, but against those of the cantons. The rights of the cantons are being steadily encroached upon by the central Government for want of definite boundaries. Switzerland resembles the United States in being a federation of independent States, and in the composition of its chambers, but otherwise the two republics have nothing in common. The Americans, while basing their system on the sovereignty of the people, were so far imbued with the traditions of monarchy as to preserve the unity of executive power, and took care to establish safeguards against the abuse of it. In Switzerland the only associations were with the cantonal governments, many of which had general assemblies. The framers of the Federal Constitution, therefore, lodged the executive power with a committee, and never thought of taking guarantees against anybody.

The Federal Executive Council of seven members is elected by the two assemblies jointly, and is absolutely dependent upon them. The Assembly elects the Council for three years, can and frequently does reëlect them indefinitely, but cannot dismiss them before their term is out—that is, legally; but it would be as easy for the Assembly indirectly as it is for the English or French Parliament to make government impossible for the Council, and to give themselves up to the game of upsetting ministries. That this is not done is owing partly to the moderation and patience of the Swiss people, but partly to the fact that the Council never furnishes any opportunity. It never thinks of setting up its will against that of the chambers. According to Swiss political customs, the ministers have not even the choice of submission or resignation. They submit and obey with a good grace.

"The federal councillors know nothing of the political responsibility which keeps the members of a cabinet government perpetually at the mercy of a parliamentary majority. The chambers may adopt motions of blame and censure towards their conduct, may reject the propositions which they have submitted, may vote the bills which they have opposed, without their feeling obliged to give up their positions. Whatever happens, they finish their elected term, and only then can there be a question for them of a certain political responsibility in the sense that their past administration may hinder or assure their reëlection."

That is precisely what might take place, though in a more positive degree, with the cabinet of an individual President elected directly by the people for fixed terms and independently of the Legislature.

In a successful five-act drama the climax of interest and excitement is reserved for the last act. Like a skilful playwright, M. Dupriez has given his closing section to France, and there cannot possibly be more instructive reading for the people of the United States. With the downfall of the ancient monarchy, the executive power was, so to speak, in a state of solution, and had to be constituted anew. On the 29th of September, 1789, Mirabeau, who had studied the English Constitution, proposed to declare the ministers eligible to the functions of deputy, and to permit the King to choose his councillors among the deputies without the latter being obliged to resign their seats. As this proposal shocked too violently the prejudices and resentments of the Assembly, Mirabeau modified it by asking merely that the ministers should be admitted provisionally to the Assembly with a consultative voice. But all the good reasons, the eloquence, and the personal authority of the orator were of no avail against the jealousy of that body.

We must pass over the tempting period of the two empires and the two monarchies, and come to the actual state of affairs. The Third Republic does not rest upon any formal constitution. The strain between the royalist majority and the republican minority was so great that, though the disasters of the war kept them from coming to blows, they were able to work out, after four years of painful and laborious effort, only three short constitutional laws, regulating merely the organization, the rights, and the relations of the different branches of the Government. They contain no disposition as to the rights and liberties of the citizen, and none even as to essential political institutions like the annual vote of the budget, while they pass over in silence the whole judicial organization. And yet those four years mark an immense progress in political training, in the practice of patience in the minority and moderation in the majority, beyond anything which France has ever seen.

The most important feature is the election of the President by the two chambers in joint convention. The disadvantages of this, as compared with election by the nation, are obvious, but the experience of the Republic of 1848 and of Louis Napoleon was enough to prevent the repetition of that experiment. And yet, as M. Dupriez intimates, the opposite evil is almost as great by reducing the President to a cipher. In theory he has the appointment of the ministry, but in practice he has no more power in this respect than the Queen of Great Britain, and even less, in so far as he cannot dissolve the Chamber of Deputies without the assent of the Senate. The ministry is, therefore, completely at the mercy of the majority of the Chamber. But this majority is not, as in England, a compact body, held together by at least a semblance of party principle, and faced by an equally compact minority ready to furnish a ministry at any time. In France the Chamber is divided into groups—Legitimists, Orleanists, and Bonapartists, Extreme Right and Left, Moderate Right and Left, and Right and Left Centre. These groups have sufficient power of combination to pull a ministry down, but not enough to maintain one in power. Most of the members think themselves quite fitted to be ministers, and are ready to join in expelling the actual incumbents in the hope, however small, of getting into their places. The result is that while the executive in Great Britain is the strongest which exists in any really constitutional government in the world, that of France is the most pitiably weak—unless we except, though for quite different reasons, that of the United States.

All executive power has, therefore, practically passed into the hands of the Legislature, and it is a curious study to trace its working as compared with that of the United States. In both, the government by committees differs only in their organization. The French Chambers are divided into bureaus—nine in the Senate and eleven in the Chamber of Deputies—which are renewed every month by lot, and they have the double mission of discussing plans and proposals which are sent to them and of electing the committees provided for by the rules—that is, annual, monthly, and special. But the rule of the committees in both countries is nearly absolute, and affords the same facility for intrigue and lobbying on behalf of local and private interests as against that of the people at large.

It is to be observed that the weakness of the executive in France and in the United States is owing to wholly different causes. In France the President is elected by the chambers jointly. No man will ever hold the place who is not prepared to bend his will to theirs, or who will assert himself against them—that is, unless by violence. The ministry, therefore, is not his but theirs, to be dealt with at their pleasure, an uncertain quantity, fluctuating with the shifting and dissolving groups. In the United States, owing to the wonderfully wise and fortunate provision of the Convention of 1787, the President is not elected by Congress but by the nation, appoints his own cabinet, and he and they are wholly independent of the Legislature. The weakness in his case consists in this, that, in virtue of the action of the first Congress, persistently maintained by every subsequent one, the executive branch is cut off from all share in debate and any voice in the conduct and guidance of legislation, or from any direct appeal to the constituents, who are taught to expect Congress to do, of its own motion, everything that ought or needs to be done. If this defect were remedied, the situation would be analogous not so much to that in Great Britain as to that in Prussia, where, as we have seen, the ministers hold office, not at the pleasure of the Legislature, but of the King—but with this difference, that, instead of an hereditary ruler by divine right, the sovereign would be the people, called upon at stated intervals to express its will as arbiter between the two branches; while in view of this it would be perfectly possible, as we have seen takes place in Switzerland, for the President to maintain his cabinet in office throughout his term, regardless of adverse votes in Congress. In this way the perpetual and inevitable conflict between the two branches would be carried on, not by secret intrigue, in which Congress always gets the upper hand, but in open and manly encounter, in full view of the nation.

We may add that while we have followed M. Dupriez only in his examination of the national executives, he gives also a clear though of course not so detailed an account of local administrations, which is not the least valuable part of his invaluable book.

Love in Letters of Statesmen, Warriors, Men of Letters, and Others. With a Preface by Henri Pène Du Bois. Brentano's.

It is a bold thought to undertake an anthology, either in prose or verse, in these days when appreciation has become one of the fine arts, and men who themselves belong to Parnassus do not think it beneath them to select and bind together the flowers of other writers. It is a still bolder venture to offer even "brief notes" upon thirty-six different writers, when notes and selections, in the uncondensed medium of prose, have both to be contained in the limits of one small volume. When, finally, the intervals of time and differences of personality which separate the writers are as wide as those between Abelard and Abraham Lincoln, or Henry VIII. and Hawthorne, a plane of boldness seems to have been reached where even a Palgrave or a Saintsbury might fear to tread.

It appears doubtful, however, whether any misgiving has seized the compiler of this rashly strung collection of letters. By what principle he has been guided in making it, it is not easy to discover. Some lovers are represented by scraps, others by batches from their correspondence, and there are to be found among them those who could not put pen to paper without giving it a charm. But the skill to choose what could give a clear idea of the essential quality of each one's passion, and of its more or less troubled course, has been lacking. The notes are not of a quality to atone for other deficiencies. Some of them may, in virtue of their brevity, be allowed to prove their own merits. Mary Stuart, with her dates and titles, is set down as "idealized in French, depreciated in English, histories." "Printer, inventor, philosopher, a founder of American independence, how his practical, familiar, enduring earthly wisdom, accentuated his individuality in the troubled world of Paris! How he seemed unconventional to the French in their exalted atmosphere!" This is, of course, no other than Benjamin Franklin; while of whom but Shelley could it have been declared that "in an age a prey to unknown ills, tormented by the birth-throes of new ideas, the poet incarnated in himself the misery of all, and expressed it with tremulous intensity"? Unless there is in this and more of the same style a soul of wit which has wholly escaped us, it only remains to advise those who wish to become acquainted with love in letters to seek their introduction at the hand of a writer who will perform it otherwise.

The Sacred City of the Ethiopians; Being a Record of Travel and Research in Abyssinia in 1893. By J. Theodore Bent. Longmans, Green & Co. 1893. Illustrations, map. Pp. xv, 309. 8vo.

Mr. Bent's account of his Abyssinian expedition in the early part of last year, though interesting, is slightly disappointing. His principal object was to explore the ruins at Aksum, the ancient capital of Ethiopia and still its religious centre. With some difficulty and danger on account of the disturbed political condition of the country, he reached this place and spent ten days in the examination of the highly interesting remains of a long-past civilization, and in obtaining squeezes of some of the inscriptions upon its monuments. These, together with others found in the neighboring ruins of a still more ancient capital, prove the presence of the Sabæans of Arabia in the heart of the country as early as the seventh or eighth century B. C. Now, although he devotes a chapter to an account of the relatively unimportant Portuguese episode of recent times, Mr. Bent nowhere gives a clear and succinct account of what is positively known or reasonably conjectured concerning the Sabæan empire, which apparently reached its culminating point in the sixth century of our era. The main facts are scattered through the volume, no doubt, but, for want of a concise statement of them, the reader is often confused and finds it hard to take an intelligent interest in Mr. Bent's investigations and discoveries. A probable explanation of this defect may be haste in the preparation of the book occasioned by his new expedition to Hadramaut in Southern Arabia, upon which, accompanied by his wife, he set out a few weeks ago.

A very considerable part of the volume is taken up with an account of the various places visited in Eritrea, as the Italians call their Red Sea colony, while waiting for permission to enter Abyssinia proper, and on the return journey to the coast. Here again we fail to get any clear impression as to the effect upon the country of the Italian occupation. Beyond a few references to the construction of roads and the establishment of several experimental stations by the School of Agriculture, we are left uninformed as to what is being done to develop its resources and to reopen the old trade routes into the interior. It is evident, however, that, in Mr. Bent's opinion, the prospects of the Italians getting any adequate return for the enormous sum of money and many lives spent in the consolidation of their power are not very encouraging, and that the success of their enterprise is still problematical. The natives seem to be in a state of decay physically as well as morally. According to the reports of the Italian officers, the Abyssinian youth were relatively "intelligent and active up to the age of thirty-five, and after that they soon became decrepit and useless." Mr. Bent's experiences among them would seem to confirm this impression, and he draws a very unattractive picture of their habits and dwellings. The objects of greatest interest were the churches and the ritual, whose distinguishing feature was the dance of the priests. At the festival of the baptism of the cross at Epiphany, after the reading of the lessons,

"the black-faced, bare-legged priests, with white turbans and red velvet cloaks, a *sistrum* [rattle] in one hand and a crutch in the other, waved to and fro in the mazy dance, whilst boys beat the drums to regulate the time. The figures seemed to us something between a minuet and a quadrille. Every step was studied and graceful, as they changed over from side to side, shaking their rattles and waving their crutches, chanting the while in low and decidedly sweet tones."

The Abyssinians believe that this custom, of which the only parallel in the Western Church is the dance of the boys in Seville Cathedral, is derived from David's dancing before the Ark. But the more probable supposition is that

"the steps and the music have both been handed down from pagan times, and that the excuse of David has been invented to maintain this favorite and really graceful and solemn form of worship amongst them. These religious dances, in steps, time, and rhythm, forcibly reminded us of what a Greek chorus must have been round the altar of Dionysus."

Aksum, the sacred city, lies in a valley more than 7,000 feet above the sea and about 100 miles southwest of Massowah. Its ruins consist principally of monoliths, of which about fifty are still standing. They form a consecutive series, from merely rough, unhewn stones, like those of Stonehenge, to the highly finished and decorated obelisks. These latter are nearly all of the same character, and represent a many-storied castle with an altar at the base. The tallest is sixty feet high, but in a garden were found the fragments of one which when standing must have been ninety feet high. Scattered through the sacred enclosure surrounding the church (a building erected under Portuguese influence) were also mounds and rubbish-heaps, but their examination was prevented by the superstition of the Abyssinians. Apparently there are no remains of masonry such as are to be seen at Zimbabwe in South Africa, though the platform on which the church stands has signs of a very ancient substructure. In the neighboring town of Yeha, however, there is a massive piece of ancient masonry which was possibly a temple "dedicated to the old Sabæan cult of sun and star worship," and is evidently, from the character of the Himyaritic inscriptions found in the ruins about it, of an earlier date than the monoliths of Aksum. Mr. Bent visited the site of another ancient city, picturesquely situated on the summit of a lofty hill not far from the sea—probably a summer resort for the inhabitants of the coast towns; but its ruins, hastily examined, revealed nothing of special interest.

There are a number of interesting illustrations from photographs by Mrs. Bent and sketches by her husband, together with an excellent map of the region visited. Prof. D. H. Müller of Vienna contributes an important chapter upon the inscriptions found at Yeha and Aksum. The chief value of the work, however, apart from its pictures of life in Abyssinia at the present time, is that it calls attention again to the fact that in this country there still exist monuments of a very ancient civilization, which, comparatively unexamined as yet, would doubtless throw much needed light upon some of the most obscure problems of the history of the Old World.

Stoics and Saints. By the late James Baldwin Brown. Macmillan & Co. 1893.

Under the not very significant title of 'Stoics and Saints' the representatives of the Rev. James Baldwin Brown have published a series of ten lectures delivered by him at various times and places, on the later heathen moralists and on some aspects of the mediæval church. Considered as separate essays, these lectures are interesting and valuable. They are animated by a spirit of remarkable fairness and intelligence. Mr. Brown knew better than most who have made similar attempts how to measure the phenomena of a time by the standards of that time, while still preserving for all human effort a standard above it all towards which all ought to strive.

The crucial point of the book is that where the author leaves the thread he has been following as he traced the gradual elevation of moral ideas through the early empire, and assumes a sudden break in the movement of thought and a sudden leaping of Christianity into the breach left vacant by the failure of heathen philosophy. Not that he is singular in this; no one has yet succeeded in showing satisfactorily how the Christian morality came to replace that of the ancient world. So far as the present work attempts the solution at all, it is by showing that philosophy had had its day, and that what the world demanded was a Life which it might emulate, not ideas which it must struggle to comprehend. The essay on monasticism is very critically appreciative, recognizing the falseness of the monastic

principle as a rule of life in general, but acknowledging the great debt of society to it under conditions which made it the only available method of social reform.

Perhaps too much weight is given to the saintly side of King Louis IX. of France. Mr. Brown was content to accept the tradition of him, as the ideal king, handed down by his contemporary flatterers. It is a pretty picture of the royal saint amusing himself by dealing out justice to stray peasants under the trees of his park; but, after all, the really valuable thing was not this, but that, in every corner of the realm, his *baillis* were watching to enforce the royal justice and to gather the royal taxes. It may well be doubted whether the real significance of Louis IX. consists, as Mr. Brown thinks it does, in the fact that a saint preferred a throne to a monastery; it was rather that, being a king thoroughly determined to make the kingdom a force in the land, he added the quality of regard for a decent life which his predecessors had so often got on without.

The lecture on Wiclif presents no new or original points of view. Indeed, with Wiclif one passes fairly out of the mediæval world, and into a set of conditions wholly different from those which make a proper background for the rest of this book.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Australia As It Is. 3d ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Bateson, William. Materials for the Study of Variation, treated with especial regard to Discontinuity in the Origin of Species. Macmillan. $6.50.
Berenson, Bernhard. The Venetian Painters of the Renaissance, with an Index to their Works. Putnams. $1.25.
Bigelow, John, Jr. The Principles of Strategy. Illustrated mainly from American Campaigns. 2d ed., revised and enlarged. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $5.
Black, William. The New Prince Fortunatus. New and revised ed. Harpers. 80 cents.
Bonham, J. N. Secularism: Its Progress and its Morals. Putnams. $1.75.
Bonner, John. A Child's History of Spain. Harpers. $2.
Bütschli, Prof. O. Investigations on Microscopic Foams and on Protoplasm. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $6.25.
Dixon, E. Fairy Tales from the Arabian Nights. London: J. M. Dent & Co; New York: Putnams. $2.
Documents Décoratifs Japonais. Fleurs et Plantes; Oiseaux. Paris: Librairie de *l'Art*.
Drysdale, William. The Mystery of Abel Forefinger. Harpers. $1.25.
Field, Eugene. The Holy Cross, and Other Tales. Chicago: Stone & Kimball.
Giry, Prof. A. Manuel de Diplomatique. Paris: Hachette.
Grandgent, C. H. A Short French Grammar. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 60 cents.
Grandgent, C. H. French Lessons and Exercises. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 15 cents.
Gunter, A. C. A Princess of Paris. Home Publishing Co.
Havard, Henry. Michiel van Miervelt et son Gendre. [Les Artistes Célèbres.] Paris: Librairie de *l'Art*; New York: Macmillan.
Henckels, Theodore. Molière's L'Avare. Boston: Ginn & Co. 65 cents.
Herman, Henry. His Angel. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Heyne, Prof. Moriz. Deutsches Wörterbuch. Fünfter Halbband. R—Setzen. Leipzig: S. Hirzel; New York: Westermann.
Hopkins, Prof. W. J. Telephone Lines and their Properties. New ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
James, Dr. B. W. Alaskana. 2d ed. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. $2.
Kidd, Benjamin. Social Evolution. Macmillan. $2.50.
Lindley, Percy. Holidays in England by the Cathedral Cities. London: The Author.
Longfellow's Evangeline, with Selections from Whittier and Lowell. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50 cents.
Lucas, C. P. A Historical Geography of the British Colonies. Vol. III. West Africa. Oxford: Clarendon Press: New York: Macmillan.
Maccallum, Prof. M. W. Tennyson's Idylls of the King and Arthurian Story from the XVIth Century. Macmillan. $2.50.
McKie, Thomas. Lyrics and Sonnets. Edinburgh: David Douglass.
Molinari, G. de. Religion. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. 90 cents.
Officers of the Army and Navy (Regular and Volunteer) Who Served in the Civil War. Philadelphia: L. R. Hamersly & Co.
Pyle, Howard. The Rose of Paradise. Harpers. 50 cents.
Raymond, Prof. G. L. Art in Theory. Putnams. $1.75.
Sanday, Prof. W. Inspiration: Bampton Lectures for 1893. 2d ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.
Sutherland, Alexander, and George. The History of Australia and New Zealand. Longmans, Green & Co. 90 cents.
Taine, H. A. The Modern Régime. Vol. II. Henry Holt & Co. $2.50.
The Second Presbyterian Church of Chicago. Chicago: Knight, Leonard & Co.
Tisseur, Clair. Pauca Paucis. New ed. Lyon: Bernoux & Cumin.
Webb, Rev. T. W. Celestial Objects for Common Telescopes. Vol. I. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Wentworth, E. E. Irving's Sketch Book. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. 60 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 15, 1894.

The Week.

THE Republican Senators at Washington have fallen into the seigniorage pit which they had digged for other feet. They have suffered that deepest of all disgraces—to trifle with the financial good faith of the country for the basest partisan ends, and then to be held up in full view of all the people in the guise of biters bit. Putting your opponents in "a hole" is never justifiable, even according to the standards of unscrupulous politicians, unless you do the job thoroughly; and when you find yourself unexpectedly at the bottom of the hole, with jeering spectators watching you flounder about in the mire, it makes you believe that there is such a thing as being too clever by half. The exhibition which the Republicans have made of themselves in hurrying on a bill to make fiat money, is only the culmination of the attitude which they have consistently maintained all through the regular session of Congress. In the extra session they sunk partisanship and voted, despite the *Tribune's* protests, for the good of the country and sound finance. But that effort seems to have exhausted their virtue, and all their energies have since been directed towards making legislation as bad as possible.

Up to date the Wilson bill has made fully as good legislative progress as that of the McKinley bill in the Fifty-first Congress. The latter was reported to the House on April 16, and passed on May 21, thus consuming ten days more time in this first stage than was necessary for the Wilson bill. This must seem incredible to those Republicans who have been losing their breath in sneering at the hopeless incompetence of a Democratic House, and sighing for the good old days of Reed's Congress, with its "business" rules and short, sharp, and decisive methods; but it is the painful truth. Even more snail-like was the progress of the McKinley bill through the Senate. It was reported on June 18, but dragged its slow length along till September 11, when it was sent to conference, where all tariff bills are really made. Out of conference it emerged for final passage on September 30. More than five months were thus required to carry the bill from first reporting to last engrossment. According to this, the Wilson bill has yet a margin of three months in which to equal the record of the McKinley bill. There is no good reason why it should not become a law in one-third of that time; in fact, every good reason, whether patriotic or partisan, calls for its passage at the earliest moment possible, and the demand of business interests for speedy action is far more pressing now than in 1890. It may be as well, however, for short-memoried Republican editors to make a note of the facts we have cited, lest they become altogether too virtuous in contemplating the superior legislative efficiency of their own party.

Some extraordinary views as to the status of the reciprocity treaties under the Wilson bill have been given out in Washington. Senators Voorhees and Vest are quoted as believing that the treaties will stand, and that the only effect of the repeal of the reciprocity clause of the McKinley bill will be to take from the President power to make new treaties or levy retaliatory duties on his own motion. Such a view might possibly be taken if the bare terms of section 88 of the Wilson bill, specifically repealing the reciprocity clause of the McKinley bill, were alone considered; but when the operation of the bill as a whole is looked at, and especially when the duties on sugar proposed by the Senate finance committee are taken into the account, it becomes a palpable absurdity. It is true that under the Wilson bill, as it passed the House, sugar and coffee and hides remained free, but the McKinley falsehood was not repeated that they were made free in order to force other countries to grant us reciprocal trade concessions. Moreover, the power of the President to swing the reciprocity club is distinctly taken away from him, so that the practical result would be that other countries could at once cancel the concessions made to us, and we should not be able to say them nay or retaliate in any way whatever.

With the duty put back on sugar, however, as it seems likely to be, the very keystone of the reciprocity treaties would be knocked out of them and they would fall of their own weight. They all set forth that, whereas we give free entry to sugar, molasses, etc., therefore the other countries, Brazil, Cuba, and so on, will shade off the duties on our exports to them. To go to taxing sugar again, of itself destroys the bargain. It will not be necessary to give notice of an intention to abrogate the treaties. If that is what the solemn Senators meant, it is no doubt true. We may keep on innocently claiming reduced duties in Cuba and Porto Rico, and profess great surprise at their objection to being taxed on their $65,000,000 of exports of sugar and molasses to us, and say that we should like them to maintain their end of the agreement although we drop ours. The collectors of customs would be bound to tax all sugar imported, treaties or no treaties. It is safe to say the result would speedily be no treaties.

The striking Trenton potters have put forth a reply to the statements recently made by the employers in regard to wages. It consists mainly of a denial, with specifications, that wages could actually be earned to the amount asserted by the manufacturers. Which party to the controversy is right on this point we cannot profess to say, but we do say that the strikers are proceeding strictly in accordance with the latest theory of protection when they affirm:

"The bosses make a complete somersault, and jump right out of the potting business, and say our wages would compare favorably with the earnings of men in other trades. Gentlemen, we are potters, and we propose to mind our own business. The Government gives to the potting industry a high protective tariff, and we claim a right to a full share of that protection."

That is precisely in conformity with the true doctrine of protection and wages as laid down by Thomas B. Reed in his debate with Mr. Cockran. The tariff is to give extra profits to manufacturers. It would give higher wages directly to workingmen if it could; but as it cannot, it deposits with the manufacturers a sum for the workingman's benefit, which the latter can get hold of in just one way, and that is by getting up a strong labor union and going on strike. The old theory was that the manufacturer would, out of pure patriotism and benevolence, turn over his extra profits to the laboring man; but a wider experience has convinced Mr. Reed, and apparently the Trenton operatives, that the manufacturer will not give up a cent of his tariff subsidy unless driven to it by strikes and boycotts.

Both houses of the Virginia Legislature have passed a ballot-reform law, and as the Governor's approval is said to be assured, elections in that State will in future be conducted under the new system. The law provides for a blanket ballot with the names of candidates arranged in alphabetical order under each office, as in the laws of Massachusetts and thirteen other States. The addition of Virginia raises the number of States with ballot-reform laws to thirty-seven, and leaves Idaho, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Texas as the only States yet to enact them.

President Walker has taken up his bimetallist crusade in good earnest. His pamphlet on the subject is issued as a "Tract for the Times," but the ques

tion is, What times? When some one told Horace Bushnell that a certain preacher was behind the age, he exclaimed: "Behind the age? He is behind all ages!" Mr. Walker practically admits that, as far as the United States are concerned, bimetallism can now be discussed only *in vacuo*, but thinks he sees a bright future for it in certain things which he believes England is soon going to be forced to do. In other words, the only hope left bimetallism is that of seeing "England on her knees," on the principle that Satan (monometallism) trembles when he sees the weakest saint upon his knees. England was to have fallen a-kneeling immediately after the repeal of the silver-purchase law, according to President Andrews, and various forms of financial devastation were going to sweep down upon her. But so far all the convulsions and all the kneeling have been confined to the theoretic bimetallists in this country. When we look at President Walker's list of backers, we can only say with Hosea Biglow:

"[illegible]
[illegible]"

The Rev. Prof. G. D. Herron has written an article on the "Christian Theory of the Distribution of Wealth," which has been much admired and copied in the religious press. It is principally notable for extending to wealth in general the famous denunciations applied by Ingalls to gold. Like Ingalls's gold, Prof. Herron's wealth "has scarcely ever failed to prove its cowardice and greed and witness to the falseness of its theory by fleeing from every just demand," and also has a deplorable "habit of hiding itself in vaults and refusing to work and sacrifice in the face of a crisis." What Prof. Herron wants is a kind of capital that will "go where it is needed" and "supply the demand for work and wages." But why this should be called the Christian theory we do not see. The Populists and the socialists already claim it as their own, and will not easily suffer an infringement on their trade-mark.

Mr. Edward H. Van Ingen has performed a public service of high value in bringing suits against Republican newspapers which published his name in connection with the familiar Cobden Club lie in the campaign of 1892. That lie has been doing dirty service in every Presidential campaign for nearly or quite a quarter of a century. Its utter lack of foundation has been demonstrated at every new appearance, but this has not prevented its reappearance in the closing days of the next canvass. Mr. Van Ingen's name was connected with it in a peculiarly atrocious manner in 1892, he being proclaimed in the Republican press of this country, on the evening before and the morning of election, as an American merchant who had brought a corruption fund of half a million dollars from the Cobden Club to be used in buying votes for Cleveland. Mr. Van Ingen brought suit against Dalziel's news agency in London, and it was compromised by the payment by Dalziel of 200 guineas and costs amounting to $4,800. He also sued the *Mail and Express* and the *Recorder* of this city, and has obtained against the former a verdict of $4,000 and costs, and one against the latter of $1,000 and costs. Thus far this single use of the lie has cost its disseminators over $10,000, and we hope it will cost them a good many more before he gets through with them, for there are several other suits to be tried, it being Mr. Van Ingen's public-spirited determination to make every newspaper publishing the lie share in the expense of the general libel.

The *Herald* is agitating an amendment to the libel law which would enable the publisher of a newspaper to plead prompt and conspicuous retraction, or mistake or misapprehension, as a bar to punitive damages. No one who has had any experience of the libel law will question the justice of this change, in so far as it relates to comments on public men or measures. No amount of care will prevent misstatements about somebody creeping into the columns of a newspaper, and, when there is no room to suspect malice, prompt retraction ought to satisfy every complainant. But the reason why the public is hostile to every attempt to mitigate the law of libel is the absolute want of editorial supervision exercised over their reporters by some newspapers. They are sent out with full liberty to lie, to invent, to misrepresent and caricature; and if the result be "spicy" and "sells the paper," they are never called to account. Fictitious interviews, for instance, are now so common that they hardly excite any attention. A reliable and sensible report of the speeches or public meetings of the opponents of a paper is hardly ever seen. Personal ridicule is one of a reporter's commonest pastimes. A young fellow fresh from college or school, and with barely enough English to be funny, will load a man of prominence and old enough to be his father with a column of abusive caricature, with perfect impunity. Of the prying into family affairs, especially when families are bowed down with sorrow or disgrace, we do not need to speak, as everybody is only too familiar with it. In fact, the way the press is surrendered by the responsible publishers to the control of irresponsible and reckless young men, is one of the great scandals of the day.

These things ought not, perhaps, to affect public opinion about the law of libel, but they do. They make people hate the newspapers; make them glad to have them sued and mulcted in damages, and oppressed and ground down. There is a proposal afloat to add to the *Herald* bill a provision that, if the same libel appears in several papers, and a plaintiff gets a verdict against one of them, he shall not be allowed to pursue the others. This might be a good provision if his only object was to get money out of them. His object generally is, however, to clear his name of some imputation. This he cannot do by suing one of several libellers, because, even if he gets a verdict, the general agreement which actually exists among newspapers not to report libel suits would prevent the public from ever hearing of it, and as a vindication the verdict would therefore be worthless to him. See how difficult it is for Mr. Van Ingen to get his case before the public. In spite of the fact that it is a partisan Republican libel he is pursuing, we believe that the *Evening Post* is the only paper in the city which has reported the case.

The appointment of Wallace Macfarlane as United States district attorney for the Southern District of New York is recognized by the business community as unimpeachable in every way. There is no lawyer at the bar who has a better equipment for the custom-house cases which constitute so large a part of the work of the district-attorney's office. As a lawyer and as a citizen Mr. Macfarlane is equally fitted to represent the general Government in its legal branch and to inspire confidence in the administration of justice in its courts. Mr. Cleveland has been slow in filling this place, but he has filled it in the right way at last.

There is said to be a shortage of something like $200,000 in the accounts of John Y. McKane, as ruler of Gravesend. It is shown by the *Times* that McKane was so generous with the public funds in rewarding his followers for their public services that he paid his favorite justice of the peace over $11,000 for his services in the single year of 1893, and that he made Kings County pay for justices of the peace and constables on duty in the town of Gravesend, with about 8,000 inhabitants, in the years 1892 and 1893, no less than $66,568, or over $33,000 a year. The income of McKane's favorite justice of the peace, Sutherland, who is under indictment for his share in McKane's criminal performances, reached nearly $21,000 in two years, and that of another exceeded $14,000 in the same period.

The *Times* has a long list of city salaries which is very instructive reading.

but it would be made more instructive by considering more closely the kind of men who draw them. Of course, there are a great many respectable men in the city service, but as a rule a good Tammany servant of the city could not get work in a responsible position from any private employer. These men do not begin life in any regular business, or, if they do, they speedily abandon it for "politics." They generally at first get places as clerks or doorkeepers in some of the minor courts, as both Gilroy and Croker did, or as "secretaries," or errandmen, to some of the larger lights of the "organization," and then, if they are really useful for electioneering purposes, they are shifted about from one little place to another, dividing their salaries all the time with some other fellow, until, when exceptionally able, they reach a place where the stealing is good. After this the road to riches is easy. The two Martins are excellent examples of the way they rise. These two men draw $13,000 a year between them from the city treasury. They began life as car conductors on the most barbarous of our city railroads, the Third Avenue, and since then have never had any calling but "politics," and undoubtedly could not obtain over $15 to $20 each a week from private employers.

In speaking of the sufferings of the mothers in affliction in "Paddy" Divver's district, in consequence of so many Tammany boys having been sent to prison for violating the election laws, "Big Tom" Foley is credited with saying of one case:

> "Poor Mrs. Buckley! It makes my heart bleed to see how that woman is suffering. Her boy, Denny Buckley, was sent to the penitentiary for one year for being one of Divver's inspectors. That woman's hair has actually turned gray from suffering. Poor woman! I would do anything to obtain the release of the boy, and *if Divver had been on hand he probably could have been saved.*"

What has Mr. Foley in mind when he says that "if Divver had been on hand," the boy "probably could have been saved"? Of the boy's guilt there is no question; Mr. Foley does not dispute that. How, then, could Divver save a guilty man from the penalty of his crime? Why should "Denny" Buckley's mother, and other mothers in like affliction, expect Divver to save their sons? Undoubtedly because he has, as a power in Tammany Hall and as a police justice, "saved" them many times heretofore from the penalties of other indiscretions. What Mr. Foley has in mind is the Tammany "pull," and he echoes the sentiment of the Second District when he blames Divver for not staying at home and using the "pull" to keep the boys out of the penitentiary.

The fuller explanation of the attitude of the secretaries of war and of the navy in regard to football at West Point and Annapolis shows how out of sympathy they are with modern educational methods. They are actually concerned at learning that football contests mean "distraction from studies which may mean failure to the cadet." With a penuriousness which is enough to bring a blush to the cheek of the live college president, they object to football "trips" on the ground that they are "expensive." Worst of all, they have had the unheard-of curiosity to ask the post-surgeon at West Point to compile a table giving a list of football casualties, with amount of time lost in consequence. From this table it appears that "the percentage of accidents per man was twenty times as frequent in football as in riding or gymnastics"; that "the number of days lost from football accidents per man is twenty-six times as much as compared with riding, and over fifty times as much as from gymnastics"; and that "there were five times as many men continuously off duty from football accidents as from riding accidents, and twenty-five times as many as from gymnastics." With a painful lack of ability to explain away these figures, which the president of any fresh-water college could dispose of by a single triumphant reference to the growth of his classes since football was added to the curriculum, the secretaries weakly conclude that "more harm than good comes from football, with its present violent tendencies," and issue orders to confine the game hereafter to "the grounds of the respective academies."

Judge Forbes of the Supreme Court, sitting at Ithaca, has made an extraordinary charge to the grand jury in the freshmen-dinner case at Cornell. He began by praising "institutions of learning" on account of the eminent men they had produced, and warned the jurors against "false notions with regard to certain habits or customs which have arisen in colleges." They must not "condemn them for their innocent amusements," nor condemn them "when an accident occurs"; nor "censure them severely and beyond all reason for faults in which they may indulge." In taking up this chlorine case, too, they must "protect the college," because "it stands as high as any in the land." They must not "make thoughtless or over-anxious attempts to crush the institution, or administer such a rebuke to it or its faculty as will endanger its future prosperity." He then went on to warn them in the same strain against finding an indictment for murder against anybody in consequence of the death of the cook. Against the astonishing ruffianism of trying to break up a dinner party by filling the room with foul and, as the result proved, with dangerous gases he does not say a word except that it was "thoughtless" or "unintentional."

Of course it is possible that the judge knew the farmers who compose the grand jury to be so prejudiced against the college and the students that their zeal needed some check. But even so, his apologetic tone about the offence is likely to be mischievous, and he lost a great opportunity of denouncing authoritatively the extraordinary blackguardism which breaks out every now and then in many colleges, and has in this case resulted in a tragedy. The older an institution of learning is, and the higher it stands, and the more eminent men it has produced, the more incumbent is it on all who repair to it to try to be gentlemen. In fact, to teach them to be gentlemen is its first and greatest duty. There is an immense field of fun and sport open to gentlemen, but getting into the room under a dinner party and sending up fetid fumes among the guests is not in it. That is the sport of blackguards or barbarians. There is an excellent French teacher still among us who, years ago, had a school much resorted to by wild Western girls, who used to come full of courses of reading and lines of study, and were eager to consult her about them. But she always met them with, "This is all very well, ladies, but you must first civilize yourselves" (*Civilisez-vous d'abord, mesdemoiselles*). That is, she meant that they should first learn how to behave. The Cornell Faculty have need, apparently, to address the same remark to their young men.

The Queen's speech on Monday, though producing the Liberal programme of legislation, contains no mention of Irish home rule; but the omission seems to be rendered unimportant by Lord Rosebery's explicit declaration that the position of the Liberals on that question was unchanged, and that if his speech in the House of Lords last year left any doubt about his views on the subject, he desired to remove them. This declaration may be said to have been absolutely necessary to save the ministry, for they are dependent on the Irish vote for their existence. If it went against them, they would have to dissolve, and he would be a good prophet who should say what the result of a dissolution would be. Lord Rosebery promises other measures, such as Welsh and Scotch disestablishment and the abolition of plural voting, the equalization of rates in London, and, above all, some changes in the constitution of the House of Lords which will make it amenable to public opinion. With these measures pending, it may safely be said that "Old" England is on her last legs, and we may be sure that there will be some desperate fighting before she disappears.

THE SENATE AMENDMENTS.

THE amendments to the Wilson tariff bill reported by the Senate finance committee will be disappointing to most tariff-reformers, who must, however, bear in mind that the first and most necessary thing is to prepare a bill that can be passed. The McKinley tariff organs, and especially the protectionist trade journals, such as the *American Manufacturer* of Pittsburgh, have been predicting with great confidence that the bill would not pass at all. In fact, the efforts of the protected classes generally have been directed towards the defeat of the bill and not to its amendment. Only here and there has an advocate of amendment been found among them. One such, the *Wool and Cotton Reporter*, has pointed out from the beginning that the bill was almost certain to pass, and hence that it was the part of wisdom for the manufacturers to labor for its improvement instead of incurring the ill-will of its supporters by opposing everything in it.

The bill, as reported, makes a great many small concessions to particular trades, which the masses of the people will take little interest in because they will not understand them. The principal amendments are the placing of a duty of one cent per pound on raw sugar, and an additional duty of four-tenths of a cent on refined, and the restoration of coal and iron ore to the dutiable list at 40 cents per ton each —the existing duty being 75 cents. The duty on sugar has two aspects. Until the passage of the McKinley bill it had been the largest source of revenue to the Government, some sixty millions being derived from it at two cents per pound with a corresponding duty on molasses. Now the Government is in need of revenue, and has been obliged, within thirty days, to sell bonds to pay its current expenses. That condition cannot continue. Revenue must be had from some quarter, and in large amounts too. The deficit for the present fiscal year is likely to be $75,000,000, if not more. The income tax, if it passes, at 2 per cent. upon incomes above $4,000, will not come anywhere near filling this gap. The proposed increase in the tax on distilled spirits will not more than make good the decrease in import duties. Therefore, an additional revenue of something like $30,000,000 must be found for a few years, until the swollen pension list begins to subside.

This is one view of the duty on sugar. The other is that the supporters of the Wilson bill, with their narrow majority in the Senate, cannot afford to throw away any votes. It is very probable that the Louisiana Senators made the sugar duty a condition of their support, *sine qua non*. If this is true, then the committee was justified in adopting the amendment. The bounty on sugar paid under the McKinley bill will now disappear. This amounts to over $10,000,000. Consequently the total change in the Government's balance-sheet under the sugar schedule will be $40,000,000. It should be remarked here that the balancing of the budget is really the most important concern of the whole bill. The prosperity of the country depends more upon the equilibrium of the national Treasury than upon any other single matter within the scope of the Government's powers.

The retention of the duty on iron ore seems to us to be a serious matter and a thing to be resisted by the House—not to be resisted at all hazards, but to be fought over in earnest. Leaving out of view the matter of principle involved, upon which there is much to be said from the standpoint of raw materials, the prosperity of the iron industry on the Atlantic seaboard is involved. The Bessemer ores of the island of Cuba are already owned to a large extent by Americans. Therefore any profits derived from the importation of them will inure to our own citizens. These ores are needed to mix with ores of our own production in the manufacture of steel. The great works at Sparrow Point, Maryland, which have been so long closed, would soon be reopened if these ores could be obtained free of duty. What is true of the Sparrow Point works is true in somewhat less degree of all the iron and steel industries east of the Allegheny Mountains. The duty on coal is of much less consequence, as it affects only a corner of New England, which seems to be too much wedded to McKinleyism to make any fight for its own rights in this particular.

It is gratifying to observe that free wool remains in the bill. We have always held the opinion that the doctrine of protection would receive its death-wound whenever wool should be made free. That infantile doctrine may linger for some time afterwards, but it will never recover. That this is the belief of the high-tariff people we have had frequent occasion to show by quotations from their organs. Nothing else than this conviction would ever have reconciled them to the wool tariff of 1867. Hence if any group of tariff-reformers are disposed to make wry faces over the Senate amendments, let them bear in mind that if the bill should pass to-morrow in exactly the shape that it now stands, they would have gained free wool at all events and would have planted a seed that is pretty sure to come to maturity. Let us see now what is the meaning of the threat of the wool-growers that without protection for wool there shall be no protection for anything. Let us see if they will be as active in throwing off duties hereafter as they have been in putting them on heretofore.

The tariff-reformers can take courage also from the fact that this is the first tariff bill since the war that has been passed avowedly for other purposes than protection. This is a fact of great significance. It is this example, far more than any specific reduction of duties, that makes the bill exasperating to the protected classes. Their opponents may be correspondingly cheered.

GOVERNMENT BY SEE-SAW.

THE Republican organ draws the attention of "the considerable number of respectable gentlemen who got tired of voting the Republican ticket a few years ago," to the bad uses to which the Democrats have put the power which these "respectable gentlemen" helped to bestow on them. It would be useless to defend the Democrats. The country has been wofully disappointed in them. Their government of this State, for instance, has been little better than the orgy of a lot of criminals; and though their record in other States has not been quite so bad, it has been very bad. But their achievements at Washington have not been without merit. They have, in one way or another, stopped the silver purchases, with much groaning and moaning, it is true, and with plenty of blundering, but very much in the way in which all our legislation at Washington is now done, much in the way in which, for example, we got back to specie payments in 1878. The party has, too, repealed the wholly useless and probably unconstitutional federal-election law, to which we owed Davenport in this city. It is now engaged on and will probably pass a moderate tariff, by which we mean neither a protectionist nor a free-trade tariff, but a tariff which will probably stand for some time unaltered and without exciting any furious opposition. This makes, as parties now go, by no means a bad record for the first year. How long is it since the Republican party gave us any such reasons to be thankful? All the Democratic legislation hitherto has, if we except the income tax, been moderate—that is, has not been offensive to the moderate men who turn the scale at elections.

That this will continue if it remains in power we do not assert. The income tax is a bad sign. In these times, when the questions before the country are mainly economical questions, want of moderation is the rock on which both parties split. During the days of the anti-slavery agitation, when the evil the Republicans were attacking was far away and the interest of the North in it was largely moral, almost any violence was excusable and excused. But when a party is legislating about business, men will not tolerate extreme measures which upset their calculations and compel them to change their business habits, or make serious inroads on their income. This is a lesson which both Democrats and Republicans find it hard to learn. The probabilities are that the tariff of 1883, high as it was, might have stood

for long years, and would be standing to-day, if the Republicans could have been content to let it alone. A wall of use and wont soon grows up about any moderate tariff, on which its defenders might safely rely for its preservation for a long period. But the Republicans could not let it alone. They tinkered it every year, until they finally produced the McKinley bill, which was protection run mad, and passed it by methods such as had never been seen in a parliamentary body before. This was the excess which worked their ruin. Excess, in fact, is what drives every party out of office. It does not trouble the rank and file, but it touches the susceptibilities of the small body who, in most parts of the country, decide the elections.

If this State should be turned over again to the Republicans next fall, it will certainly not indicate any forgetfulness, on the part of those who do the turning over, of the record of the Republican party as an agent of bad government here. It is now a good while since 1885, but no intelligent political observer is oblivious of the fact that Hill was in that year started on his shameful career by the refusal of the Republicans to support their own ticket and elect Davenport. Nor has there since then been a single scheme against the peace and dignity of the State or city set on foot at Albany in which the Republicans have not had some share. The party does not keep a boss like Platt for mere ornament. He is kept for use. The present session of the Legislature is not yet over, and it may turn out better than is expected, but it looks now as if the eagerness of the disgusted and discontented for a change of parties would be considerably abated by next June.

The number of people on whom party ties sit lightly is increasing every year, and is making all elections more and more uncertain. Large numbers of Democrats voted the Republican ticket last fall who never voted it before, and large numbers of Republicans voted the Democratic ticket in 1892 who never voted it before. When a man does this even once, he never gets over it. He is never a good party man again. When economic questions are the questions of the day, this tendency is sure to increase No man can make a religion of taxation or currency, as men did of the anti-slavery cause or the defence of the Union. The younger generation which is fast coming on the stage is amused by the fidelity to their party of the old "life-long" Democrats and Republicans. They are learning the new and rational method of getting good government by what we may call "see-saw"—that is, by turning out of office each party in turn when it begins to push its doctrines to extremes. It is astonishing, when one comes to think of it, how small a portion of the community is composed of furious fellows who insist on "the whole hog" in everything. The mass of men like middle courses and quiet methods, but it is almost impossible to get this into the heads of politicians and clarion editors. Things accordingly go pretty smoothly with every party as long as it attempts nothing heroic, and does not try to put the noses of the other fellows to the grindstone. The people, for instance, can stand a fair amount of corruption in office, but when you try to put a criminal on the bench of a court of last resort, they rise up in wrath. They can stand moderate protection, but when you begin to build a wall round the country, and tell the laborer that the more he pays for his clothes, the better off he is, you array the common sense of mankind against you, and before that everything goes down.

PROTECTION AND SOCIALISM.

THE French Chamber of Deputies has been occupied for some time with raising the duty on foreign wheat. This is partly owing to the loud outcries of the farmers, who, like the farmers of all the world, are complaining bitterly of foreign competition, and partly to the desire to maintain the valuation on which the land tax is assessed. This valuation began in 1821, and has remained pretty much the same ever since; but if the present agricultural depression continues, there will naturally be a demand for revision, which would be a task that any government might well shrink from.

The debate on the increase of duty has been remarkable as one of those discussions on general principles in which Frenchmen delight, and in which they shine. The great battle of free trade and protection has been fought over with a finish and an eloquence and a wealth of epigrams and illustrations which one hears nowadays in no parliament but that of France. But it owes its chief interest to the appearance in the arena of a socialist deputy, M. Jaurès, who far surpasses any orator of that school who has as yet undertaken to preach its gospel. He held the Chamber spellbound for several hours by a speech of extraordinary eloquence and ability, and of absolute freedom from the violences and vulgarities of the ordinary socialist harangue. He moved as an amendment to the bill increasing the duties on grain the following bill:

> "Sole Article. The State alone has the right to import foreign grain, flour, and meal. It will resell them at a price fixed every year by law. It will sell the flour and meal at a price based on the price of grain, and fixed also by law."

He supported this amendment in an address which the *Temps* said was "worthy of the most illustrious orators of antiquity." The interest of it, however, lay largely in the fact that, while repudiating both protection and free trade as "provisional and relative phenomena, like society itself," his arguments were strictly protectionist only he was more consistent and logical than any protectionist ventures to be. To use the slang of the game of poker, "he saw the protectionists and went them one better." If the Government is to concern itself at all with the prices of commodities, and especially with that of a commodity so important as grain and flour, the true plan, and the only sure one, is to fix the price itself directly, without the use of an instrument so clumsy and uncertain as the custom-house. In this way two great evils would be got rid of —speculation and intermediate profits. The middleman, who raises the price of everything he handles, would, so to speak, be "left out in the cold," and the speculator, who buys up the grain of the country and stores it for a rise or sells it for a fall, would find his occupation gone. The Government, being the only importer, would see that enough grain to prevent a scarcity, and yet not enough to injure the native farmer, was always imported.

The effect of this speech was very great. It exploded like a bomb among the protectionists, for the arguments of M. Jaurès were their own. He convicted them of socialism with ease and grace. To M. Méline, their great leader, he presented protectionism as a mirror, and said: "Look at yourself; don't you see you are a socialist?" This, said he, was also the opinion of the great Cavour. All protectionists are socialists in the earlier stage. They undertake, like the socialists, to fix prices and regulate industry, and decide which industry ought to thrive, and what profits it ought to have, and how much wages it ought to pay to its workmen, but they do it clumsily, and with enormous disturbance to the body social. For what can be more awkward, and even barbarous, as a fixer of prices and improver of the condition of the poor, than a custom-house, with its scales, and schedules, and percentages, and valuations, and classifications, and watchers, and weighers, and bonded warehouses, and frauds, and concealments, and smugglers? If Government be competent at all to fix prices, it ought to fix them directly, and, if necessary, it ought to produce or buy the goods needed by the people.

There is for protectionists no getting away from this position. They, more than any writers, thinkers, or preachers, have prepared the working classes of the world for socialism. They dare not present themselves to any socialist audience without exposing themselves to being bowled over by the least intelligent disciple in the room. Once admit the right or duty of a government to levy taxes for other purposes than revenue, and you clear the coast for Karl Marx and Juarès and Bebel and Bellamy and the whole crowd of social dreamers

and firebrands. They need no books or papers which Carey and Greeley and McKinley and Reed and Lodge do not furnish them. These thinkers have really left nothing for the socialists to settle but the question of means. The socialists prefer simpler methods and a larger application of the protectionist principle. But it must be admitted that the socialists have far stronger faith in human nature than the protectionists possess. The protectionists openly acknowledge that "the State" is composed of men who like money and are capable of being corrupted in a good cause. To the socialists, on the other hand, "the State" is a collection of absolutely pure philosophers, who devote their lives to the promotion of human happiness, and know what is good for every one, and would scorn to make a cent out of State products or industry.

A PRACTICAL STUDY OF VITAL STATISTICS.

VITAL statistics are the mathematics of aggregate life. The differentials and the integrals of the calculus of being are soil, food, shelter, ventilation, occupation, race, and the various other factors wherein one community differs from another. One of the most interesting of these, because it is at once the most stable and the least understood, is that of race. In the Southern States this carries the question into the higher regions of political economy because of the numerical importance of the negro and his physiological allies. The health of the colored man affects his working power and hence his productiveness. His sickness involves an indirect money loss by enforced idleness, a direct waste by the absorption of energy and of material in caring for him, and a permanent diminution of productive power by his premature decay or death. A famous operative surgeon used to maintain that English flesh differed from French flesh. In the civil war, negro soldiers recovered from wounds more rapidly than whites, but succumbed to most diseases sooner, and the moral and physical qualities that led to those results must still, in part at least, be efficient. Sickness and death among the whites, of course, lead to similar economic waste.

A special report by the Census Office on the comparative vital statistics of Baltimore and the District of Columbia, for the six years ending with 1890, is interesting for the incidental light it throws on race influences as well as on the direct exposure to other elements of life and death. The regions chosen for this investigation resemble each other in climate, in water supply, in topographical features, and in the number and race distribution of the inhabitants, and are unlike in that one is sewered and the other is not, and partly in the occupations of the people. For this examination they were districted to correspond with peculiarities of altitude, location, and character or density of population, independently of municipal subdivisions, and they were studied as such districts and not as wards or voting-precincts. The population, both in the aggregate and in these sectional parts, was grouped into classes of age, according to the teaching of experience, which shows that death attacks the extremities of the column much more successfully than its centre. Thus, the aggregate colored death-rate was nearly twice that of the white in Baltimore, and more than one-third in excess of that in Washington.

But if one should compare the white death-rate per thousand under five years at, say, 80 with that of the colored between 15 and 45 years at 15, or the death-rate of the colored under 5 years at 160 with the mature whites at 10 per thousand, there could be no just deduction. First the relative numbers of those living at the different ages must be determined, and then the proportion of deaths within these various groups are to be considered. These comparisons show that the excess of colored mortality is due to the enormous death-rate of children. Thus, in Baltimore it was 197.62 colored to 88.22 white; and, although the aggregate was lower, the proportion was about the same in Washington. During the census year the disproportion was even greater in other Southern cities, being in Richmond 222.6 to 75.3, in Mobile 190.6 to 73.75, and in Charleston 227.8 to 92.3. But it does not seem that this is a necessary fatality, for it varies greatly in different districts of the cities under discussion, as from 466.7 in one to 143 9 in another, and again from 642.9 to 70.2, while the white mortality of similar age-groups in the same localities ranges from 162.65 to 73 and from 125 to 65.7. Neither is it necessarily a peculiarity of race, because in the census year Atlanta lost 163.5, New Orleans 118.2, Montgomery 57.5 of such colored children as against those cited from other Southern cities.

The cause of such fluctuations for both white and black must depend upon local conditions which hygienists class as preventable. As the altitude increases, the death-rate diminishes for both colors; and low-lying districts mean, generally speaking, dampness, malaria, and other consequences of defective drainage. As is reasonable where the greatest population to the acre is less than 70 in one town and 172 in the other, density has no appreciable influence. The overcrowding of great cities is quite different. Somewhat curiously, the moral character of the people may be determined in the rough by the range of mortality—another illustration of the wages of sin. But whether it is that the vicious make the districts lethal by their vice, or, being improvident and undeveloped, they drift into the worst quarters from inability to do better, or whether from choice they find congenial haunts in the ill-kept purlieus, is not explained. There is no doubt that it is only by close investigation of comparatively small areas that the real health of any community can be analyzed.

The special causes of excessive sickness and of death are always localized; and by those properly equipped not only can the lines that enclose these areas, whether houses or wards, be defined, but the efficient causes of their unhealthfulness be determined. It is here that knowledge is power. Every inhabited district has these variations, and while a city as a whole may be healthy, there will be, in all but ideal communities, regions far below the average. An intelligent investigator, supplied with knowledge of what is below the surface and what is going on within the houses, who should dissect New York, would develop many a cause not now suspected for the ill-health that mars sub-districts of the town and finds expression only in the statistics at large. An honest topographical map of what is ten feet under ground in the heart of the city would show undrained sub-basements, springs and blind water-courses beneath Belgian blocks and sandstone foundations, questionable sewers, leaking pipes, ground "made" by garbage and other filth; and then why Nature exacts a tithe even from the innocent violators of sanitary laws would be better understood. What is out of sight nourishes the deadly fruit that is plucked in public.

The value of such a report as we have just discussed, due in this instance to the acute intelligence of Dr. Billings, lies in directing the attention of those interested to the very spots where remedy and prevention must be applied. The authorities of those cities have no excuse for not lifting out of the slough at least some of their unfortunates. They are not aliens, or even neighbors, whom they may or may not be expected to succor: they are their own sons and daughters. Still more profitable would it be if the records of sickness as well as of death could be made thus plain. But sickness is so variable in quality that it is difficult to define it except in the grosser forms of severe acute disease. It is, however, worth proclaiming that consumption, whose preventable nature is now attracting so much attention, caused very nearly one-seventh of all the deaths in the two cities, and more than one-fourth of all those of persons over fifteen years of age. It is also significant that there were to the thousand fewer infants less than one year old in 1890 than in 1880. This is true of each city and of each race. Whether that was due to an increased death-rate or to a diminished birth-rate, is yet undetermined; but it is worthy of consideration. A diminished

birth-rate is not an unmixed evil if it is accompanied by increased vitality. It is the children that survive and are vigorous, not those that are born, who give prosperity to the community.

With consumption abolished, with typhoid fever as rare as typhus, and with wise police measures to regulate vices that we may hope religion and morals will finally overcome, the physical millennium may be looked for. But that form of the kingdom of heaven will arise only as the streets of the New Jerusalem are kept clean by every one sweeping in front of his own door—by the local evils being swept away one by one.

MR. GLADSTONE'S RETIREMENT.

LONDON, March 3, 1894.

RUMORS concerning Mr. Gladstone's retirement have, during the past three weeks, pervaded the political atmosphere. They were at one period fully disposed of in the minds of most men by "authorized" communications from Biarritz. They supervened in stronger guise than ever in the evening papers of Tuesday. Next morning the *Daily News*, generally supposed to be fully in Mr. Gladstone's confidence, wrote as follows: "We have authority for stating, as we state elsewhere, that there is no truth in any of the current rumors on the subject of the prime minister's resignation." The day before yesterday, Thursday, the House of Commons met to consider further changes made by the Lords in the parish-councils bill. The chamber was crowded as in anticipation of some important pronouncement. The strangers', the peers', and the ladies' galleries (so far as could be seen through the grille) were full. In all the four years in which I have listened to Mr. Gladstone, I never heard him speak with greater clearness, force, and verve. He was on his feet for half an hour, he did not use a single note, and did not even claim the assistance of a glass of water. The protest with which he opened, against sending the parish-councils bill backwards and forwards between the two houses, was received with an outburst of cheering from Liberal and home-rule benches. As he proceeded, the growing enthusiasm was, however, checked, when it was realized that the cabinet meant to end this process for the present, not by abandoning the bill and appealing to the country, but by accepting under protest the final attenuated amendments of the Lords, and thereby saving a substantial measure from the wreck of a session of unexampled duration and unexampled labor—leaving to a near future the reversal of a state of things which, "in our judgment, cannot continue."

It would be impossible to describe the effect of this speech—felt to be nothing short of a declaration of war against the upper house. There was not, however, to the ordinary hearer, one word necessarily implying any modification of the subsisting relations between the speaker, the House, and the country. We took the words, "For me, my duty terminates with calling the attention of the House," etc., as referring to the question immediately under review. Yet what was our surprise, on trooping out to the lobby, to hear upon all sides, from the best informed, the assurance that we had heard from the great octogenarian his last utterance as prime minister. Whatever doubt there might have been upon our minds that evening, was finally set at rest yesterday by the categorical pronouncement in the *Daily News* that "There is no longer, we regret to say, any room for hope that Mr. Gladstone will be able to lead the Liberal Government and the Liberal party through the labors of the coming session." He spent last night at Windsor, the guest of the Queen, to whom he is to-day to hand in his seals of office. This verification of the correctness of the repeatedly denied rumors of the past few weeks is the greatest feather I have ever known to be set in the caps of quidnuncs and gossip-mongers in these countries. It is a discouragement to those who desire to believe in honest and well-informed journalism. Nothing has been gained by playing fast and loose with a question in which feelings and interests were so deeply involved. It does not help the cause of political morality that those of the entourage of a great man who could not keep his confidences to themselves, should endeavor to cover their weakness by denying one day that which they must have known they would be obliged to acknowledge the next. However, considerations regarding the manner in which the change has come to be admitted, are of minor importance to a consideration of the change itself.

Mr. Gladstone's retirement from the premiership will make less difference than was at one period anticipated. There seldom was a stronger cabinet—one against which the Opposition has beat itself to so little purpose. Lord Rosebery will succeed. The air will be cleared in so far as the country will realize that Mr. Gladstone's retirement in no degree implies the abandonment of home rule. The dramatic, whether in the field of great good or great misfortune, finds small place in British politics. An immediately effective crusade against the Lords, threatened as it loudly is by a powerful section of the radical party inside and outside the House, appears to me most unlikely. The people of Great Britain generally will require some stronger incentive than they have at present before they will undertake such an essential modification in one of the principal institutions of their country—institutions under which they have progressed so steadily and upon the whole so happily, and under which, by the exercise of a little patience, they have invariably secured their own way in the end. The abandonment of the employers'-liability bill for a few months, the changes made in the parish-councils bill, will prove scarcely sufficient to nerve Great Britain for such a conflict. The Lords, in their personal dealings as citizens, in the extent and degree and manner in which they play their part in the social and political life of the country, have hitherto acted with considerable wisdom and astuteness. My experiences at the Horncastle election in January, where, in the face of all the popular declarations and measures of the present Government, the Conservative candidate was returned by a considerably increased majority over the Conservative majority at the general election, profoundly impressed me regarding the hold which Conservative principles have upon the country. Disappointment in the case of other nations of brilliant anticipations regarding the blessings likely to flow from theoretic changes in forms of government have had an influence, greater than can as yet well be estimated, upon the public mind here. The large degree of honesty and purity of administration which exists here is more and more realized. Useless expenditure there may be, and is, to an enormous amount; but every penny is accounted for, all is open and above board, down in black and white, and can be scrutinized whenever a majority of the country so desires. There are shoals of offices practically reserved for scions of royalty and the aristocracy. The average Englishman is, however, largely content to barter the remote chance of securing one of the same for relative or friend for the certainty that at present its duties are being honestly discharged without the suspicion of monetary malversation. Absence of jealousy regarding those placed over him or whom he is bound to serve, so long as they do their duty, as to whether drawn from a peculiar class or from among those with whom he was once on terms of familiar equality, is one of his most striking, and, in many respects, most admirable characteristics.

The Lords accepted the main principles of the employers'-liability and parish-councils bills. They differed from the Commons only regarding details. They have, in truth, regarding Great Britain, let pass a measure second in importance only to the great Reform Bill; a measure not agitated for by the outside public, and which I never heard even mentioned until some two years ago. They have refused, by an overwhelming majority, even to consider the home-rule bill, for the settlement of a question which, for the last fifty years, has agitated Ireland to her very centre, which has brought untold misery to thousands, and upon which the present Government came into power. To what extent will the rejection of that bill really affect the masses of the British people? Every day but tends to justify the uneasy apprehensions of those who, in the hopeful years preceding Mr. Parnell's unfaithfulness and fall, feared that this people were espousing the cause of Ireland rather from passing sympathy and excited feeling than from the profound convictions regarding the necessity of the change which actuated Mr. Gladstone and his lieutenants. Any objections we in Ireland have to the present constitution of the House of Lords are swallowed up in a realization of how much, year by year, we lag behind Great Britain in all the essentials of advancement and broadened, self-respecting freedom. Realizing that the British people can always, in spite of the Lords, obtain any measure they desire for themselves, we are perhaps not unnaturally inclined to bulk them with the Lords as standing in the way of the realization of our wishes. Effective agitation against the Lords alone, in Ireland, is scarcely to be anticipated.

Not upon Mr. Gladstone or any British party in or out of Parliament, or upon the success or non-success of any supposed movement against the Lords, does the ultimate solution regarding the government of the country really depend, but upon the steadfastness, unity, and political wisdom of the Irish people themselves. And there is, in these respects, much that is not particularly hopeful at present. The want of training in modern political methods, resulting from the absence of responsibility in local and general affairs, is the greatest bar to effective combination and the maintenance of a wise and steady policy for the attainment of responsible government. It was much easier to keep in hand and in good discipline a militant party than one whose only possible policy since the general election has been to give a steady but unobtrusive support to Mr. Gladstone and his party.

Mr. Gladstone will be followed in his retirement by the profound respect of the vast mass of the Irish people. He is the first British statesman who has really dared anything on

their behalf. He has correctly diagnosed the causes of Irish unrest. He is the first British statesman whose portrait is to be found in Irish cottages beside the portraits of Irish patriots and heroes. The same depth of loving admiration cannot be expected as that which is extended to those whose whole course has been one of devotion to Ireland, which would have been extended to him if years had permitted him to add accomplishment to endeavor.

D. B.

THE ITALIAN POSITION.

ROME, February 28, 1894.

THE position of Italy financially and politically is finally seen to be what, among others, I have predicted for some years it would be soon—on the verge of bankruptcy, and, with bankruptcy, revolution. The abuses of all kinds are incredible, and the utter indifference of the wealthy classes in general to the misery of the lower such that it is amazing to me that the latter should be the amiable and peaceable people they are, respectful to their social superiors (often their moral inferiors), always courteous, and, on the whole, law-abiding and submissive to the injustice of the social system to an astonishing degree. The Italians have their defects, like other nations, and some of them grate harshly on our Western prejudices; but they have some precious virtues which those who live long among them find out. What we do not all learn is, that the higher classes rarely lead in the civic virtues. The selfish greed with which the wealthy crowd the lower classes into the deeper destitution, is something appalling. The manner in which they shunt off taxation so as to throw it on those who have nobody below them to throw it on is revolting, as is the cynicism with which they tell us that Italy can bear no more taxation, when they are evading the greater part of their own obligations, and living in a luxury which is a constant demonstration of the falsity of their plea of national poverty. There is no room to wonder at the uprisings of Sicily and Carrara; rather should we wonder that there has not been a general social revolt against the inequality with which the system imposes the burthens of government.

Arrested on the long slide towards ruin more by the alarm of the social movement than the financial difficulties, the country has thrown itself into the hands of its strong man for safety, as the old Romans used to do when the danger was too great for the complicated mechanism of their state to deal with. It was curious to see how, when the danger was seen to be at the door, the universal voice called for Crispi, and how, when the immediate danger had passed, the reactionaries began to attack him again as a would-be dictator and a violator of the Constitution. With eight provinces of the kingdom in insurrection and the Government in a state of anarchy, the need of extraordinary energy and courage was recognized on every side, and those who hated Crispi most did not venture to raise a voice in opposition to the general demand for him to take the reins of government. To no man could the task of suppressing a revolt against injustice and misery on the part of his own beloved Sicilians have been harder than to Crispi, but, having taken the responsibility, he crushed the disorder as summarily as Napoleon would have done, and we have a state of order all over the kingdom such as we have not known for three years; and now the timid souls, reassured, crawl out of their hiding-places and begin to abuse Crispi for having exceeded his legal powers! That the radicals and socialists should attack him for the use of military force against a movement illegal in form though provoked by gross wrongs, was to be expected, for the rose-water people generally take things in that way; but that the frightened proprietors who, three months ago, were shouting for Crispi as the only man in Italy who had the courage and the moral authority to save the State, should now begin to conspire to throw him overboard and denounce him as a dictator, is almost comic.

I suspect that Italy will have to be saved in spite of her better classes, and that Crispi, having taken the work in hand, will not stop at the outcry of the people who object to paying taxes which their poorer compatriots hardly flinch under. He has a finance minister as courageous and as honest as himself to support him, and a ministry which, on the whole, is such as Italy has not seen since I knew her affairs; and it calls on the nation to submit to $20,000,000 more of taxation, and to consent to the abolition of all the sinecures and subventions to special interests which have eaten up the wealth of the State. The present Chamber, which was elected by Giolitti, is disposed to be refractory to the demands of the Government, and may refuse to pass the laws for the new measures. This would involve a dissolution and new elections, with the disadvantage of uncertainty as to the result and a great loss of time; and as the financial position is critical, there must be no loss of time, so that the probability is that, if the Chamber refuses to pass the laws required to regulate the situation, it will be dissolved, and they will be made by royal decree, subject to confirmation by the Parliament when reassembled. In this case the responsibility to be assumed is very great, as the taxes collected under the circumstances would have to be refunded in case of the rejection of the laws, and the ministry might be impeached, though acquittal would be almost certain. There is probably no man in Italy except Crispi who has the courage to run these risks and is capable of doing it with a clear head and steady nerve. But, knowing the man and the emergency, I am of the opinion that he will risk it and get through it successfully.

The alternative is full of danger. Few people here now question that if the Government of Giolitti had remained in power, the whole of southern Italy would now be in insurrection, and that the inertia of the more conservative elements would possibly have given way to the energy and preparation of the more radical, and the King would have been obliged finally to abdicate before the republican propaganda. Nor would the resignation of Crispi, disgusted and disappointed by the apathy and hostility of the Conservative element and the rancorous hostility of the Radicals, allied in the Chamber with the Conservatives, promise a better solution. In this case the natural successor would be Rudini, who has a party of sixty Deputies, and who would depend for his stability on the Radicals, who number forty-two. To keep a majority, he must conciliate all the driftwood of the Chamber and drop all the taxes which are obnoxious to their supporters, which would wreck the budget. Then the majority would be so insecure that, to secure a majority, Rudini would be obliged to make new elections, in which the Radicals must have their full liberty and share of the advantages. The effect of this would be the return of a hundred and fifty Deputies of that persuasion, and to make the conduct of Government impossible except in the direction of a republic. I understand that the King is aware of the gravity of this position. If the majority of Italians were in favor of a republic, there would be no difficulty; we should go quietly over to it and have an end; but this is by no means the case. Even good republicans in principle, like Crispi, for instance, see that the adoption of that form of government in the present state of preparation of the nation would be disastrous, and probably fatal to the unity of Italy. Rudini is an amiable, courteous gentleman, with many and warm friends in the aristocratic world and among the remnant of the old Right, especially the professorial classes outside of practical politics; but he has no control in government, and is weak and undecided in any emergency, without power to foresee the probable consequences of his own acts. As head of the Government he was a total failure, and in the affair of the New Orleans murders he was near getting into a war with the United States, having made the well-remembered demand for the immediate trial of the murderers, and intending to adopt imperious measures—probably to send the Italian fleet to New Orleans to enforce his demand if not at once complied with; and only withdrew the programme on the timely remonstrance of friends who knew that the Federal Government could not, if it would, comply with that demand. Beyond his very limited circle of admirers, no one in Italy believes in his capacity for government, and the confidence felt in Crispi's ability to govern, even among his enemies, would give way to a general apprehension of disaster if he were to be succeeded by Rudini. Nobody but the Radical agitators would profit by it.

Under the circumstances, the maintenance of Crispi in power is almost indispensable to the security and solvency of the State, if that can be called solvency which has already been obliged to offer the creditors a composition by reducing the interest on the debt; but in this case security and solvency go together, and the ministry will remain in office only on condition of being allowed to assure both. If this should necessitate the assumption of extraordinary powers and the government for the next six months by royal decree, I am much mistaken in the character of Crispi if he hesitates to assume what is required to carry the country through the crisis. What he means to do, no one knows but his colleagues in the ministry, if even they. The position is, in my opinion, the most serious that Italy has ever been in since it was constituted. There is an amount of social injustice and sub-official oppression, especially the latter, in the communal governments that in almost any other country would have caused widespread revolt long ago; there is a cold-blooded indifference on the part of the upper classes to the well-being of the lower which is disheartening, and with these there has been a looseness and corruptness of administration which has deprived Government of all respect from the governed. To put an end to the trifling with affairs, the imminent bankruptcy looks us suddenly in the face—suddenly, for the last ministry, like that before it and others before that, had hidden the indebtedness of the State, and nobody knew where we stood. If this ministry should remain in power five years, I have no doubt that the reforms necessary to the public health will be effected; but if the Government is to relapse into the old dilettantism and see-sawing of factions, for the advantage of the politicians, I can see nothing but anarchy and bankruptcy ahead. The disorders which have been suppressed in Sicily and Carrara are always in the background, in expectation of a

weak government, and bankruptcy and repudiation wait close behind; there is no margin to allow of any more errors.

W. J. STILLMAN.

Correspondence.

NO QUORUM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your article with the above caption, in your issue of March 1, is a peculiarly pertinent one just at this time. There seems to be an utter confusion in the minds of the people, largely produced by the mistaken suggestions of the press, as to what is and what is not filibustering; the same denunciations that, with some show of reason, are hurled against those who, by dilatory motions, obstruct a substantial majority of a legislative body from doing what they are ready and wish to do, being used to characterize the forcing of the friends of a measure to secure a majority of such legislative body in its favor before it is permitted to pass. The first is obstruction—qualified revolution—in exercising which one must depend upon the tolerance of the majority and the indulgence of the country. The other is the means which has always been used in all legislative bodies—and in a large proportion of our States is made universal, or common, by organic law—to secure conservatism in legislation.

There never was a time when a majority of the House of Representatives were in favor of the passage of the seigniorage bill. There never was a vote when its friends were even near a majority; and had our men of the Northeast supported those who simply insisted that its friends should demonstrate that they had a majority before they would be assisted to pass the measure, it would have been laid at rest week before last. As it was, after the opponents of the bill had succeeded in defeating a special effort to rally its forces, and after they had succeeded in so neutralizing the effect of a caucus that the friends of the bill were able to muster even less votes than before it was held, the complaisance of a half-dozen or so of those really opposed to the bill (each of whom saw a chance, as he thought, to favor Mr. Bland without really helping him) gave him an exceptional large vote on the ballot, which otherwise would have been the last that the friends of the bill could muster. Thus encouraged, and the opposition to the bill being finally worn away by the steady fire of criticism from their own friends which was poured in upon them from all directions, half of the New York members gave way, and others theretofore stanch followed them, and the bill was passed—scoring, however, upon the final vote, but 168, and showing conclusively that if the press of the Northeast had understood the situation, and had encouraged instead of discouraging those who were opposed to the bill, it would have been killed and silver agitation for this Congress effectually discouraged.

Your editorial is the first comprehensive utterance upon the subject I have seen. I only hope the outcome of the seigniorage bill in the House will justify you in so enforcing your suggestions as to attract general attention and, I believe, general support.—Sincerely,

X.

WASHINGTON, D. C., March 6, 1894.

MR. HEWITT AND SOUTHERN CONGRESSMEN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am sure I am not the only one of your readers who was pained on reading your paragraph applauding Mr. Hewitt's speech at the Southern Society's banquet. It is incredible to me that any fair-minded man could think Mr. Hewitt's remarks anything but very much out of place, extremely intemperate, and grossly unjust. If the newspapers reported him correctly, he condemned the South for sending incompetent representatives to Congress, and abused the representatives for being incompetent. Now, unless the average Congressman who comes to Washington from the South is very much inferior intellectually to the average Congressman from any other part of the country—the North, the East, or the West—it is hard to see any justice in Mr. Hewitt's tirade. To the ordinary observer of political affairs the Southern Senators and Representatives seem to be quite as intelligent, quite as able, and quite as honest as the representatives of any other section of the country. Inferior men may go to Congress from the South, but are the men sent to represent the great North all so brilliant, so clear, and so reliable that we can afford to criticise? Surely the portion of the country which is furnishing the Government in its various branches at the present moment such men as Mr. Carlisle, Mr. Smith, Mr. Daniel, Judge White, Mr. Rayner, Mr. Wilson, Mr. Crisp, Mr. McMillin, Mr. McCreary, Mr. Breckinridge, and Col. Oates—to choose at random—cannot with any justice be upbraided for sending ignorant men to Washington. Even Mr. Bland, who is picked out for special abuse, is in all probability far, far superior to the average Northern Congressman from an intellectual point of view, and his most unrelenting antagonists have never questioned his integrity and his honesty of purpose. Because he is wrong on the silver question is no reason why he should be spoken of disrespectfully and put down as "ignorant." Benton was not always right, and Calhoun was terribly wrong on the greatest question a statesman was ever brought to face. Should the Southern people be abused because their Senators followed Senator Hill's lead in the opposition to Mr. Peckham, when no word is spoken against the people of New York who are responsible for the presence of that leader in the Senate chamber, nor against the refined, intelligent, and prosperous people of Massachusetts, whose gifted Senators followed the same lead?

So, in its details as well as in its general tenor, Mr. Hewitt's address was in every way unjust, and it is difficult to see how you can think that he has rendered a great public service. It is equally difficult to understand why he should be praised for his "boldness" or "courage." Surely it doesn't require a possession of these virtues to attack the South. For the last thirty years every "petty politician" has been doing it day after day; and only the other day Mr. Calvin S. Brice found "courage" to do it, and, if I remember rightly, Mr. David B. Hill had the "boldness" to be "frank" with Mr. Morgan during the debate on the repeal bill. Since the war, it has taken more courage to say a good word for the Southern people than to abuse them; and, in these days of financial and economical questions, and interests seemingly so varied, they cannot be taught political wisdom by means of speeches so intemperate as the one to which you gave your approval. That Mr. Hewitt should have said what he did, and in a manner so unbecoming, was probably no surprise to any one who has watched his public career; but that the *Nation*, usually so conservative and so just, should have given him praise in doing as he did, is both surprising and discouraging.

E. H. C.

NO. 719 GIDDINGS AVENUE,
CLEVELAND, O., March 3, 1894.

CONGRESSIONAL APPLAUSE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The "keen advertising instinct" of Congressman Morse of Massachusetts, to which you allude in No. 1497 of the *Nation*, has long been a distinctive trait in that gentleman's character. On at least one occasion it placed him in a peculiarly ludicrous position. This was some time before he entered on his congressional career, while he was a member of the Massachusetts Senate. A measure in which he was especially interested was on the calendar for a certain date. Mr. Morse proposed to speak on it, and had sent the text of his remarks (liberally punctuated with applause, it is fair to presume) to the evening papers. On arriving at the Senate chamber, somewhat late, he was horrified to find that, no one asking to pass it, the bill had been advanced a stage without debate. The good nature of his fellow-members saved him from a humiliating predicament. The vote was reconsidered, the bill was again placed on the calendar, and our bumptious Congressman allowed to unload himself of the speech, amid the ill-concealed amusement of his colleagues.

R. W. N.

EAST BRIDGEWATER, MASS., March 12, 1894.

WOMEN AT THE GERMAN UNIVERSITIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It seems difficult to believe some of the statements made by "M. F. K." in your number of February 22 about "Women in German Universities." The writer was recently a student at the University of Leipzig. At that time there were but four women attending lectures at the university. Each one was admitted by special permission, having given satisfactory evidence of her ability and desire to pursue post graduate study. There were present no "ladies" who came "without permit," "simply to learn German and see what it was like," who whispered, observed "folks and things going on in the street" (if this latter were *possible* in a Leipzig lecture-room), "and otherwise disturbed the quiet of the place"; nor were there any "unchaperoned young girls" present. We should like to inquire at what university young girls are admitted, as was implied in this article of February 22—certainly not at the University of Leipzig.

The writer observed that the attitude of the men towards the women at the lectures was respectfully courteous. Some ten years ago, we do admit that certain lectures were closed to women because of the improper conduct of two women, a Russian and an American; but, if we may believe the professor who made the statement, the earnest scholarly work and dignified bearing of the women since that time have more than made amends for the past. The writer recalls one instance where a woman, a student of philosophy, received from the students and professor a just recognition of her work—in fact, public acknowledgment. Young girls who need "chaperoning" have,

in our opinion, no right to be classified as university students, nor can we believe that they have ever been regularly admitted to university work. *Many* women there have never been in attendance at the university, but we do believe that the *few* have been earnest, hard-working students. And we are confident that the number of these women is constantly increasing, and that the day is not far distant when we may speak of them as *many* in very truth. STUDENT.

CALIFORNIA, March 6, 1894.

Notes.

A LIFE of the late Lucy Larcom is being prepared by the Rev. Dulaney Addison of Beverly, Mass., who asks for the loan of letters in possession of her friends that may be helpful to him.

The Master and Fellows of Balliol College, as the legal representatives of the late Prof. Jowett, have requested Mr. Evelyn Abbott, M.A., LL.D., Fellow of the College, to be responsible for the preparation of the Biography of the late Master, with whom he had been in especially close intercourse for the last twenty years. Old friends and pupils of the Master who are able to communicate any letters or other matters of biographical interest, are invited to send particulars of them forthwith to Mr. Abbott, at Balliol College.

Prof. George E. Woodberry will, in connection with Mr. Stedman, superintend a definitive edition of Poe's Writings, to be issued in ten volumes by Stone & Kimball, Cambridge and Chicago. Other forthcoming works on the list of this firm are 'The Quest of Heracles,' poems by Hugh McCulloch, jr.; 'Lincoln's Grave,' a poem by Maurice Thompson; 'Sonnets and Other Poems,' by George Santayana; and 'A Lover's Diary,' by Gilbert Parker.

'The Show at Washington' is the title of a book on life at the national capital by two correspondents, L. A. Coolidge and J. B. Reynolds, announced by the Washington Publishing Co.

Macmillan & Co. have in hand "The Temple Shakspere," to be published at the rate of two volumes monthly, a play to a volume, in rubricated text (that of the Globe edition emended from the Cambridge), edited by Israel Gollancz, with notes and glossary, and adorned by Walter Crane. Each volume, of pocket size, will have a frontispiece in photogravure. For the use of teachers, an edition will be printed on writing-paper with broad margins for annotations. The price will be very low.

G. P. Putnam's Sons send us the fourth (and last but one) group of one-volume plays in their companionable little "Ariel Shakspere." We have here again seven comedies, as in the first group, and all the pleasing appointments of this edition. The same firm share with J. M. Dent & Co., London, the imprint of 'Fairy Tales from the Arabian Nights,' edited and arranged, and "designed *virginibus puerisque*," by E. Dixon, who has followed Galland's version in the main. Sinbad occupies the last quarter of this pretty volume, in which the designs by J. D. Batten are the most striking feature, and at their best are very good indeed.

Wm. R. Jenkins is about to publish 'The Foot of the Horse,' by David Roberge.

D. C. Heath & Co. have in press a 'Laboratory Course in Physiological Psychology,' by Dr. E. C. Sanford of Clark University.

Tacitus's 'Dialogus de Oratoribus' has been edited for a text-book by Prof. C. E. Bennett of Cornell, and will be issued in April by Ginn & Co.

'The Annual Literary Index for 1893' appears in good season from the office of the *Publishers' Weekly*, under the editorship of W. I. Fletcher and R. R. Bowker. The list of periodicals thus indexed continues to grow, and the following additions are worth naming: *Canadian Magazine* (Toronto), *Good Government* (Washington), *Harvard Graduates' Magazine*, *Illustrated Archæologist* (London), *Natural Science* (London), *Popular Astronomy* (Northfield, Minn.), and *School Review* (Hamilton, N. Y.). On the other hand, the number of books indexed in the second division falls considerably below that of last year, which, however, was not strictly confined to the publications of 1892. The full-face catch-title is a great improvement. The author-index, covering both divisions—of periodicals and of books—is very nearly as full as last year; the list of bibliographies of 1893 is notably expanded, and death claims a few more victims in the necrology of writers.

Signor Molmenti, the author of a valuable work on the domestic life, manners, and customs of the Venetians during the course of their entire history, has now put forth a biography, 'Carpaccio, son Temps et son Œuvre' (Venice), which tells us very little about Carpaccio or his work. The only new document in his monograph concerns not Carpaccio, but the father of Gentile and Giovanni Bellini, Jacopo, whom it proves to have been still active in 1466.

Dr. Max von Wolff, too, in his 'Lorenzo Valla: sein Leben und seine Werke' (Leipzig), can hardly be said to have contributed much that is new concerning his subject; but he has given in short compass some excellent criticism, and, what is even better, copious and representative translations from Valla's chief works. The full Latin text of the so-called "Donation of Constantine" is also convenient to have before one in the connection. The print is Roman and the author's style unusually clear for a German.

Part v. of Mr. Quaritch's 'Contributions towards a Dictionary of English Book-Collectors,' though it presents a somewhat spindling appearance, and really embraces upwards of half-a-dozen collectors, has a large theme in the famous Hamilton collection whose dispersal was the talk of 1883-'84, and whose MSS. were bought by the Prussian Government for $350,000. Some of these were afterwards disposed of in England, and of one, "a magnificent volume of the eighth century, written in gold uncials upon empurpled vellum, . . . formerly a gift to Henry VIII., and bearing the proofs of his ownership," Mr. Quaritch says: "It is now in a private library in Oswego, on the margin of Lake Ontario; in a comparative obscurity which does not alter the fact that Henry VIII.'s Golden Gospels is the most precious book in the whole New World." The MS. of the 'Divina Commedia' of 1460, with Botticelli's illustrations, in the same collection, and now one of the treasures of the Berlin Museum, was valued at $25,000. A Scottish binding executed for James V. is the frontispiece of the present brochure.

Those who save a warm corner in their hearts for Greece and the Greeks will welcome the new venture called *Atlantis*, a weekly paper in the Greek language, published in New York. The first number is dated March 3, and reminds one pleasantly of the Athenian press, except that the paper and typography are more luxurious than the Athenians permit themselves every day. It is intended to be independent and non-partisan, and to supply the wants of the increasing Greek population in the country, besides appealing to Americans who have a fancy for the study of modern Greek and an interest in Hellenic progress and archæology. One can see here how the McKinley Tariff and the Wilson Bill and the Metropolitan Museum of New York figure in a language not very far removed from that of Xenophon. The first issue shows a modesty and good sense which inspire confidence; and contains timely articles on such subjects as the present state of Greek finance, statistics of the currant trade, the commercial relations between Bulgaria and Hellas, notes on Dr. Dörpfeld's excavations in Athens, and finally a page of interesting and decorous "personals." The price is ten cents a number. Communications should be addressed to *Atlantis*, 2 and 4 Stone Street, New York city.

B. Westermann & Co., No. 812 Broadway, will receive subscriptions for the new weekly edition of the *Journal des Débats*, literary and political, a newspaper and a critical review, in quarto form, stitched. The price is $3 for six months, and $5.75 a year. This venture is sure to find American supporters.

Attention was called in these columns last spring to a codex published by Prof. Carl Frey under the title of 'Il Codice Magliabecchiano,' written by some Florentine who, just before Vasari, was gathering materials for a history of art. A comparison of this writer with Vasari can therefore be made to yield valuable information as to what was generally known on the subject in the second quarter of the sixteenth century. This codex, edited by Fabriczy, and furnished with more useful notes than Prof. Frey's edition had, has been republished, in the last two numbers for 1893 of the *Archivio Storico* (Florence: Vieusseux).

The opening article of the fortieth volume of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* is the first part of an interesting account of southwestern Africa by Count Pfeil. He sketches briefly the history of the migrations and wars of the Hottentots and Bastards, and their success in opening up the country bordering on the Orange River. An admirable map of this region accompanies the article. There is also a short description, with plans, of the present condition of the famous Adelsberg grotto in southern Austria. Among the minor notices are an account of a terrible snow-storm and cold wave in the south of China in January, 1893, in which many lives were lost, and extracts from Emin Pasha's last diary. Announcement is made of the intention of the members of the "Freeland Union" of Vienna to send out immediately a pioneer party of twenty-five persons, under the leadership of Dr. Jul. Wilhelm, to the site of the proposed socialistic colony, "Freeland." This is on the highlands surrounding Mt. Kenia, in eastern equatorial Africa, a region said to be, in a circular issued by the Union, "remarkably well adapted for colonization by Europeans: the climate is excellent, the temperature throughout the year being very much like that of springtime in Europe, and the land is extraordinarily fertile and rich in mineral products." The colony is an attempt to solve the social problem on the lines laid down in Theodor Hertzka's book, 'Freeland: A Social Anticipation,' and in the sequel, 'A Visit to Freeland.' The purpose is the establishment of a "community on the basis of perfect economic freedom and justice—a community which shall preserve the independence of its members and shall secure to every worker the full and undi-

minished enjoyment of that which he produces." The circular adds that "Great Britain, within whose sphere of influence the district lies, has promised her protection, as well as complete freedom in the matter of internal economic arrangements."

The famous mosque of Damascus was nearly destroyed by fire last October, but the Turkish Government, regarding it in the light of a national calamity, and fearful of the effects upon its subjects, have successfully concealed the fact till recently. From a letter in the London *Times* it appears that while the library, containing many priceless manuscripts, was saved, the greatest literary treasure of the Mohammedan world was destroyed. This was the only remaining one of the four copies of the Koran made by order of the Caliph Othman in the year A. H. 30 (A. D. 650–1). All other copies were collected and burned at that time, and these four were deposited in Medina, and the three metropolitan cities Kufa, Bussorah, and Damascus. These constituted the binding authority for the text, and the later manuscripts have been derived from them. The Damascus copy, of whose genuineness there is said to have been no doubt, was not kept with the library but in a separate place in the mosque, and was unfortunately forgotten until it was too late to rescue it. The minarets and the tomb of Saladin are uninjured, and some of the walls of the main building are standing. Among them is one which formed a part of the cathedral of St. John the Baptist which Omar found on this spot at the time of his conquest in A. D. 635, and on which is the remarkable Greek inscription still legible, "Thy kingdom, O Christ, is an everlasting kingdom, and Thy dominion is from generation to generation."

An interesting report is made by Mr. Joseph B. Tyrrell of his adventurous journey through the Barren Lands of Canada. Accompanied by his brother and six Indians, he started from Lake Athabasca in the latter part of last spring, and, going in a northeast direction, followed a river into what must have been Lake Doobaunt. "Although in midsummer, ice seven feet thick covered it, except close to shore, where in a narrow channel for 100 miles we paddled our way around, in full view of the hillsides, which were still covered with snow." Chesterfield Inlet was reached on September 1, and the shore of Hudson's Bay ten days later. The distance traversed was about 850 miles through a country, so far as records go, absolutely untrodden before by foot of man. Mr. Tyrrell describes it as "a rugged, rolling tract of land, speckled over with swamps and occasionally rocky hills. In the whole Barren Lands there is not wood enough to make a boot-peg of." Trout and whitefish abound in the lakes, but there were no birds or wild fowl, save one or two solitary white partridges. The only animals mentioned are white wolves and reindeer, which swarm as the buffalo did formerly on the Western prairies. "Once we saw a herd that fairly hid the earth for a whole three miles, and at the smallest possible calculation there could not have been less than several hundred thousand feeding there on the damp grass." After a perilous voyage along the western shore of the bay, the party arrived at Churchill Factory in October, and Selkirk eventually on December 30, having travelled 3,200 miles—the greater part, 2,200, in canoes, 650 on snow-shoes, and 350 by dog-sled. By the survey of this western shore, Mr. Tyrrell's party being the first to go by canoe along its entire length, the outline, as it at present appears on the maps, will be completely changed.

St. Deiniol's Theological and General Library is the name given by Mr. Gladstone to his new library at Hawarden. It consists of more than 24,000 volumes, many of which are marked and annotated by him, and is placed in an iron building especially erected for it. According to a circular recently issued by him, it is now ready for the use "of students, lay and clerical, of any age, of inquirers, and of clergy or others desiring times of rest." These are expected to reside in the hostel belonging to the library, which is to be self-supporting, at a low charge, for simple but comfortable board and lodging. It is the founder's wish that persons shall not visit the library out of curiosity. For the villagers' use there is an excellent general library at the Hawarden Institute. It is stated that Mr. Gladstone is about to put the library under a trust, and that eventually it is to be attached to some school or college.

At the University of Heidelberg Miss Käthe Windscheid of Leipzig, daughter of the late eminent Pandectist of that name, took her doctor's examination last month in English and Romance philology. She acquitted herself so well as to win a "summa cum laude." Her thesis was "English Pastoral Poetry from 1579 to 1625." It is reported that this lady will shortly have an imitator in the natural-science faculty of the Heidelberg Hochschule, in which, by the way, Miss Windscheid's father was formerly a teacher.

Among personally conducted tours, much novelty attaches to that proposed by Mr. A. D. F. Hamlin, instructor in Modern Architectural History and Ornament at Columbia College, who offers to lead a travelling class in architectural history for the systematic study of the Italian Renaissance during the coming summer, of which three or four months will be spent on the peninsula. The class will not exceed twelve or fifteen members, at an estimated minimum cost of $500. Mr. Hamlin should be addressed for particulars at the college.

Prof. J. H. Hyslop of Columbia is very desirous to procure a copy of the Report of the National Conference of Charities and Correction for 1876, to complete a set. He may be addressed as above by any one willing to dispose of the report.

—'The Governors of Virginia,' by Margaret Vowell Smith (Washington: W. H. Lowdermilk & Co.), is an acknowledged compilation from various sources, giving brief biographical sketches of all who at any time have held the chief authority in Virginia from Sir Walter Raleigh to Gov. Philip W. McKinney. Included with the actual governors are the presidents of the colonial councils who were governors *ad interim*, and the senior members of the Council of State who were acting governors. The work is divided at the close of the Revolutionary War in 1781, although a more natural division would have been at Lord Dunmore in 1775, the last official who wielded the royal authority in Virginia, and who fled from Williamsburg June 6, 1775. After Dunmore follows a sketch of Peyton Randolph, President of the Virginia Conventions of August, 1774, March and July, 1775. Then comes a sketch of Edmund Pendleton, President of the Conventions of December, 1775, and May, 1776. We should have had the names of the Committee of Safety, appointed by the Convention of July, 1775, and reappointed, with two changes, by that of December, 1775, which exercised the executive authority when the Convention was not in session; and it was in virtue of his position as chairman of this Committee that Edmund Pendleton held his authority. The powers of the Committee ceased when Patrick Henry was inaugurated as the first Governor under the Constitution adopted on June 29, 1776. Bancroft's account of this Convention is quoted, but the standard work is Hugh Blair Grigsby's 'Virginia Convention of 1776.' The Declaration of Rights and the first Constitution of Virginia, both prepared chiefly by George Mason, are given in full. Several documents of the olden time are inserted in the text; and where such documents are not readily accessible, as in the case of the report of the proceedings of the first General Assembly of Virginia, which met July 30, 1619, they are desirable additions; but the recent public debt act and the report of the Commissioner of Agriculture might have been dispensed with. Virginians will be glad to have for handy reference this succinct account of the lives of their several governors. Some of the sketches are very brief, occupying barely a single page. When fuller materials were at hand, as in the case of Patrick Henry, Thomas Jefferson, and others, the sketches extend to some twenty pages. We have noticed a few misprints and oversights, which can be easily corrected.

—Proofs of the vigorous life and quick fruitage of the Japan Society of London are afforded in a stout octavo volume of over three hundred pages. This contains the transactions and proceedings of the society for the year 1892. The organizing council met December 1, 1891, and since that time the growth in members, books, and literary apparatus for the study of things Japanese has been steady. "The object of the society is the encouragement of the study of the Japanese Language, Literature, History, and Folk-Lore, of Japanese Art, Science, and Industries, of the Social Life and Economic Condition of the Japanese People, past and present, and of all Japanese matters." Besides subscribing and honorary members (among these the Emperor of Japan, who sent a gift of one hundred guineas), there are ordinary members who pay £1 1s., and corresponding members who pay 10s. 6d. per annum. Among the latter are several Americans. Besides meetings and exhibitions, there is an annual dinner. The "Hon. Secretaries of the Japan Society, 20 Hanover Square, London, W.," attend to "all communications and requests for Forms of Application for Membership, and on receipt of price mail the volume of Proceedings."

—Volume i. is handsomely printed, illustrated, and indexed. Besides all the information needed to advertise the society's purpose, organization, proceedings, etc., there are four valuable papers printed *in extenso*—"Ju-jitsu" (Self-defence by Sleight of Body), "The Uses of Bamboo in Japan," "Some Industrial Art Workers" (crape printers), and "The Naturalistic Art of Japan" are the titles, the subjects being ably treated by experts. The readers—T. Shidachi, Charles Holme, Mrs. Ernest Hart, and W. Gowland—have studied their themes on the soil of Nippon, and brought thence their abundant illustrations. Twenty-seven of these are reproduced in this volume, the specimens of crape printing being remarkably well done. Of unique value is the paper on "The Genealogy of the Miochin Family," with illustrations of the work of these skilled artificers in armor and other metal work. Typical of the Japanese social institution, usually called a "family" by unskilled translators and the ordinary writer, it is the genealogy of a house or firm, rather than a blood-line of father and son. Page

129 shows the humors of the secretary's work. The fact is revealed that many persons would like to proceed to the Mikado's domains at the society's expense "to collect information," while more have not yet learned its real object. A supposed manuscript of the thirteenth century, said to be a treatise on Esoteric Buddhism, sent from a library abroad for examination, proved to be a printed volume of the nineteenth century. A catalogue of the growing library is also given. The book is free to members enrolled or elected before January 1, 1893. Non-members can procure it of the honorary secretaries at 17s. in cloth or 15s. in paper covers.

—The venerable University of Paris, suppressed at the time of the Revolution and restored as part of the University of France, under the title of Académie de Paris, is to be re-established ere long, if vigorous effort and earnest prayer are of any avail. All that is really wanting is the former title, and the Council is hopeful that the want will not now long be felt. The report of 1892-93 is full of interesting matter, especially concerning the enormous growth of the numbers of the students. The increase in 1892-93 was 1,166, making the total number of students in Paris 11,914. These figures are startling, and it is no wonder that the professors are alarmed at the continued growth of the metropolitan university. It has become impossible, in some departments, to find room for the men, the difficulties being greatest in laboratories and in dissecting-rooms. Similar difficulties, on a smaller scale, are being experienced in this country. It is interesting to note that the number of women students in Paris is increasing as well as that of students from foreign countries. The latter numbered last year 1,358, and the former 343, of whom 171 were French. American students contemplating a visit to Paris will be glad to know that not only is the question of equivalents in requirements being considered by the Council, but also that there is a committee specially intrusted with the duty of looking after foreign students, M. Pasteur being chairman and M. Melon secretary. The Council publishes a summary of the courses of instruction offered in the different faculties, under the title of 'Livret de l'Étudiant de Paris' (Delalaine Frères).

—The recent election of M. José Maria de Heredia to a seat in the French Academy deserves notice. M. de Heredia is a poet whose work is contained in one volume of verse, 'Les Trophées,' a series of splendid sonnets, and a longer poem, 'Les Conquistadors.' These sonnets attracted wide attention when published in book form last year, and the rapid issue of several editions proved that the taste for verse of a very high order has by no means diminished in France. M. de Heredia is a contemporary of Leconte de Lisle, and had Taine for a pupil. He is French on his mother's side, and a naturalized citizen of the country whose highest literary court has just honored itself and him. His election has also been the means of drawing attention to the unaccountable blanks in the last edition of Vapereau's 'Dictionnaire des Contemporains,' recently completed. The press generally announced that the successful candidate to the vacant chair was Severiano de Heredia, ex-minister of public works in Rouvier's cabinet. The mistake arose from the fact that Vapereau mentions this personage and utterly ignores the poet. Paul Bourget was forgotten also, but the omission is rectified in the Appendix, though there is not a word about Faguet's work during the past ten years, and René Doumic, Pellissier, Maeterlinck, Mallarmé, Moréas, Morice are all utterly ignored.

—M. Maeterlinck's style consists largely of the repetition, in a solemn manner, of the same word, phrase, or combination of mere sounds, until it hypnotizes the reader into believing that there must be something profound, and in the nature of an oracle, back of the utterance. It is amusing to find that this trick was tried by a Florentine poet in the first quarter of the sixteenth century. Giovanni Rucellai (1475–1525) is the Maeterlinck of the Renaissance, and a few lines taken from his "Oreste" will show that he deserves the name. There is no need of translating the passages given, as the sound is the only element of importance. This from Act 3: *Orestes* and *Pylades* are given a robe, and the one who puts it on is to be sacrificed:

Pilade.
Donna, porgete a me cotesta veste.
Oreste.
Donna, porgete a me cotesta veste.
Pilade
Deh lascia a me, deh lascia a me vestirla.
Oreste.
Lascial' a me, che fui'l primo a pigliarla.

A little further on:

Oreste.
Io son, io son, non tu, non tu, cagione,
Capo, fonte e principio d'ogni male
Pilade.
Tu sei, non io, tu sei, non io, cagione,
Capo, fonte e principio d'ogni bene.

In Act 4:

Oreste.
E questo è quel che vuoi?
Pilade.
E questo è quel che voglio.

In the same act *Orestes* recognizes *Iphigenia:*

Ell' è cert' essa, certo ell 'è pur dessa.
Oh, oh, cert' ell' è essa,
Certo ch' ell' è pur dessa!

—Rucellai has an even greater likeness to M. Maeterlinck than the lines already quoted would indicate. The Belgian attempts, by using words and phrases as if they were actual musical sounds, to combine them into *Leitmotive*, introducing them as Wagner did—legitimately enough in music—not to color or vary the sense, but to determine the reader's attitude. The Italian did the same. Unfortunately quotation of stray lines cannot show how Rucellai repeats a word until it gets woven into a phrase, how this phrase darts in and out, and finally how it is gathered into an orchestral crash. In Act 5, *Thoas*, frightened by the signs and warnings of the gods, exclaims:

Andiam via tosto, andiam via tosto, andiamo,
Andiam via, fuggiam via, entriam là dentro.

In the forty lines preceding this passage "tosto" occurs again and again. Then it becomes "Andiam via tosto," and in that form is repeated a number of times until it finally bursts out into the lines just quoted. If only instead of "Entriam là dentro" the phrase had ended with *Tosto, tosto, tosto*, the effect would have been singularly like the passage in Wagner's "Rheingold" where the giants march off with *Freia*.

BISMARCK CONTRA CORONAM.—I.

Das Deutsche Reich zur Zeit Bismarcks: Politische Geschichte von 1871 bis 1890. Von Dr. Hans Blum. Leipzig and Vienna: Bibliographisches Institut; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 1893. Large 8vo, pp. xx, 708.

In the recent reconciliation between the young German Emperor and his ex-Chancellor there were provocations on both sides to be forgiven or at least ignored, and not the least of these, so far as the Emperor's feelings were concerned, must have been Dr. Blum's 'The German Empire in the Time of Bismarck.' The book is a *mémoire justificatif* of Bismarck's administration of German affairs since the establishment of the empire; in the next to the last chapter it gives very full details of the Chancellor's dismissal—details which are creditable neither to the Emperor's head nor to his heart; the last chapter of all is devoted to a hostile criticism of the management of imperial and Prussian affairs by the Emperor and Caprivi; and the entire work, as Dr. Blum informs us in his preface, is inspired and, to some extent, dictated by Bismarck himself. In 1892 and 1893 the Prince granted the author repeated interviews, and gave detailed answers to all his questions. The questions, of course, referred mainly to events which the official sources of information thus far published do not fully explain. Except in the preface, indeed, the author avoids direct reference to the authority of the Prince: he does not wish to put the latter in a position of "involuntary joint-authorship," or to attribute to him expressions whose accuracy, "in the absence of short-hand notes," cannot be guaranteed. It has been asserted, however, in German press-notices of the book, that the proof-sheets were submitted to Bismarck, and it is certain that we have here, in many important points at least, a sort of second-hand autobiography of the hero for the last nineteen years of his chancellorship. We have his version of the motives which actuated him in many of his most important decisions; we have a picture of his later career in the perspective and light in which he desires it to be viewed by posterity. We have also some facts, not previously known, of importance to the historian of the period. There are no startling revelations in the field of European politics, for Bismarck is too ingrained a diplomat, and, with all his grievances, too loyal a German, to blurt out, through either inadvertence or malice, secrets which might embarrass the conduct of the imperial diplomacy. But some new light is thrown even upon this field, and much more upon internal affairs, particularly upon party struggles and court intrigues.

Bismarck has often been accused of unnecessary and even brutal frankness, but never of untruthfulness, and there is no reason to doubt the substantial accuracy of his statements of facts nor the honesty of his self-revelations. As a picture of character, indeed, the book is the more trustworthy because it emphasizes some of the Prince's least amiable traits, notably his rancor towards his enemies. Like most men of strong character and domineering temper, Bismarck is a stanch friend and a good hater. His resentment against his enemies is appeased neither by their discomfiture nor by their death. This explains the space devoted to the Von Arnim episode and to the demonstration of Von Arnim's incapacity, untruthfulness, and dishonesty. It explains, also, the large part which subterranean intrigues and conspiracies play in the narrative of the nineteen years. But all this lends a vivid personal interest to the book. There are many pages which read more like a court memoir of the seventeenth century than like a political history of our own times. The most interesting chapters, from this point of view, relate to the Von Arnim affair, in which Bismarck so signally triumphed, and to the Windthorst episode which led to Bismarck's fall.

The conflict with Von Arnim, ambassador at Rome during the Vatican Council and at Paris from 1871 to 1874, was primarily due to a difference of opinion between the Chancellor and

the ambassador touching the policy to be pursued towards the French parties. Von Arnim thought that Germany should throw its influence (secretly, of course) on the Orleanist side, in order to put an end to the pernicious example of republican institutions in a neighboring country. Bismarck did not see the danger which disquieted Von Arnim; he thought the example of French republicanism more likely to prove deterrent than encouraging. He was in favor of upholding Thiers and the republic, because he believed the republic to be the weakest form of government, for offensive purposes, which France could adopt. To make France monarchic would be to make it capable of European alliances. The ambassador's point of view, however, was one with which his master sympathized, and Von Arnim's "direct reports" to William I. proved for several months a serious obstacle to Bismarck's diplomacy. It was not until 1874 that Von Arnim was recalled from his post and gazetted ambassador at Constantinople. Shortly afterwards "revelations" began to appear in the Austrian papers concerning the relations between Prussia and the Catholic Church in 1869–'70. These, in spite of Von Arnim's denials, were ultimately traced to him. It was also discovered that he had abstracted a number of documents from the archives of the Paris embassy. He was arrested, tried, and sentenced to nine months' imprisonment. He fled the country and published new revelations in an anonymous pamphlet. The object of this publication, as of the previous newspaper campaign, was to demonstrate the incapacity of Bismarck and the ability of Von Arnim. He was now prosecuted for treason for revealing state secrets to the prejudice of the German empire, and was found guilty and sentenced to five years' imprisonment at hard labor. Such an offence, of course, is not extraditable, and the sentence could not be enforced. Von Arnim died in exile.

It has long been known that Von Arnim, at the beginning of his conflict with the Chancellor, had powerful friends and no small degree of court favor. It has been shown, by the published correspondence of the great war minister Von Roon, that the liberal policy pursued by Bismarck from 1867 to 1877 had estranged his Conservative friends and caused the Emperor many pangs. The elevation of the National Liberal party to the position of a Government party; a series of liberal laws which swept away the remnants of feudalism in the open country; the conflict with the Catholic Church and the adoption of compulsory civil marriage, a measure as abhorrent to orthodox Lutherans as to Catholics—these things had aroused a strong religious-conservative reaction. The military party, too, which, in the great wars of 1866 and 1870, had chafed under Bismarck's theory that the army was simply an instrument of diplomacy, and that its movements were therefore to be guided and controlled from the diplomatic point of view, became still more restive under the policy of European peace. The modesty and self-control of Moltke, the personal friendship which existed between Bismarck and Von Roon, and the common sense and tact of the Emperor were all needed to ease the strain of divergent tendencies and avoid a breach.

What Dr. Blum now adds to the facts previously brought out in the Von Arnim trials and in Von Roon's correspondence is the distinct statement that there existed, in the early seventies, a Conservative-Clerical coalition, warmly supported by the Empress Augusta, the object of which was to force Bismarck from power and put Von Arnim in his place. The conspirators counted mainly on the known sympathy of the Emperor with their political views; and, in spite of his confidence in Bismarck, they hoped to make the latter's position untenable by intensifying in every way the "friction" between the monarch and his Chancellor. It appears that the withdrawal of Bismarck from the Minister-Presidency of Prussia in favor of Von Roon was an episode in this conflict. In 1874, however, Von Roon resigned his post; Bismarck again doubled the Imperial Chancellorship with the premiership of Prussia, and Von Arnim came to grief. But the coalition was not yet defeated, and "friction" of all sorts continued, until in April, 1877, Bismarck asked the Emperor to accept his resignation. The Emperor refused. Bismarck at first persisted, but finally compromised on a temporary withdrawal from active duties. His vacation lasted ten months. In February, 1878, he resumed the active control of Prussian and German affairs, and for the next ten years we hear little of "friction" except in the Prussian and German Parliaments.

The parliamentary difficulties of the following decade were due to Bismarck's new financial policy. During his period of retirement he had become a protectionist. Poschinger's 'Bismarck als Volkswirt' has thrown much light upon this transformation; and Blum, like Poschinger, ascribes it to study and reflection. The impartial observer will be inclined to think that Bismarck's failure to secure the financial independence of the empire by taxes on brandy or tobacco, had much to do with his new convictions. This would not imply their insincerity, for all practical statesmen have doubtless something of that power of "extemporizing convictions" which Lowell noted in Gladstone. A protectionist, at all events, Bismarck became; and in 1879 he secured a majority of agricultural and manufacturing votes for a protective tariff. This triumph, however, destroyed the majority with which he had previously worked. It split the National Liberal party and drove half its members into opposition. But the tariff question also divided the Ultramontane or Centre party, and by gradual concessions in the field of ecclesiastical politics the Chancellor contrived to carry most of the governmental measures until 1887, when the conflict over the army question and an appeal to the country once more brought in a majority of Conservatives and National Liberals.

In this decade there was, apparently, but one serious difference of opinion between Bismarck and the Emperor, but the point at issue was of the first importance. It concerned the international policy of the German Empire. Russia, as everybody knows, was dissatisfied with the settlement of the Oriental question in the Congress of Berlin (1878). She ascribed her diplomatic defeat—unjustly, as Bismarck always insisted—to the half-hearted official support and secret opposition of the German diplomacy. We now learn for the first time (pages 219, 220) how serious was the tension and how great the risk of war. In the summer of 1879 a European "commission of delimitation" was at work in Novi-Bazar. The Czar demanded of the German Emperor, in direct and unofficial correspondence, that the German commissioner be instructed to act in accord with the Russian. This demand, by the advice of Bismarck, the Emperor declared himself unable to grant. Alexander replied that the assent of the Emperor to his request was necessary to the maintenance of peace between the two countries. Bismarck advised the Emperor to adhere to his refusal, and to request the Czar to carry on any further discussion through the usual official channels. The Emperor did so; but at the same time, on his own motion, he arranged a personal interview with the Czar. The results were not wholly satisfactory. Bismarck now entered into negotiations with Austria. He revealed the situation to Count Andrássy, and expressed his fear that a Franco-Russian alliance was under arrangement. Andrássy responded that the only possible counterpoise to such an alliance was a German-Austrian treaty, and that he believed his master ready to sign such a treaty. Bismarck declared himself unable to pledge the assent of his Emperor, and the latter, in fact, at first absolutely refused to consider such an alliance, and maintained his refusal for a fortnight. It required all Bismarck's exertions and a special embassy from Francis Joseph to secure William's consent. The alliance was obviously directed against Russia, and would, William believed, be a provocation to war. Bismarck's view, on the contrary, was that it would effectually deter Russia from war; and subsequent history seems to have justified this opinion.

Four days after the signing of this treaty, another agreement was executed between the two powers, in which Austria annulled the fifth article of the Peace of Prague, and thus released Germany from all obligation to cede any part of Schleswig to Denmark. This fact Dr. Blum mentions in another part of the book (page 447), and he indicates no connection between the two agreements; but there can be no doubt that this concession was one of the levers which Bismarck used to move his wavering master.

MATHEMATICAL FUNCTIONS.

Theory of Functions of a Complex Variable. By A. R. Forsyth. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1893.

A Treatise on the Theory of Functions. By James Harkness, Associate Professor of Mathematics in Bryn Mawr College, Pa., and Frank Morley, Professor of Pure Mathematics in Haverford College, Pa. Macmillan & Co. 1893.

Traité d'analyse. Par E. Picard, Membre de l'Institut. Paris: Gauthier-Villars. Tome I. 1891. Tome II. 1893.

MANY good people fancy that the advances of mathematics, like those of jurisprudence, become manifest only when the state of things in one generation is compared with that in another; and that they are merely in the nature of extensions of old methods to new cases. In point of fact, there is probably no science in which the rate of *acceleration* of discovery, of the proportion of excess of the discoveries of one year over those of the year before, is so great as it is in mathematics, and no science but mathematics in which discovery seems to be becoming continually more and more fundamental. We are speaking of pure mathematics, not celestial mechanics.

Time was when geometry absorbed so overwhelming a proportion of the studies of mathematicians that "geometer" was understood to be synonymous with "mathematician"; and even to-day geometry is the most studied branch of mathematics. There are various reasons for this. One is that it is a comparatively easy subject. Besides that, the sensuous element of it seduces the mind, and carries it into excesses of study; and other causes there are. But next after geometry, in respect to

the quantity of researches annually published about it, and far superior to geometry in its intellectual rank, is the subject of the theory of functions. For the last twenty years and more there has been a perfect freshet of original work in this line. Every year its tide is rising: every year increases the force and value of the new discoveries, which sweep on faster than they can be taken account of. In early days, enthusiasts would sacrifice hecatombs to celebrate the solutions of problems. Later, problems appeared less sublime; theorems were requisite to excite admiration. Now, theorems are as the sands of the sea; original methods alone can command mathematical dithyrambs.

At a not remote period in the history of mathematical thought, a Mystery (with a big M and in the darkest of black-letter) hung over the imaginary unit. It used to be written [illegible] and "what was the square root of a negative?" But when it was found that the imaginary unit of algebra was only one of a class of units which, operating upon themselves, in a generalized sense of multiplication, produce −1, the mystery lost its capital; and after the philosophy of ordinary quantity had become better comprehended, the mysteriousness of the imaginary had vanished. The numbers, *one*, *two*, *three*, *four*, etc., are sounds which we have learned to pronounce in a certain order of succession, and which we do pronounce in telling over the individuals of collections. If such a collection is finite, we reach a last individual; and the number pronounced on coming to this last one affords the means of determining whether the individuals of two collections can be made to correspond, one to one, or, if not, in what manner they fail of that. Sometimes the things counted are really in succession like the numbers. Such are trees in a row, degrees of temperature, and years. In other cases, the succession of counting is purely artificial, as in enumerating the population, or the pounds of flour in a barrel. But the counting does not, on that account, cease to be useful, because, in whatever order the individuals are counted, the final number will, in counts of any one collection, always be the same. Even the separation into discrete units (as the gallons of water in a lake) may be artificial, provided that, if it were effected in various ways, it would always lead to the same resulting number. It will be noticed that this is not a nominalistic account of numbers—it does not make them *flatus vocis* only—but it makes their existence *in re* consist in an experiential constancy; that is, it assigns to reality three elements, (1) sensuous quality, (2) compulsiveness, (3) generality. Besides the system of whole numbers, we often make use of a scheme of quantity connected together like the points on a line. This is useful even when there is no perfect continuity in the things to which it is applied. The scheme of imaginary quantity is simply one that is connected like the points of a plane. Certain natural phenomena, especially in hydrodynamics, correspond exactly, in theory at least, with such a scheme. But since any line upon such a plane is connected like ordinary real, continuous quantity, the usefulness of imaginary quantities extends to almost all cases in which real quantity is used.

The questions to which the theory of functions, so far as yet developed, chiefly addresses itself arise out of the supposition that a correspondence between the points of two different planes of quantity has been established by an equation. It considers the nature of the resulting continuity (so far as this is not resolved in the theory of plane curves), and, more especially, the modes of representing the relation, both geometrical and analytical. The main object of the whole study is to find out how to make use of differential equations, especially such as are the immediate dicta of mechanical laws.

The disciplinary value of the theory of functions is superior to that of any other branch of mathematics. For many minds elementary geometry serves, directly or indirectly, as their model of reasoning. But elementary geometry is so artificial, and is so permeated with fallacies and caprices, that it must be and ought to be difficult to a healthy and ingenuous young mind; and much of the perverse logic that is current in the world is to be laid at its door. Algebra has done much for every educated man; it has given him an exemplar of perfectly accurate abstraction. It would put a mighty weapon in his hands if the application of it, in the elementary books, were not pretty much restricted to two problems, elimination between linear equations and the solution of the quadratic. The theory of probabilities is most instructive and useful, but that is only applied algebra. The theory of numbers is an admirable school of reasoning, as far as it goes, and it goes so far that reflection upon it will counteract much of the poison that the text-books of logic inject into the current of thought. Projective geometry imparts the most precious secrets in generalization while making no fundamental analyses. As for analytical geometry and the calculus, all *that* ought to be taught (as in Prof. Benjamin Peirce's 'Curves and Functions' it *was* taught nearly fifty years ago) as part of the general theory of functions. The theory of functions is, in the first place, intrinsically, quite easy—we mean to follow, not to invent. Of course, it is capable of being obscurely stated. Its logic is the most fundamental conceivable, and, at the same time, is the very subtlest that can anywhere be found; so that no man is too eminent never to have made a slip in it. The outlines of the theory ought to be known to every educated person.

There has hitherto been no treatise in our language on the modern development of the theory. At length the same year presents us with two. Though the first has 700 pages of royal octavo, and the other 500 of common octavo, yet the subject is so vast that a considerable part of the contents of either is excluded from the other, and much that we might desire to see is absent from both. Dr. Forsyth has been well known for some years less than half a generation as an indefatigable investigator of functions, and he has already produced two profound treatises on differential equations. The present work contains many not unimportant contributions of his own. Messrs. Harkness and Morley are younger men, but, as this volume shows, thoroughly versed in their subject. Dr. Forsyth keeps as much as he can to the general theory, treating such a special subject as elliptic integrals, for instance, with the greatest brevity possible, and at the same time in such a way as to afford a bird's-eye view of it. Messrs. Harkness and Morley, on the other hand, seem to have been of the opinion that it was better to go somewhat deeply into a smaller selection of topics. Many things are crowded out to make room for long chapters on Elliptic and Abelian Functions, while, at the same time, these very subjects are not treated with all the fulness which is requisite for the practical applications of them. This, at least, is certainly true of elliptics. Practical applications of Abelian functions ought, perhaps, in the present state of things, not to be thought of. Certain preliminary branches, absolutely indispensable to the comprehension of the theory of functions, such as the logic of infinity, continuity, etc., and the doctrine of the convergency of series, are entirely omitted by Forsyth, while he inserts matter about substitutions which the reader will be glad to find thus at his hand, but which really belongs in a treatise on algebra. The other writers have followed the opposite course in these respects, though we cannot quite content ourselves with their attempted reproduction of Cantor's logical ideas. Dr. Forsyth imitates, in a general way, the French lucid style of exposition, though the French accuracy of statement and neatness of demonstration are often wanting in his book. Messrs. Harkness and Morley express themselves in the German manner, which makes the exposition as easy as possible for the writer—and never mind the reader. For an illustration of what we mean it is sufficient to open the book at random. At the top of p. 352, we read (with a slight modification of notation for our printer's sake):

"The symbol MN equals 1 or 0, according as M and N do or do not contain a common letter."

Now, it is inaccurate to speak of a *symbol* being equal to a number; and since M and N are single letters, there can be no question of their containing a common letter. But the authors mean that when they are replaced by the duadic symbols which form one of four or five different ways of expressing the same thing, *those symbols* have or have not a common letter, according as the corresponding quantities equal 1 or 0. The opposite page, 353, presents several singular instances of saying one thing while meaning another; and it is stated that a certain notation "will be" used, which notation is incontinently dropped without another word, and another one, not defined, is constantly used for many pages. So, on p. 355, a notation is defined, in no apparent connection with anything in the vicinity, and is never used for many pages, until it suddenly springs up after we have forgotten all about it. These examples are not culled.

It would be unfair to convey the idea that Forsyth is quite impeccable in his expressions. This is far from being true. Thus, at the beginning of chapter iii., in enunciating Cauchy's fundamental theorem on the expansion of a holomorphic function, the important words "unconditionally and uniformly," as describing the mode of convergence, are omitted, as they are overlooked in the proof given. The first page of chapter vii. has but sixteen lines of text, yet they contain no less than three faults of expression, if not of logic. Indeed, Forsyth is really too negligent in regard to terminology. Thus, that category of surfaces, curves, etc., which the Germans call *Geschlecht*, the French *genre*, and which we should do well to term *genus*, instead of the usual word "deficiency," Forsyth most confusingly designates as the *class*. Both books will be found serviceable to students, alike to those of higher and of lower grades. We may mention, by the way, that Forsyth is rich in illustrative examples, Harkness and Morley pretty poor. But we cannot sincerely pronounce either of them quite satisfactory, whether as a handbook or as a textbook, and both handbook and textbook are certainly needed. The latter ought to be so clear of all pedantical details as to be fit for the use of every young person who seeks a broad intellectual education.

Picard's very admirable work is not proper-

ly a treatise on the theory of functions. Indeed, when the first volume appeared, the author's purpose was to treat this subject rather slightly, and we were informed that volume ii. would deal with Differential Equations. Instead of that, only one of the seventeen chapters relates to that subject. It is evident the theory of functions has been growing in importance in the author's mind. Hence it is, probably, that instead of embarking frankly in the vehicle of imaginaries, the author thinks it more philosophical to deal chiefly with real functions, thus making many things difficult and crabbed which would in Cauchy's hands appear delightfully facile. The work is one of truly considerable power. It cannot justly be called a classic. Members of the French Institute are apt, for an obvious reason, to be over-praised. While we admit the great value of this work, we must say that some comments upon it we have seen from men to whose opinions we should naturally be inclined to defer, appear to touch the point of extravagant laudation.

Selected Letters of Malcolm Kingsley Macmillan. Privately Printed. London. 1893.

THIS beautiful volume makes a certain appeal to the general public in the prefatory note, which says: "To his friends the volume will assuredly be welcome; and even to those who did not know him personally, it may be of interest as a record of the impressions of a mind singularly gifted and alert." There is so little doubt of this that we cannot but hope that the book will soon be placed by Macmillan & Co. on the list of their regular publications. There are no privacies which it would be presumptuous for any lover of good reading to invade; and for the untimely death of one so rarely gifted, but who had hardly begun to use his gifts in any public way, there might be some little consolation in the wide enjoyment of his letters and of the contact with a personality so frank and cordial, so genial and robust, as that which they reveal. The book as now presented assumes the reader's knowledge of Mr. Macmillan's blood and state; the stranger finds out as he goes on that he was a son of Mr. Alexander Macmillan, the present head of the great house, that he studied at Oxford, and that he was about thirty-eight years old when he was cut off by some accident on an expedition to Mount Olympus in 1889. As he appears in these letters he was about equally insatiable as a traveller and as a reader. He was away from England much of the time during the last years of his life. Once within a few months we find him in Greece, in Egypt, in Italy and Switzerland, then off to Greece again. He was planning his first visit to America in the immediate future, after the journey from which he came not back.

He wrote a book called 'Dagonet the Jester' and a few things for the London weeklies, but somehow it was difficult for him to put his gifts and culture to any practical account. It was not that the native hue of resolution was sicklied o'er in the *Hamlet* way. We get everywhere the impression of a singularly healthy mind. Two lines of study had for him a particular attraction--Richardson, in connection with the early English novel, and certain forms of mediæval superstition. He meant to write on them, but apparently he never did. Yet he was one of the busiest of men; there was so much to read, of so many kinds, in so many languages; and then the architecture to study, the music to hear, the pictures and the plays to see, the friends to meet. To these last he must have been a treasure. One can taste their hearty liking for him in his replies to their affectionate greetings, and his picture shows a free and open countenance that was like the nature of the man.

Many of his letters, if not the most of them, were written to his sister, Miss Margaret Macmillan, now Mrs. Louis Dyer; many others to Prof. Dyer. One of his best friends was Mr. Marion Crawford, and, writing to his brother, he gives an account of the novelist that exhibits him as a man of parts:

"Crawford was up a day or two lately, and I am more than ever struck with the fact that he is far more remarkable than his books. He speaks four languages so that the natives cannot detect him for a foreigner. He knows a good deal of Sanskrit, though he hardly ever refers to it. He learnt Norwegian, so as to pronounce it properly, in about three lessons from Ross. He is a good fencer, a good sailor, and can do silver repousée work. With no training, he has designed the entire reconstruction of his house at Sorrento. Both in mathematics and draughtsmanship he is more than mediocre. He seems able to do almost anything he turns his attention to. The one thing he has almost entirely neglected is modern literature; and he always says that he is not really a literary man. In this there is some truth, though he has a kind of imagination that he throws into everything."

No disposition could be further from the *nil admirari* than Mr. Macmillan's. He much preferred Landor's "delights of admiration" to being pleased with nothing. The breadth of his sympathies may have done something to abridge his positive activity: it was so hard for him to take a side, or, taking one, it was so natural to see the other. What could the Gothic or the Renaissance fanatic do with a man who wrote of Wren, Pugin, and Barry as the three English architects of genius? Faucy Pugin's immeasurable disgust at such a collocation! But if it makes the purist in these things question the writer's penetration, it has the advantage of being a personal opinion—always we feel that the man is looking through his own eyes and not trying to see things as he has been told he ought to. As with seeing, so with hearing: his admiration for Wagner is immense, but you will not convince him that Liszt is not a kind of "complicated tin kettle."

"My own style," he writes, "through want of practice in composition, is getting to be an admirable exemplification of the faults I dislike." But it is evident that much of the phrasing of his letters was wrought out with literary conscience, and that they suffer most from his inclination to the mock-heroic. Many of his judgments are very happily expressed, and from page to page one gets all the pleasure of conversing with a highly cultivated, active, earnest mind about the music, books, and art that have impressed it one way or another. The Cicero of the Capitoline Museum is described as "pompous, impressive, thoughtful, with a dignified purity of aspiration, a most weak flutter about the mouth—in a word, *ecclesiastical*." He "cannot help thinking that the highly idealized portrait of Shelley has been made purposely to wear the same expression" as the Beatrice Cenci of the Barberini Palace. As to the scepticism whether she is a Beatrice or the work of Guido, he says nothing. Fresh from the Parthenon, he goes to Venice, and writing of St. Mark's he says:

"One wonders how the Parthenon in all its glory would have compared with it. I mean, of course, simply as to decoration and color. After looking at all the architectural glory of that building for many months, and constantly craving some adequate notion of its former complete effect, it is a relief to have here those signs of a more recent life and glory far less gone towards extinction. Of course, the Greeks would not have used those red and variegated marbles so freely even if they had had them in the same abundance. But I think, in spite of all, it is the nearest surviving thing to the dead Athenian glory."

Greek things suggest Schliemann, of whom Mr. Macmillan saw a good deal. He was reputed to have a Homer printed upon India-rubber, so that he might read it while bathing in Greek waters. He thought "that Alcibiades should have been allowed to conquer Italy, and that then we should have had a Græcized Europe." There is an interesting appendix concerning Charles Kingsley, for whom Mr. Macmillan was named; a second, criticising with enthusiasm the acting of Eleonora Duse-Checchi; and a third, pathetically incomplete, which is a dialogue between Wordsworth and Blake.

Reed's Rules: A Manual of General Parliamentary Law, with notes of changes made by the House of Representatives, and suggestions for special rules. By Thomas B. Reed, ex-Speaker of the House of Representatives. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. 1894. 12mo, pp. 221.

Parliamentary Tactics, for the use of the Presiding Officer and Public Speakers. Arranged by Harry W. Hoot. New York: The Scientific Publishing Co. 1893. Pp. 51.

EX-SPEAKER REED'S manual is very entertaining reading, and it will be very useful to the student who desires to understand the proceedings in the lower branch of Congress. For general use it is no improvement on our old, trustworthy Cushing. The practice at Washington does not govern parliamentary law elsewhere, especially in regard to special rules. Mr. Reed naturally speaks of his famous method of counting a quorum, and states, on p. 23, "Those who sit silent are regarded as consenting to the result. Such was the recent decision of the U. S. Supreme Court." To us this seems to be only a half-truth. That court decided at the October term, 1891, in the case of United States vs. Ballin (U. S. Reports, vol. 144, pp. 1–11), that the House had a rule that the names of members present and not voting should be added to those voting and "be counted and announced in determining the presence of a quorum to do business." Also, that this rule was "a constitutional mode of ascertaining the presence of a quorum empowered to act as the House." With all due respect to the court, no one can read that opinion without seeing that it was a foregone conclusion. By the Constitution the House could make rules, and it had made one. Confessedly the Constitution failed to provide a mode of ascertaining a quorum or of compelling members to act when present. The court clearly could not call a rule contrary to the Constitution on a point whereon that instrument was silent. It was necessary for the court, if it gave reasons at all, to fall back on general principles, and its opinion is not fortified by citing Mansfield, Dane, Dillon, or various courts. The simple question remains, Shall members sitting silent be held constructively to be acting? Until a supreme law pronounces expressly on one side or the other, each will find advocates as a matter of opinion. That such a law is needed is shown by the provision in the constitutions of many of our States, that to pass a bill there shall be required the recorded vote in the affirmative of a clear majority of the members. This provision is the simplest and clearest reply to the unnecessary argument of the court that the act of a mine

rity may be held to be the work of a majority.

No one knows better than Mr. Reed that he was simply the first Speaker to seize this dangerous power. For a century, in emergencies even more pressing, other majorities had refrained from using this disputed remedy. His apparent support by a coördinate branch of the Government cannot save him from his bad eminence, and that he is fully conscious of the fact appears in his references to it. It is a pity that a man of so much ability should persist in excusing his action, and in trying to make the public believe it to be an accepted part of parliamentary law, when in reality it is only the practice of one Congress, over which the court had really no jurisdiction.

As we have said, this manual is a very full account of congressional law; but the difficulties which arise in the House will not occur in general assemblies. There seems to be a mystery involved in the fact that legislatures as large as our national House can meet and transact business, while the supreme council cannot. Undoubtedly the constitutional provision for a roll-call is one great impediment; but an equally great trouble lies in the custom of interrupting the member who has the floor. It is a national disgrace, fully justifying the reproach of national churlishness, that this method of shouting out remarks should be continued for a single day. Joined to other offensive customs of the eminent body, it degrades the House below a mass-meeting in the rudest districts. Hence Mr. Reed's Manual will hardly be found useful in any meeting of self-respecting citizens.

'Parliamentary Tactics' is one of many attempts to make a suitable presiding officer out of one ignorant of parliamentary law. By an indexed margin one is supposed to be enabled to turn at once to the page and sentence which will unravel any difficulty. It is unnecessary for one who knows his Cushing, and it is no easier of comprehension than that manual. Mr. Hoot is evidently a believer in Reed's quorum rules; but he misleads the public by citing them as settled parliamentary law.

Eskimo Life. By Fridtjof Nansen. Translated by William Archer. Longmans, Green & Co. 1893.

Students of northern ethnology and anthropology, not less than the general reader, will welcome this latest production of the young hero of arctic exploration as a useful addition to their libraries. The author gave in an earlier publication, 'The First Crossing of Greenland,' much that bears upon the general habits and customs of the Eskimo—indeed, a substantial part of the present work is already contained in the other—but the volume before us has the advantage of completeness and compactness, and of embodying a more recent thought upon the general subject. Nansen has a deep love for the people with whom he spent many months of all but weary waiting, and he naturally colors his pictures from what might be appropriately styled the pleasurably personal side. His intercourse with the natives was pleasant throughout, repeating the experience of nearly all travellers to the same region; and words almost fail for the warm praise which he bestows upon them for their bonhomie, their uniformly good nature, probity, and kindly conduct. On the other hand, he lashes unmercifully the Government and people who have sought, under various pretexts, to protect and civilize the "children of the north"—an effort which, in the opinion of our author, has brought on only demoralization and ruin, with a threatened extermination of the race. No good is recognized as having come to the Eskimo through contact with the white man—they have only been "stung with the venom of our civilization." Yet, in spite of Nansen's forcible denunciation, and his liberal portrayal of the Greenlander of old, it is doubtful if the unprejudiced student will join in his lament that "this lovable people [is] inevitably destined either to pass utterly away or to decline into the shadow of what it once was."

While probably few people know the Eskimo better than Nansen, it cannot be said that he has devoted himself to such conscientious study in detail as some of his predecessors have undertaken—notably, in recent years, Dr. Franz Boas. Like Nordenskjöld, Nansen had but a limited acquaintance with the true Greenlanders or full-bred Eskimo, and his horizon would have been very materially extended had he visited the region of northwest Greenland, the home of the small band of so-called "Arctic Highlanders," probably less than three hundred in number, who constitute the primitive people of the land. It was among this people, very different in habits from the west coast Eskimo, that Mr. Peary spent a full twelvemonth in 1891–92, closely associated in everyday life. There, too, the lesson of cheerfulness and honesty could be learned from the natives; but with it came also a lesson of uncleanliness and primitive simplicity which it would have been difficult to match elsewhere.

Nansen throws no new light upon the question of the origin of the Eskimo: he admits a wandering from the west and the former occupancy of nearly all the boreal region included between Alaska (and possibly northeastern Asia) and Greenland; but beyond that, touching the true question of relationship, he does not feel disposed to venture. As regards the colonization of the eastern coast of Greenland, he holds firmly to the conviction, as opposed to the views of the late Dr. Rink, that the direction of transfusion was by way of Melville Bay southward, rounding the point of Cape Farewell, and then up the east coast. This view has almost everything in its favor, yet, as respects a migration around the north of Greenland—in the uncovered lands in which Mr. Peary discovered numbers of musk-oxen—it is undeniable that Eskimo remains have been found as far north as the eighty-first parallel of latitude. The people, in whatever way they may be considered, are among the most interesting, as they are the most isolated, of any on the face of the earth.

Catalogue of Greek, Etruscan, and Roman Vases in the Museum of Fine Arts. By Edward Robinson, Curator of Classical Antiquities. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1893.

This elegant volume solves a twofold problem in a very satisfactory manner: it furnishes the visitor to the museum with a convenient and instructive guide to an important section of its contents, and at the same time gives to the classical scholar, specially occupied with the study of ancient art, an account, faithful and scholarly, of the treasures of a collection which must henceforth be ranked among the important sources of our knowledge of ancient fictile art. This has been accomplished by dividing the work into two parts. An introductory portion contains a short chronological sketch of the history of Greek vases, followed by a study of the various processes of their manufacture, with sufficient bibliographical references to the latest and best authorities upon both these subjects. This is succeeded by the catalogue proper, which gives a technical description of each of the objects as they are displayed upon the shelves; six hundred and twenty-three in number, exclusive of numerous valuable fragments. These careful descriptions are made more intelligible to the reader by an outline figure of each vase in miniature. From these we can judge of the capital importance of the collection, as the surprising result appears that there are three hundred and eighty different shapes to be found in it, comprising probably nearly all the known forms.

Such examination of the work as we have made shows care and accuracy in the descriptions; but we have noticed a few slips, that can be readily corrected: on p. 155, l. 33, *left* instead of *right;* on p. 159, l. 2, *left* for *right*, and l. 8, *right* for *left*. In the Introduction, p. 37, the statement occurs that the Greek potters probably made use of "the kick-wheel." This is founded upon the discovery near Arezzo, towards the end of the last century, among the remains of an ancient pottery, of a disk of a peculiar character, for which the authority cited is "Fabroni, 'Storia degli antichi vasi fittili aretini' (tav. iii. 9, 10; v. 7, 8, 9; p. 64)." The reference to the figures in the plates, however, should be omitted, as they relate to entirely different objects.

A brief account of some of the more striking examples to be found in the collection will serve to show what an important contribution to knowledge has been made by this handsomely illustrated volume. As a chronological arrangement has been adopted, *Case I., Early Greek Style*, is given up to a few specimens of the so-called "Mycenæ style," found in Cyprus and purchased of Gen. di Cesnola. For its date, which is described as "the second or later group of prehistoric types," Mr. Robinson makes quite a liberal allowance of time, adopting implicitly Mr. Flinders Petrie's estimate of from 1400 to 1100 B.C. The earlier prehistoric groups, the one discovered by Schliemann at Hissarlik, which Mr. Robinson would put as far back as 2000 B.C., and the one found under the lava beds of the island of Santorin, which he fixes at about 1800–2000 B.C., are not represented in the Boston Museum; but there are about eighty objects of various primitive types, in addition to those from Cyprus, from different places in Greece and Italy, which together supply excellent material for the student of prehistoric fictile art.

The next, *Case I. a*, indeed, is of exceptional value, as it is devoted to the contents of one of the prehistoric graves discovered, in 1817, on the slopes of the Alban Hills, in a stratum of volcanic ashes buried under a yard-thick layer of peperino (not, as Mr. Robinson says, "under three eruptions of lava"). This so-called "Latial pottery" and its "hut urns" was the subject of a communication to the *Nation* of January 24, 1889. In the same case can be seen the contents of another prehistoric grave, discovered in Rome, in 1888, inside the line of the Servian Wall. *Case II.* contains over two hundred vases from Cyprus, of various types and ages, also purchased from Gen. di Cesnola. *Case III.* is of unusual importance, as in it is to be found the Dixwell collection of "Bucchero ware," purchased in Florence in 1875, and formerly a portion of a public collection in Chiusi. Mr. Robinson speaks of Fr. Lenormant's description of this ware in the *Gazette Archéologique*, 1879, as the most complete. Two articles by him, "Les Poteries étrusques de terre-noire,"

published in *L'Art*, July 16 and 23, 1882, would more properly be so denominated. Outside of Florence no museum affords a better opportunity than this for studying this national pottery of Etruria. One of the vases, in the form of a bird, bears an inscription that has been published by Gamurrini in his 'Appendix to Fabretti's Corpus Inscriptionum Italicarum'; he pronounces it to be "one of the earliest monuments of Etruscan art and writing." The Boston collection has also been enriched by an important selection from Mr. Petrie's finds at Naucratis, presented by the Egypt Exploration Fund. Included are three of the most interesting examples of the vases there discovered. All of them have been figured in the official account of the exploration, where it is erroneously stated that one is to be found in the museum at Boulak, near Cairo. In regard to the position to be assigned to the Naucratis pottery in the development of Greek fictile art Mr. Robinson expresses a decided opinion that there is no discoverable evidence that it had any influence whatever, but rather that it was itself influenced by other wares. This conclusion is well reasoned, but it would take too much space to quote it in full. In still another case there is displayed a goodly amount (mostly, it must be said, of fragments) of the beautiful embossed, coral-hued table-ware of the Romans. This was principally fabricated at Arezzo, where many of the moulds actually used in stamping it have been discovered. This was formerly called "Samian ware," but erroneously, as it is not met with in Greece, and moreover it is the direct descendant of the embossed black ware of Etruria; inferior local imitations of it, however, are found in France, in Spain, and, some contend, even in England.

The chief treasures, however, of the collection are a number of remarkable specimens of those beautiful Greek vases, both black-figured and red-figured, which we should scarcely hope to find outside of the great European museums. The frontispiece reproduces one of the most important, a *hydria*, on which is represented "Orpheus put to death by the women of Thrace," certainly to be ranked among the most beautiful examples in existence of red-figured vases in the "fine style." There are also four of those highly prized vases which bear the signatures of the artists by whom they were painted. Three are black-figured *kylices*, with the names of Tleson, Xenocles, and Hermogenes; the fourth is a graceful red-figured *kylix*, in the "severe style," signed Euphronius, and is one of the ten extant vases of this master. It was once the property of Mrs. Hamilton Gray, who says in her 'Sepulchres of Ancient Etruria' that she had seen "none superior to it either in size, form, subject, elegance of design, or beauty of workmanship." A very singular specimen, given in a plate, is a black-figured *skyphos*, representing probably a chorus scene from some Old Attic comedy: six armed warriors riding upon leaping dolphins, and six others riding upon ostriches, each company advancing towards a man who plays upon a double flute. Two black-figured *lekythi* have for their subject Herakles and the Centaur Pholos; in one the centaur is portrayed in the archaic style, with the whole figure of a man joined to the body and the hind legs of a horse; in the other in the later fashion, with a human head and trunk joined to a horse's body. In conclusion we would call attention to four white Attic funeral *lekythi*, two of them containing the singular-looking little figure called the *eidolon*, which is supposed to personify the soul of the deceased. These have been published by Prof. J. H. Wright in the *American Journal of Archæology*. A third example is of peculiar archæological interest from its bearing an inscription evidently referring to the deceased, inasmuch as Pottier, the author of an excellent monograph upon this kind of vases, denies that any such inscription can be found upon them.

The Indian and the Pioneer: An Historical Study. By Rose N. Yawger. Two vols. in one, pp. 189 and 143. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. 1893.

This book ought to ask pardon for being born, and its petition ought to be denied. It begins with five corrections of errata, as if to gain credit for painstaking accuracy. Two of the so-called errata do not exist at all, but others much worse swarm by scores. For one instance, Washington, writing of "the mischiefs which would attend a defeat" of Sullivan, is made to say: "We should perhaps lose an enemy, and our frontiers would be deluged in blood" (p. 119). This sentence is nonsense unless we know where to find Washington's letter (Sparks, vi., p. 284). We there discover that the word he wrote was "army," meaning his own, which the printer, or perhaps the copyist, has twisted into enemy.

In her first volume, Miss Yawger has tied up in a nosegay some dozen of her compositions written in school-girl days, or as contributions to local newspapers. These productions, stamped with her individuality and garnished with apt quotations, as well as sprightly and graceful verses of her own, were creditable and useful. They gave her the name of wielding a facile pen as well as popularized much of neighborhood history and legend. But such cut flowers soon dry and wither unless brought into vital connection with the roots from which they grew. The inaccuracies inevitable in juvenile essays should have been tested by original and recognized authorities. Thus, we should not read, as we do (p. 121), that Skoi-Yase, the Indian name of Waterloo, means Rapid Water, when Lewis H. Morgan has said that it means Place of Whortleberries ('League of the Iroquois,' p. 470).

But the "true inwardness" of Miss Yawger's work is not discoverable till her readers are well along in the second volume. Then the truth dawns upon them: they have pilgrimed through many pages of prose and poetry, and their terminal shrine is the academies, chiefly feminine or female, of Cayuga County. Some parents profess peace principles, and for these the orthodox Friends' Academy is described. For those not Quakers, Cayuga Lake Military Academy is exhibited, not only in prose and rhyme, but by six plates of the pomp, pride, and circumstance of war. Some like an institution open to all comers, and for them Union Springs High School opens its doors with Miss Yawger herself an assistant. On the other hand, as "we may believe large numbers to be incompatible with the best educational results," Wells College "limits its numbers to not more than one hundred, beside resident teachers." Its faculty seems, however, quite unlimited, their present number being sixteen, who stand forth with full names and additions. Whatever the heads of these and some other establishments have printed in circulars as their chief attractions and cardinal claims to patronage, is the nucleus of Miss Yawger's second volume. Whoever buys it is likely to call it, in printer's slang, a bundle of "blind ads." He pays money for what its educational creators would thank him for receiving without money and without price. He feels himself a victim of sharp practice, as Pharaoh's daughter must have felt when she learned that she had paid Moses's mother for nursing her own child.

Napoléon et les Femmes: L'Amour. Par Frédéric Masson. Neuvième édition. Pp. xxxi, 334. Paris: Paul Ollendorff; New York: Christern. 1894.

It is difficult to find a satisfactory reason for the existence of this book. In general, that which is of value in it is not new, and that which is new is of small value. Its purpose is to present a somewhat chronological record of the women of all sorts and conditions who attracted either the temporary or the permanent attentions of Napoleon. This diary of concupiscence begins in the streets of Paris in 1787, with a story from Napoleon's own mouth and pen, and ends with the obscure rumors of St. Helena. All the allusions which, more or less veiled, flit through the pages of the memoir-writers from Mme. Junot to Mme. de Rémusat reappear here, framed in statistics.

M. Masson shows, indeed, an industry worthy of a better object. He has found the exact dates of Napoleon's liaisons with actresses and ladies-in-waiting. He knows when Lady This and Lady That were installed in lodgings at the expense of the State, and he tells just what sums of money were granted to them. Nay, more; he tracks the lady on through the rest of her generally unimportant life, and, with the zest of the true annalist, reveals the names of the towns and the street numbers of the houses in which she lived down to the day of her unimportant death. M. Masson does not take this trouble because he is unable to escape from the fascination of his facts, for they are not alluring; he does it because he soberly believes that any kind of association with Napoleon casts a halo of beautiful immortality over the Emperor's partner, be it in wisdom or be it in folly. Even the husbands whose families Napoleon invaded seem to M. Masson on that account to deserve the statues that are "ære perennius," and the reader is presented with the biography and pedigree of the complaisant or indignant spouse. The longest chapter in the book, the best written and the most interesting, is the one which tells over again the miserable story of Mme. Walewska. M. Masson, however, betrays no sense of the meanness of Napoleon's conduct to the Polish woman; it is M. Masson's theory that the heroic man is not under the common obligation to behave himself. The author thinks that Napoleon's attitude towards these summer butterflies who caught his fancy was the attitude of a *lover*, and he commends Napoleon highly because the latter preserved towards Marie-Louise, on the contrary, the attitude of a *spouse*—a sufficiently Gallic distinction.

The conclusion of all this strange mixture of pornography, exclamatory rhetoric, and political psychology is that Napoleon had "as great a power of loving as of thought and action," that he is "l'exemplaire le plus surprenant du génie masculin," and that "in his relations with women, as in all other relations, he remains superior to other beings." To apply the word "love" to Napoleon's selfish conduct towards women would seem an unnecessary liberty with language, but Bonapartist partisanship has always shown a large trace of the mediæval loyalty. This book is the work of a devoted partisan, and yet it more than confirms the dark picture of Napoleon drawn by

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Mme. de Rémusat. To M. Masson's eyes, however, the shades are brightness.

Notes on the Surnames of Francus, Franceis, French, etc., in Scotland. With an Account of the Frenches of Thorndykes. By A. D. Weld French. Boston: Privately printed.

It is unfortunate that the author of this book has failed to explain its intent. The surname is by no means uncommon, especially in Ireland, and on the surface it appears to mean that the first bearer of the name was a Frenchman. We do not, perhaps, understand the value of the few scattered notes in this essay, citing instances of the use of the name in various forms. There is no extended pedigree given, and no connection shown between many of the persons cited, in the first part. The second part traces a Scotch family, the Frenches of Thorndykes, from 1375 to 1617; but we are not informed whether the information is derived from printed or manuscript sources. The author presents his account with as much seriousness as though he were tracing the family of Douglas, or Seton, or Dunbar, and yet the reader at the end is tempted to inquire the cause of such industry in searching the pedigree of an obscure family which ran out nearly three centuries ago. An American genealogy interests many people, and it may often be of value in the study of vital statistics. The history of a foreign family, even if not of historic renown, is often interesting if enriched with documents showing the details of life in former generations. But a mere pedigree of names and dates is of service to few, and must claim a value only proportionate to its originality. We infer that Mr. French has the merit of first printing these copies of charters and other documents; but to obtain any recognition he should have stated the fact more plainly. If Mr. French will prepare genealogies of the Frenches in America, or trace the families of Weld, Davis, Williams, or others of his ancestors in this country, he will be doing a good work and will not fail of due recognition.

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In Memoriam John Larkin Lincoln. 1817—1891. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Keith, Leslie. 'Lisbeth. Cassell. $1.
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Norris, W. E. The Countess Radna. Lovell, Coryell & Co. $1.
Orcutt, Harriet E. A Modern Love Story. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co.
Palgrave, R. H. I. Dictionary of Political Economy. Vol. I. A—E. Macmillan. $6.50.
Scott, Sir W. St. Ronan's Well. [Dryburgh Edition.] Edinburgh: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
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Wallace, Prof. William. The Logic of Hegel. Prolegomena. Translation. 2 vols. 2d ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press: New York: Macmillan.
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contributor, who then proceeds to laud without justice, or damn without mercy, regardful only of the liveliness of his own article. It would be interesting to know from how large an acquaintance with the methods of literary journals Mr. Birrell makes his deduction. The case between authors and reviewers is, however, very fairly put and suggestive for both. Yet, in these days, when the author in one magazine is the critic in another, their gibes at each other are really about as serious as the insult which the pot hurled at the kettle.

Electric Waves. By Dr. Heinrich Hertz. Authorized English translation by D. E. Jones. Macmillan & Co. 1893.

THE recent death of Dr. Hertz, in his thirty-seventh year, cannot be regarded otherwise than as a calamity to science. The work before us is a translation of his collected papers, which originally appeared in Wiedemann's *Annalen*. The English translation was supervised by the author himself, and the very interesting and valuable preface is due to Lord Kelvin. Then follows the modest and fair-minded introduction of Dr. Hertz. There are thirteen of his papers, all of which are of fundamental importance. Taking Maxwell's electro-magnetic theory of light as the basis of his work, Hertz succeeded by a most beautiful series of experiments in proving the existence of distinct rays of electric force, and in showing that these possess the properties of rays of heat and light popularly so called. In other words, rays of electricity may be rectilinear, reflected, refracted, and polarized. The relation between electricity and other forms of energy is thus for the first time clearly demonstrated by experiment. To use the language of Lord Kelvin:

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Of course, very much remains to be done, and even the history of recent discovery is yet to be written. The work of our countryman, Joseph Henry, to whom is exclusively due the important discovery of the oscillatory character of the discharges of the Leyden jar, appears not to be known in Germany, and Hertz attributes to Helmholtz in 1847 what had been distinctly proved by Henry in 1842. But Hertz's work is eminently just to the claims of others, and he himself must stand in history as presenting an extraordinary combination of mathematical and experimental powers.

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The Week.

THE passage of the so-called seigniorage bill by the Senate was not unexpected. It has produced little or no disturbance as yet, because the common expectation is that the President will veto it, and that it cannot be passed over a veto. It is also a fact generally recognized by the business community that the bill, even if it should become a law, would not produce much mischief under the present management of the Treasury. This is undoubtedly true. The worst feature of the bill is that it brings us once more to the parting of the ways, and sends the nation upon the wrong road; for, as surely as it becomes a law, so surely do we again start on the descent from which we were rescued only by the repeal of the Sherman act last year. We are at the same parting of the ways—the same in substance—as when Gen. Grant vetoed the inflation bill. That was likewise a scheme for depreciating the currency. All the silver and greenback measures have that common end. Gen. Grant vetoed the inflation bill. It disappeared, and the greenback party withered as though it had been struck by lightning. Depreciation of the currency would never have been thought of again during the present generation but for the decline in the price of silver—a pure accident, but a most calamitous one to this country. It was this accident that put new breath into the unburied corpse, and gave to the cheap-money crowd the ascendency which they enjoyed from 1878 to 1893. How the idea was ever conceived that it would be a social benefit to have a depreciating and fluctuating dollar, is an insoluble mystery; but we know that it exists to a very considerable extent in this country, and that it now and then makes head against all the forces of reason and experience.

While the seigniorage bill was pending in Congress the attention of its friends was invited to the fact that it would, if it should become a law, produce contraction of the currency rather than expansion. The second section of the bill says that all Treasury notes issued under the act of 1890 which come into the Treasury shall be cancelled, and that thereupon silver certificates shall be issued in the manner now provided by law. Now, suppose that Messrs. Lazard Frères, who happen to be exporting a little of the yellow metal at this time, take a million of these notes to the sub-treasury and demand and receive gold for them The Bland seigniorage act being in force, the secretary has no option but to cancel the $1,000,000 of notes thus received. Then he looks to see what law may be in force to enable him to issue silver certificates, and he finds that the only law on the subject of silver certificates is one which authorizes the secretary to issue them to persons depositing standard silver dollars in the Treasury on their demand, and not otherwise. This is the act of February 28, 1878, the Bland-Allison act. It is doubtful, indeed, whether the terms of this act apply to any silver dollars coined under any other act; but supposing that they do, the fact still remains that no certificate can be issued except to a depositor of silver dollars. So the net result would be that $1,000,000 of Treasury notes would be cancelled—merely this and nothing more. Perhaps this would not be a bad thing in the long run, but it would not be exactly what Mr. Bland intended.

The fact that no Southern State but Delaware, Maryland, and Louisiana cast a vote against the seigniorage bill in the Senate on Thursday gives renewed emphasis to Mr. Hewitt's recent observation about the way the South is represented in Congress—or, if you please, misrepresented. More than once within a few weeks the Legislature of Maryland has practically passed censure on Senator Gorman's attitude towards the tariff bill, and on Thursday night a leading Democratic organization in West Virginia sent formal word to the United States Senators from that State that they ought to live up to their party pledges and support tariff reform or resign their seats. It is undoubtedly true that the silver heresy has a stronger hold on the South than the protection heresy. The South may be said to be traditionally for tariff reform. The silver question is a newer issue, and, like its twin sister the greenback question, appeals easily to men uneducated in economic matters, whose incomes are small, and who always have to face a certain amount of indebtedness.

As it passed the House of Representatives, that portion of the Wilson bill which proposes a tax upon incomes in excess of $4,000, provides (section 55) that "in estimating the gains, profit, and income of any person there shall be included . . . the amount of money, notes, bonds, choses in action, and the value of any personal property received by gift, devise, or inheritance" within the calendar year. Manifestly a federal inheritance tax of 2 per cent. is thus levied upon all bequests of personal property which exceed $4,000, and, in case the legatee's income for the year in question approaches the taxable limit, upon bequests even smaller than $4,000. With the purpose of the Wilson bill as commonly interpreted—viz., to impose a tax upon incomes—this provision is entirely at variance. Income, properly understood, is a recurring revenue; it is, as a rule, more or less steady, foreknowable. A gift, devise, or inheritance comes to the recipient once for all; it is not, for the most part, followed by other like sums from a similar source. Legacies constitute a superaddition to the legatee's income, frequently a considerable, and in general an unexpected or, at least, an unearned, superaddition. They thus increase, for the time, the recipient's ability to pay taxation, and it is precisely upon this ground that inheritance taxes are chiefly defended in most countries where they exist. To tax legacies as if they were a part of income is an absurdity. Such an absurdity the Wilson bill commits in reference to bequests of personal property, but not in reference to devises of realty. That the bill, being thus absurd, is not consistently absurd, may be due to inadvertence. Those sections of the bill which propose an income tax are evidently drafted with less care than the parts for which Mr. Wilson is more directly responsible. Nevertheless, it is incredible that any portion of the bill has been drawn so heedlessly as to impose an unintended tax of not less than fifteen millions annually; the blunder would be too gross.

A more probable explanation is, that the death duty upon personal property was introduced into the bill as a compensatory tax. Such is the character of the inheritance taxes in our States, where the "general" property tax notoriously fails to reach any considerable share of the personal property legally liable to taxation. But the federal Government has no property tax to be compensated. As a matter of fact, however, the proposed federal income tax will probably bear with disproportionate weight upon income from real property. Income from personal property will more generally evade taxation, in spite of the attempt to tax income from corporate bonds, etc., as nearly as possible at its source. But, on the other hand, salary income will certainly suffer still more than income from real estate. As a compensatory device, then, for the probable shortcomings of the income tax, any inheritance tax whatever, levied exclusively upon personalty, must be painfully defective. The particular inheritance tax imposed by the Wilson bill is further objectionable both because of the form in which

the levy is provided for, and because of the size of the legacies taxed. If a federal inheritance tax upon personalty be needed at all for a compensatory purpose, that purpose should be avowed, and the tax enacted clearly and unmistakably in a separate section of the law, not hidden away in a couple of lines of a section devoted to a different subject. Likewise the compensatory tax should be levied, not upon a four-thousand-dollar legacy, corresponding at 5 per cent. to an income of two hundred dollars, but only upon bequests of such sums as, at current rates of interest, will afford the income itself taxable under the law.

We are glad to agree for once with the organ of the Manufacturers' Club of Philadelphia. That paper strongly protests against the increase in the tax on distilled spirits. "The tax now levied upon alcohol," it says, "is just about *six times* the value of the material; that is to say, every manufacturer who uses alcohol pays a tax of 500 per cent. for the privilege." As a raw material of industry, alcohol stands in the first rank, along with iron ore, wool, and lumber. It enters into the composition of innumerable things, and is perhaps of more importance to the medical art than any other article or agent in the world. In Great Britain the Government furnishes methylated spirits to manufacturers free of tax. By this means the alcohol is treated with wood gas, which renders it repulsive and sickening as a beverage, but does not impair its qualities as an agent for manufacturing purposes. Plans have been brought forward from time to time for introducing this system here, but they have been found inadequate by reason of the wide extent of the country and the consequent difficulty of keeping the business under strict surveillance. It is the opinion of those most competent to judge that if we should attempt to make alcohol used in the arts free of tax, we should be obliged to make it free for all purposes. Therefore, when it is proposed to put an additional tax of 20 cents a gallon on raw spirits, two gallons of which are required to make one gallon of alcohol, a very serious question is presented apart from the question whether the present tax is or is not the most judicious one. Mr. David A. Wells, whose authority on this subject is undeniable, holds that the present tax of 90 cents per gallon is the highest that the conditions of this country permit, that the maximum of revenue is derived from it, and that any considerably higher rate would lead to illicit distillation on a large scale. Of course there will always be disputes on this theoretical point, but there can be none on the point that an additional tax of 20 cents would be a severe and needless blow to many manufacturing industries.

A correspondent asks whether the retaliatory duties levied by President Harrison upon the coffee and hides of Colombia and Venezuela will s and under the Wilson bill. Beyond all doubt they will not, whatever may become of the reciprocity treaties. The duty of any collector of customs will be to enforce the law as he finds it. Under the new tariff, coffee and hides will be admitted free of duty, no matter where they come from, and no power is given the President or anybody else to make any discriminations. The collectors will have no occasion to concern themselves any longer with President Harrison's fulminations, after his warrant of law for issuing them has been destroyed. They will let all that dead past bury itself and collect the duties which the law says they are to collect, and no others.

The Democratic members of the Senate finance committee have at last recovered from their astonishing aberrations of mind on the reciprocity question. They now say that they have never had any doubt that the Wilson bill necessarily destroys the McKinley reciprocity bargains, but that they propose to remove all possible ambiguity on that point by inserting a specific amendment covering the case. This is satisfactory both in itself and as an indication that our lawmakers are not so hopelessly bereft of sense as they sometimes try to make themselves out. No less satisfactory is the decision, now made public, not to insist upon the abrogation of the Hawaiian reciprocity treaty. That was a bona-fide treaty, and in it the United States obtained a valuable consideration—the cession of Pearl Harbor. In return for that we promised the Hawaiians the free admission of their sugar, and if we keep the harbor, we ought to give them what we agreed to pay for it. Moreover, to do so will contribute more to the settlement of the Hawaiian question than all the buncombe speeches that can be packed into a whole set of *Congressional Records*. When the Hawaiians get their sugar free again, while other imported sugar is taxed, their burning republicanism and the immoralities of the Queen should disappear like the early dew, along with their intense desire to be annexed.

The Hawaiian annexationists have scored a great point in getting the "Portuguese colony" to come out strongly for annexation to the United States. This was accomplished in a mass-meeting of that colony held on February 19, when stirring resolutions were passed to that effect. As there are 8,602 Portuguese in the islands, 6,276 of whom cannot read and write, the importance of this accession to the annexation cause will be apparent. But if they are none too literate, they evidently are good patriots, for they also resolved strongly against "the increase of Asiatics" in the islands. As the Asiatics outnumber the Portuguese three to one, and have been in Hawaii, many of them, much longer, the proposal to expel them and to make them register and take out licenses shows how beautifully the principles of majority rule and of human brotherhood are at work in the key of the Pacific. The offensive Asiatics, for their part, held a mass-meeting on February 14, and asserted their right to a continuance of the privileges they had heretofore enjoyed under the Hawaiian Constitution and laws. This, too, is accounted a powerful argument for annexation.

The "balance of trade" in our favor for the past eight months of panic and distress is $218,000,000. Shades of Blaine and substance of McKinley, where is that balance? We know, for they have told us, that such balances are always "paid over," and in "gold." That some $200,000,000 was paid over in 1891, McKinley asserted on his sacred honor, though how it slipped in and who had got it he firmly refused to say. Anyhow it was a great triumph of protection and a crowning proof of the prosperity of the country, showing how exceeding clever we had been to sell the deluded foreigners $200,000,000 more than we had bought of them. But now it seems that hard times are even better than protection to bring about that blessed crippling of our purchasing power. To a mind like McKinley's this must be "significant of much," though to the ordinary mind its principal significance will be that the balance of trade is, as commonly understood, nothing but the balance of nonsense.

Secretary Morton continues to administer the Agricultural Department in an unconventional way which is a constant surprise to the politicians. A practice had grown up of sending scientists and experts employed by the department to the annual meetings and conventions of scientific and agricultural bodies in different parts of the country, whenever their presence was asked, to deliver lectures and read papers on various subjects, their expenses being paid by the Government. Mr. Morton has recently written a letter to the Secretary of the Michigan Dairymen's Association, declining to detail a man from the Agricultural Department to address the body at its meeting in Flint, and giving his reasons for taking this stand. He points out that no provision is made in the statute for the payment of such travelling expenses, and that it is only by indirection that they can be justified. If the secretary has authority to send a man to the Dairymen's Association at

Flint to make a speech or read a paper, he could not refuse similar requests from other agricultural associations. "And tell me," he writes to the Association's secretary, "where the line shall be drawn, and how long, if this practice is continued and grows with the same luxuriance which has characterized its growth in the last three years, it will be before every division in the Department of Agriculture will be filled with vacant chairs of employees who are engaged in lecturing to associations throughout the country, the Government paying their expenses to and from these meetings?"

The abolition of Fast Day in Massachusetts, legally accomplished on Friday, is personally a triumph for ex-Gov. Russell, who first, though unsuccessfully, urged it upon the Legislature. The day had come to be only a pious mockery, in reality nothing but a general holiday masquerading as a time of fasting and prayer. So strong had been the impression of the evil wrought by such insincerity in the name of religion, that many of the more thoughtful religious leaders of the State have for some time advocated making an end of the simulacrum. Its abolition will doubtless seem to many timid souls as little better than a plunge into atheism, but it is really in the interest of religion as well as of common sense and sound ideas of government.

The London *Economist*, which is a very serious paper indeed, is almost alone in the English press in refusing as yet to treat Lord Rosebery as a statesman. It says truly that he is an almost unknown quantity to the British public—that is, much more like our "dark horses" than the British premiers, who generally climb painfully to power through long years in Parliament and many subordinate places, are apt to be. Gladstone had been thirty-seven years in Parliament, and was sixty years old, before he became premier. Disraeli had been thirty-seven years in Parliament, also, and was sixty-nine years old, before he became premier. Peel had been in Parliament thirty-five years, and was fifty-three years old. Palmerston had been forty-eight years in Parliament, and was seventy-one years old. Salisbury had been in the House of Commons fifteen years before he went to the House of Lords, and was fifty-five when he became premier, seventeen years later. But the *Economist* says that "before 1884 Lord Rosebery was practically unknown to the great mass of electors of the United Kingdom." He has had a cabinet position for only two years. He has had little or no opportunity during his life for stating his opinions on the leading questions of the day. Out of this period since 1884—barely ten years — he has lived in seclusion for two years after the death of his wife; so that he has in reality been only eight years before the public, and not in the House of Commons either. The *Economist* says that "Lord Rosebery's opinions are in most cases a matter of conjecture." It says he has done only two things in his life, but has done them both well. The first was his management of the London County Council, in which he contrived to lead the Progressives and yet escape the abuse heaped on them by the Conservatives. The other was getting the premiership. The manner in which he has stepped into Mr. Gladstone's shoes it considers, under the circumstances, "astonishing."

The conclusion the *Economist* draws from all this is that Lord Rosebery possesses in a very high degree the art of political management. He is, it says, what the Americans call a "placater." He "placates" opposing interests as Thurlow Weed used to do. He brings enemies together, and gets them to be friendly out of regard for him, which is all very well as far as it goes, and he has a grand chance for a little "placating" in reconciling the Irish to his rule. But should he now fail, says the *Economist*, to produce good specimens of "constructive political action," his fall will be as rapid as his rise. But it admits that appearances are strongly in his favor.

Public librarians have naturally been interested in the libel suit in which the trustees of the British Museum were lately made defendants, for having on their shelves certain books alleged by certain persons to contain statements damaging to their reputations. The cabled accounts of the decision of the case were somewhat confusing, not to say alarming. The verdict of the jury was, in fact, qualifiedly in favor of the plaintiffs, the findings being that the books were libellous, and that the defendants, though acting in good faith and under statutory powers, had nevertheless failed to exercise proper care and judgment, and were therefore liable in nominal damages. This was dangerous doctrine, involving as it did the duty of the British Museum trustees to maintain a force of 110 legal experts to go through the books and pamphlets and periodicals received each year to make sure that there was no libel in any of them, and imposing, of course, a proportionate burden on other public libraries. But when the case came before Baron Pollock in the Court of Queen's Bench for a review of the law points involved, he made short work of this novel addition to the law of libel. After premising that there was some evidence in the form of the verdict that "the minds of the jury had not been really brought to bear upon the subject submitted to them," he went on to hold that the essential element of publication was entirely wanting. "It never had been suggested that a person should be made liable because there was a book or books upon a shelf in regard to which the owner did not call attention to particular passages." Still less could such a suggestion be made in regard to a body of trustees, acting under the statute and making no profit out of lending books. The baron therefore entered judgment for the defendants with costs. Execution has been stayed pending an appeal, but it seems impossible that any other decision can be reached in any other court.

M. Jannet has been discussing socialism in the French *Correspondant*. He says there are three varieties of it, State socialism, Christian socialism, and real socialism, and that he prefers the last. State socialism, he says, is the most mischievous of all, because, by its promises and legislation, it excites hopes which cannot be realized, and thus engenders the real socialism at the bottom which throws bombs. The same charge may be brought against the Christian socialism, which is pushed by the young clergy of both the Protestant and Catholic churches. This, too, not only excites among the working classes the most extravagant expectations as to what may be done for them by the State, but it preaches that poverty is the consequence of "injustice"; and as injustice must have unjust people behind it, they learn to look on all the well-to-do—that is, on the saving, the industrious, the provident, the energetic and able—as their enemies, who are keeping them out of something that rightfully belongs to them. This myth is kept afloat, too, in spite of the daily demonstrations before their eyes that it is for the most part want of character or intelligence that brings healthy men to poverty. Of seven sons born to the same parents, educated in the same way, given the same advantages, two or three are almost certain to fail or to become "black sheep" and socialists, and howl for a new "law of distribution." M. Jannet comforts us all with the belief that the reign of "collectivism" or State socialism, if it was ever tried, would not last long, because "the day the collectivists got into power the anarchists would be their radicals." But should we then have to try anarchism and bombs before discarding *their* doctrines? The anarchists are just as sincere as the State socialists; their aims are said to be as high; and if we must try every social system before rejecting it, on the strength of what the prophets tell us about it, the bomb system ought to have a chance. The trouble is, that by the time its failure was fully acknowledged, we should all be hiding in the woods, or among the ruins of our houses, *in puris naturalibus*.

THE REFERENDUM.

THE opinions of the judges of the Massachusetts Supreme Court as to the constitutionality of an act referring the question of woman suffrage to the people have, upon several accounts, an interest for the whole country. There were really three questions submitted by the Legislature to the court: first, would it be constitutional, in an act granting to women the right to vote in town and city elections, to provide that such act should take effect when approved by a majority of the voters of the State? second, would it be constitutional to provide that it should take effect in any town or city where a majority of the voters approved it? and third, would it be constitutional if it allowed women themselves to vote upon it? As has been announced, four judges answered no to all three questions, two answered yes to all, and one answered yes to the second question alone. It may be added that all the judges answered on the assumption that the Legislature had the power to ordain woman suffrage at municipal elections of itself; and a bill to that effect is now pending. Hence the question of the referendum was really the issue involved, the extension of the suffrage not materially affecting the logic of the opinions.

It was conceded that the Legislature had power to pass statutes that should become operative upon the happening of a future event, and even to do this when that future event was a popular vote. But a majority of the court held that a *general* law could not be conditionally enacted in this manner, according to the authorities, and they therefore replied to the first question in the negative. As to the second question they felt more difficulty, since from the earliest times laws had been passed which delegated to the inhabitants of towns power to legislate concerning subjects proper for municipal control. Such were especially statutes uniting two towns, limited to take effect upon the approbation of a majority of the voters in both, and statutes of the "local option" class, regulating the sale of intoxicating liquors. But the majority of the judges held that a statute enlarging the franchise did not relate to a subject proper for municipal control. It was clear to them that such an act did not relate to the powers of towns and cities so much as to the determination of the classes to be invested with political power. They argued in support of this view that a very anomalous condition of affairs would result if women were allowed in some communities to vote on questions concerning taxation, while in others they had no voice. They added that the principle of local option had nowhere, to their knowledge, been availed of in any of the States where the suffrage had been conferred upon women.

The opinions of the minority of the judges are very short, and, of course, traverse the proposition that a distinction exists between general and special laws. The general position taken is, that the Legislature of Massachusetts has power to enact any law that it chooses, unless that power is expressly or impliedly withheld from it by the words of the Constitution. Hence, it has power to limit its own acts by making them subject to the approval of the people, since this is not explicitly prohibited. Justice Holmes inclines to think that an act would be constitutional which was made subject to the approval of a single man. However this may be, he regards the doctrine that the approval of the sovereign body cannot be asked by the Legislature as an echo of Hobbes's theory that the surrender of sovereignty by the people was final, and he observes that most of the reasoning by which this view is supported is stated in language which may be traced back to the 'Leviathan.' But "Hobbes urged his notion in the interest of the absolute power of King Charles I., and one of the objects of the Constitution of Massachusetts was to deny it."

The position of the majority is most forcibly suggested in the opinion of Justice Knowlton, who answered two of the questions in the negative. Stated briefly, this position is that our governments consist of distinct bodies, legislative, executive, and judicial, and that it is not consistent with this form of government that these powers should be delegated. The Governor ought not to pardon a convict on condition that the people ratify his act, the judges ought not to put a certain construction on the law provided the people approve it, and the Legislature ought in like manner to be held responsible for the laws it passes. Otherwise it might make all its acts conditional upon popular approval, and we should find ourselves living under a pure democracy. Undoubtedly the representative or expert theory of government has been a good deal damaged of late by the inferiority of the so called representatives of the people in all countries having popular government. But it scarcely admits of doubt that still more unfit men would fill these places if the principle were to be established that the people may require all laws to be submitted to them before they become effective. Few persons would care to employ a physician or a lawyer who, having once taken charge of a case, should leave the determination of the successive steps to be taken to the patient or client. In short, if the principle of the referendum is to be introduced, the theory of representative government must be changed. A legislature that simply proposes laws subject to the approval of another body, is not an unknown institution, and was tried with other experiments at the period of the French Revolution; but such a body can have little weight. The pessimistic view may be correct, that no improvement in the character of our legislators is to be looked for, and in that case we might as well try the referendum; but we are not yet ready to despair.

In this connection we may refer to an essay published by the University of Pennsylvania entitled 'The Referendum in America.' The author, Mr. E. P. Oberholzer, extends the word to the submission of constitutions as well as statutes for ratification by the people. Very good grounds, however, exist for maintaining the distinction which Mr. Oberholzer would ignore. It is true that of late years constitutions have tended to depart from their proper form of bills of rights, or bodies of customs and institutions that are placed outside of the sphere of legislative interference, and have contained a good deal of matter which, owing to the fluctuating character of its relations to popular welfare, should generally be dealt with by statute. Doubtless the inferior work of our legislators has promoted this tendency; but it is still legitimate and desirable to preserve the distinction to which we refer.

In the department of statute law it appears that the Legislature has invoked the assistance of the people in dealing with a multitude of subjects. One of the first subjects to be submitted to the popular vote was the location of the State capital, and other buildings are often placed in accordance with the popular expression of opinion. Laws providing for the collection, borrowing, or expenditure of money are frequently conditioned upon popular approval. It is interesting to note, with reference to the question of woman suffrage, that the Constitution of Wisconsin authorizes the Legislature to enlarge the franchise, but only upon condition that the law providing for the change shall have been approved by a popular majority. It is to be observed, however, that most of the instances under this head arise under constitutional direction, and do not raise the question agitated in Massachusetts.

A wide field is entered upon when the powers of the smaller political bodies, such as counties and towns, are enumerated. We incline to the opinion that only confusion results from the attempt to represent the exercise of direct legislative powers by the people of these communities as illustrating the use of the referendum. Whenever the number of citizens is small, representative government is unnecessary; and when there is no representative government, there is properly no referendum. The term implies that some body having legislative powers relinquishes those powers to some other body. It is an abdication, voluntary or involuntary, on the part of

representatives in favor of the electors. If this is kept in mind, it is evident that a vast deal of half-forgotten lore concerning the difficulty of direct legislation by a democracy will come into use, and will unquestionably be useful. The meddlesome propensity is so strong among men that measures intended to enable them to engage incessantly in the work of legislation can claim no presumption in their favor.

THE NEW LIBEL LAW.

THE full text of the new New York bill about libel for which some of our contemporaries have been agitating so fiercely, was printed on Thursday. It is really a very harmless document. It compels proof of actual malice in order to make libellous the publication of a "fair and true report of any judicial, executive, or other public or official proceeding." It also enables the defendant, in a civil action for libel, to set up in mitigation of damages the fact that he published "a retraction and suitable apology" as soon as his attention was called to the libel, and also that the plaintiff has already recovered damages for the same libel from other parties.

That this makes any change worth mention for the benefit of the newspapers we do not see. A suit against a newspaper for publishing a fair report of judicial, executive, or any other public or official proceedings is almost a thing unknown. The *Evening Post* was once threatened with a libel suit for remarks based on the report of a committee of the Legislature, but the suit was never heard of after the summons was served. We doubt if a verdict for libel has ever been obtained against a publisher for any such reason. Moreover, the present bill simply enables the defendant to offer the retraction and apology, and the damages in another suit, in mitigation of damages in his pleadings. He now always pleads them in his evidence and in the address of his counsel. They are always brought before the jury as mitigating circumstances, and the jury always considers them. The only advantage the defendant obtains from this bill is that of getting the judge to charge them, in addressing the jury; but it is, we believe, a general experience that the judge's exposition of the law in libel suits makes but little impression on the jury. They look at the matter from what Director Ely calls "the broad social standpoint," and consider "its general social effect." We do not, therefore, see what good the proposed legislation will do the press.

Any hardships the newspapers suffer under the present law are due in the main to the prejudices of jurymen. As a rule every jury is prejudiced against the newspaper in a libel suit, because, under the present system of editing, libels are nearly always gross and scandalous attacks on personal character, concocted by careless or mendacious news editors or reporters. The conviction or defeat of an editor for libelling anybody in the discharge of a distinct public duty is rare or unknown. The libels are almost always found in the nasty mess which some of our contemporaries call "news." That they know this, and know that they are engaged in a dirty business, is shown by the care with which they exclude reports of libel suits from their columns. They have entered into a sort of conspiracy against the public, by trying to withhold from it the knowledge that there is redress in the courts for attacks on private character in the shape of the scandalous "fakes" in which some of them indulge. All the courts have such cases on their calendars, and the juries make the defendants smart, but the world outside rarely hears of them. If it did, libel suits would be more frequent.

The kind of law which the press really needs is one which will restore the respect of juries for the newspapers. This is now absolutely dead. The "pictures," instead of restoring it, have added to the stock of contempt which nearly every intelligent man feels for them. They all go before jurymen with a heavy load of prejudice to overcome. Nearly every jury contains a man whom they have annoyed, disgusted, or outraged, and he feels a fierce joy in having a publisher at last under his hand. Nobody wants the libel law changed for the publishers' benefit. Most people would like to have it made more stringent. Here is the trouble. There has probably no change occurred in the modern world so great as the change in the public feeling towards the press within the present century. Fifty years ago everybody hailed it as a wonderful addition to the instruments of civilization and enlightenment. This feeling is totally changed, and not a few even go about asking whether our civilization can resist it. The indictment of his own press that M. Brunetière, the editor of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, made the other day before the French Academy, was a very mild description of ours. Ignorance and frivolity are the vices of the French press of to-day, to which a portion of ours, in the estimation of our own public, adds salaciousness and silliness. One hears this everywhere if there are no reporters present; and to be sure of their absence, one has to look under the table and in the china closet. A swarm of young men is being trained up all over the country to consider prying and lying and distorting creditable professional pursuits if any fun can be got out of them.

It is this state of public feeling that ails the newspaper publishers, and not the state of the law of libel. Ever since the Shipley case, the law of libel has never hurt any writer or editor. It is the feeling of the juries about his business which hurts him. They take the law into their own hands, no matter what the statute says or the judge says, and they make the dirty gossip smart whether he is malicious or not.

MACHINE GOVERNMENT.

IT is a long time since a Governor of New York has been confronted with such an indictment as the Civil-Service Reform Association of this city has brought against Gov. Flower for his performances with the civil-service law of the State. They charge that he has failed to take care that the law be faithfully executed; that he has himself violated it, and that he has connived at its violation by others. Each of these charges is sustained by an overwhelming mass of evidence taken from official records, and is proved so conclusively as to leave no reasonable doubt of the Governor's guilt.

In support of the charge that he has not taken care to have the law faithfully executed, it is shown that on the first of June, 1893, there were 146 persons illegally holding office in the State service, having been appointed without the examination prescribed by the civil-service rules, and that seventy-eight of these had been appointed during Gov. Flower's administration. It is also shown that these seventy-eight positions constitute 45 per cent. of all the positions in the departments in which they exist that come within the competitive examinations in their class. In support of the charges that the Governor has himself violated the law and connived at its violation by others, it is shown that he has not prepared and caused to be enforced rules providing for competitive examinations; that he has, on the contrary, removed and permitted to be removed from the schedule requiring competitive examinations sixty-nine positions which had been in it for years; that after the State Civil-Service Commission had refused to exempt certain positions from examination, including all of the fifty employees of the Dairy Commission, the Governor personally ordered the exemption, thus being guilty "not only of a marked violation of the provisions of the law, but also of an abuse of authority"; that in consequence of the announced purpose of Mr. Roberts, after his election to the comptrollership in November last, to refuse to pay salaries to persons who held positions in the service in violation of the civil-service act, the Governor has transferred thirty-four employees from the competitive schedule to the exempt and non-competitive schedules, in order thus to legalize their appointments and enable them to draw their salaries.

These are only a portion of the specifications with which the charges are sustained, but they give a correct idea

of the whole, since they show on the part of the Governor an almost utter absence of any desire to enforce the law. The association, in summing up the case, declared that, "except in the State hospitals and a few minor institutions, the civil-service act has been practically nullified," and that the "violations of the law during Gov. Flower's term of office have taken place with his full knowledge and consent."

These charges, which the judiciary committee of the Senate are to consider, throw a flood of light upon the kind of government which has been administered at Albany since the advent of Hill in January, 1885. Gov. Flower has simply been carrying forward the system which Hill organized and set in motion, and which is, in a word, government by the machine for the benefit of the machine. Nothing is more hateful to the Hills, Murphys, Sheehans, and Flowers than a civil-service law, and they have never been able to look upon it in any other light than as a law to be got around. They "beat it," as their phrase is, whenever they are able to do so, and when that is not possible they violate it directly. It has been shown during the past few weeks that not only has the State service been filled with machine followers in defiance of the civil-service law, but that the number of places has been greatly increased, and that the cost to the State has been steadily and rapidly rising, not merely because of additional salaries, but because of extravagant and more or less illegal expenses which unscrupulous officials have been incurring by straining the provisions of the law.

If we ever get at the full truth about the workings of these eight or nine years of machine rule, we shall have a revelation which will astonish the public scarcely less than did the developments of McKaneism at Gravesend, of Murphyism at Troy, and of Sheehanism at Buffalo. It is absurd to believe that the Hills, Crokers, Murphys, McKanes, Sheehans, and Divvers, whose political methods are found on examination to be criminal, can, when they are trusted with administrative offices, produce a kind of government which is different in its essential characteristics from their politics. Men who nominate Maynards for the bench, and whose methods in political contests lead to the commission of crime, including murder, cannot be expected when in office to have any regard for law, or any nice scruples about the use of public office or of public funds.

AMERICANS AT THE ENGLISH UNIVERSITIES.

CHICAGO, March 10, 1894.

THE army of American students who annually invade the universities of Europe bring home strong impressions and publish them. That they make some impression in return is seldom recorded so directly as it was in Cambridge, Eng., on February 15, when the Senate of the University discussed the report of the council on post-graduate study. The proposal made by the council was that graduates of certain recognized universities, foreign as well as English, should be eligible, after matriculation and three terms of residence in Cambridge, to the degree of Bachelor of Letters or Bachelor of Science, on presentation of a dissertation. The debate on this apparently innocent proposition was shared in by some of the most prominent men of the university, and its tenor was particularly interesting to Americans, for the wandering American graduate has clearly much to do with the disturbance. His objection to entering the university where he would be received only as an undergraduate was pointed out by Dr. Lawrence, lately of the University of Chicago. Dr. Sidgwick (as quoted in the *University Reporter* for February 20) stated that "the demand for facilities for post-graduate study had come mainly from Americans, and therefore they were primarily present to his mind." Dr. Jackson added his testimony: "He received a good number of visits from American students passing through England. . . . Such students never thought of staying to study at Cambridge, because they could get no recognition."

Now, the practical question involved can have but small issue for us, for it is improbable that any change so great as this will be made in Cambridge ways in time to affect any one now living. But while the Cambridge Senate are debating, with some naïveté, whether or not the proposed bachelor's degree would satisfy the student from abroad who has one already by hypothesis, and whether the ignorant world would not imagine that the "Litt.B." and "Sc.B." implied not only as much proficiency but as much residence in Cambridge as the old B.A., it is worth while to notice that the conception of graduate study, of the work of the seminar, is associated in the minds of Cambridge men with foreign students mainly. It is often said in explanation that England, by the pursuit of a literary ideal in education, has cut herself off from the stream of progress which finds its true outlet in the minute scientific methods of the Germans. Thus the fact that so few foreign students find their way into Cambridge and Oxford is certainly related to the fact that so few monographs find their way out. This, it is said, is the reason that, while the Leipzig student is eagerly scanning the horizon for a new thesis, the gallant young army of Cambridge first-class men are marking time, with great flourish of trumpets and every splendor of equipment, after having brilliantly captured the same strongholds in the way of examination that have been as brilliantly captured a hundred times before.

Such, I believe, is the popular view of the case, but scholars know better. No one can seriously assert that the demand for exact knowledge, for a scientific basis on which the æsthetic superstructure may rest, has not been felt as deeply in England as in the rest of the world. It has been responded to by the stream of publications from the university presses, and by the methods of teaching in schools and colleges. On the other hand, the charge of pursuing a literary ideal cannot be fastened on the English educational methods of to-day. It is the fashion in Cambridge as much as anywhere else to prize an author's language above his meaning. Although the English are a literary race, and it is as natural to the ordinary Englishman, with his strong sense of decency in all things, to express himself well as it is to a German to express himself ill, still I should be sorry to think that a system of classical education anywhere could be conducted with less conscious literary purpose than in Cambridge. If it be objected that, after all, more of the graduates of Cambridge turn to literature than of Berlin, the reply is obvious, that if the Germans were sent to Cambridge and the Englishmen to Berlin, the case would be reversed. It is a question of race, not of education. A sheep and a cow may live in the same pasture, but in the one case the grass will ultimately become mutton, and in the other beef. The writing of Greek and Latin verse, which has had much to do with fixing the stigma of "literary" on English methods, is far from having a pure literary aim. When Prof. Jebb points out in lecture that the emendation proposed by a learned German for a line of Sophocles involves a false quantity, the class laughs with a comfortable sense of safety from such slips. It is to achieve this sense of safety, this practical, every-day knowledge of an important and difficult part of the science of the classical languages, that the English student laboriously learns to turn out Greek and Latin verses. But the theory that England's secondary place as an educator is due to a literary bias can in any case apply only to the study of language. In natural science or mathematics whatever work is done must be scientific. Yet it is as true in these departments as in language that the monographs come chiefly from Germany, and that American students go to Germany to learn to produce them.

It is plain, then, that we must look for another reason why England so completely consumes her own educational products. It is, of course, known to every one that English education to-day is governed by an elaborate system of examination, chiefly competitive. Any boy who is going to enter one of the universities, or the army, or the civil service, or a learned profession, is taken possession of by the system from childhood. No one, I think, who has not lived in the midst of its workings can appreciate its effect upon individual students and thus on the whole mass of scholarship. A boy comes up to Cambridge from school when he is about eighteen. He has already chosen his specialty, which will be mathematics if he wishes to enjoy the flower of what Cambridge has to offer, and he has been working at it almost exclusively since he was fourteen. He has become inured to examination already by competing for prizes and scholarships, and his mind has begun to exhibit some of the traits characteristic of the examinee. He is methodical, economical of his time and his tissues, selects for acquirement the facts and ideas that will pay, and then masters them absolutely. His "little-go" once passed, he need never know any more of anything but mathematics. Thus he enters upon the three years' race in perfect training and determined to win. The life of a reading man at an American or German university may perhaps be summarily dismissed by his biographer, for the chief incidents in it are his mental experiences, and his ability as compared with that of other men is gauged, as it is in the world of affairs, by general impression. When he takes his degree, he is perhaps subjected to a formal classification, but this is generally absolute, without reference to other people. In the case of the Cambridge man, on the other hand, the inward life is overshadowed by another of the greatest externality. His career is a drama, depending on the dénoue-

ment of tripos to make it tragedy or comedy, and freely commented on by the spectators, his acquaintance. By the end of his second year he has pretty well covered the ground of the subjects required for tripos, and the third year is devoted chiefly to revision and trial papers.

This third year is crucial. The student's daily successes or failures are momentous to him and his coach. Dangers are manifold without and within. In the first place, it sometimes happens that, in the strain of this part of the race, the boy outgrows the brilliant precocity which put him ahead of his rivals, and emerges merely an ordinary young man with no further possibilities of use. This disaster is technically known as "going stale," and its symptoms are as marked as those of a physical collapse. Another danger is that, as the man grows up, his brains may be too strong for his will. It must be borne in mind that reading for tripos implies monastic obedience. The student's business is to master what is set before him; the responsibility of selection lies with the coach. The satisfaction of intellectual curiosity must be postponed by any one who has a mind to be a wrangler. To revel in elliptic functions when he ought to be binding his soul to rigid dynamics, is as disastrous as any of the more ordinary forms of riotous living. All these struggles and difficulties may lie in the path of a man who yet has all his heart in mathematics; but the imagination goes on to the case of one who finds he is in for the wrong tripos. A man who has engaged himself to marry the wrong woman is in a comparable dilemma.

However, the third year draws to its close and the crisis approaches. Lucretius, who thought it agreeable to watch the storm-tossed mariner from the shore and the battle from a place of safety, would have found it to his taste to spend a May term in Cambridge, a free man himself but walking with comrades about to go down into the arena of tripos. The reading of the mathematical lists is one of the most instructive spectacles that can come under the foreigner's notice in England. When he bears in mind the nature of the test on which so much depends, that the accident of a headache or disturbing news may outweigh the faithful and successful work of years, that it is by no means certain the best man will be senior wrangler, he cannot but wonder to see how the national sporting instinct has contrived to make the most serious business in life its minister. The senior wrangler's name is telegraphed in all directions, and in twenty minutes he is being talked about throughout the United Kingdom. His success exhibits the combination of pluck and luck so dear to Englishmen, and his little brother at school secretly resolves with swelling breast to do the same when his day comes.

Such is the drama of Cambridge life as it affects the individual. It is a story of adventure, of heroic achievement, of great risk taken, of the possible intervention of chance, and of well-defined success or failure. This sort of story may be told of the lives of soldiers and brokers, actors and war correspondents. It is not unique as a human experience, but when we reflect that it is also a system of education, it seems so remarkable that we cannot help looking to its results and inquiring why it is that the rest of the story may often be told in a sentence: "So he received a fellowship from his grateful college, and lived happy ever after."

The last ten years of a tripos candidate's life have been spent in preparing for examination. There has been no time in that period when he has not had a definite job before him and some one to see that he did it. After tripos this state of things is done away with. It is true he may spend another year in preparing for the "second part," and if he likes he can go in for a series of examinations at the hands of the University of London. But after these are disposed of there is absolutely nothing in the way of examination left for him in this world. If he is to go on with his reading, it must be from those motives of curiosity which he has been diligently treading under foot. To a certain sort of English mind a man who has stood high among the wranglers has attained as definite a place in the intellectual hierarchy as a captain has in her Majesty's service. If he should never do anything more, he will still be held to have done much. His training has confirmed his natural tendency to love an outward visible sign, and a future of self-culture and inconspicuous work looks colorless to him. In this frame of mind it is the most natural thing in the world that he should turn to the fashioning of other wranglers. The profession of coaching is creditable and lucrative. It gives play to the sporting instinct, and furnishes palpable annual signs of success or failure according to the places one's men get in tripos. It is full of human interest and patent usefulness. To this life, then, are attracted the mass of able, persevering, unimaginative young men who, in Germany, would just as naturally fall to the production of monographs.

The more gifted men, those who have been more ridden by interest in their subject for its own sake, who have not ranged themselves so unequivocally on the winning side in the great match of Tripos vs. Curiosity, might perhaps be expected to free themselves from the effect of the system when they are once free of the system itself. But in their case a subtler influence is brought to bear. The first thing that strikes a foreigner in the English system is the preponderance of technique over wide reading. The subjects set for the first part of the mathematical tripos, for instance, are not extraordinarily high or difficult. The "easier parts" of rigid dynamics, solid analytical geometry, and differential equations are the boundary. A foreigner ventures to wonder at first how they manage to put three years' work into such a curriculum; but his wonder becomes admiration when he sees the ideal of dexterity which they propose to themselves. To master the theories of the subjects is the least part of the work. This is briefly and thoroughly done, and then comes the real business of preparing for tripos, the indefatigable solution of problems. The result of this limitation is that what the student knows he knows with absolute certitude, and consequently he is shy of stepping upon ground less firm. The high finish of his training, the standard of perfection which he has been taught to look to, makes any tentative work seem unworthy of such a preface. He does not feel that he has grasped a subject until he has brought his knowledge of it up to examination standard, and at that rate life is not long enough to permit him to traverse the region of the known and reach the frontier of original work. So this sort of man, too, takes to coaching to earn his living, and spends his life in reading his subject, but produces no monographs.

There is left for consideration the class in whom the impulse to produce is irresistible. When these are men of genius, their case need not be discussed. It makes no real difference where or how Prof. Cayley or Prof. Jebb was educated. But there are plenty of men of talent who find expression necessary, as is shown by the constant publication of educational works. It is these works, the admirable mathematical text-books and class-room editions of classical authors and the seductive introductions to science, that chiefly occupy the productive among English scholars. But these books, with all their ability, are mostly written in the spirit of examination and for the ends of examination—not for the world, but for Oxford and Cambridge. One answer, then, to the query, "Where are the English monographers?" will be: "They are translating Aristotle for the Oxford classmen, or preparing inscriptions for the digestion of candidates for Section E, Part II., of the classical tripos."

It is obvious that this preoccupation with its own means and ends makes an English university outwardly inhospitable to the stray foreigner with ends of his own. He is not preparing for an examination, and therefore he has no status. But if he be only determined enough to use the vale of misery for a well, he will find that the spirit of the place as it acts on him is beneficial, for it gives him a new ideal of zeal in harness, a new impulse towards perfection of detail, and a new conviction that the best is good enough for him. An Englishman, then, has as marked a taste for scientific exactitude as a German and as much industry in gratifying it, but he has chosen to make both subservient to artificial ends. He breaks forth into criticisms of these ends from time to time, and when he lays them aside, as some day he must, the Americans will come to work with him, whatever degree he gives them; and lucidity and permanent worth, expressed on opaque paper, will predominate even on the specialist's book-shelf.

EMILY JAMES SMITH.

THE TRADE BETWEEN SICILY AND THE UNITED STATES.

ITALY, March 4, 1894.

WHILE the Government is doing its level best to excogitate methods of economy and, alas, of fresh taxation for the year's budget, which shows 177 millions of deficit, the agricultural and industrial classes are wisely setting themselves to the too long neglected task of striving to reduce the cost of production so as to compete with foreign producers and to reach foreign markets without the intervention of speculators and middlemen. The fresh crisis which has overtaken Sicilian sulphur, after barely two years' respite, has alarmed all those concerned in an industry in which Italy hitherto has maintained her supremacy. Continental and insular Italy furnishes 80-100 of all the sulphur used in the world for agricultural and industrial purposes. Of this quantity Sicily produces 94-100 of the whole, and is the only province which exports mineral sulphur in the rough, *i. e.*, as soon as it is, by smelting or fusing, separated from the ore. The sulphur found in other parts of Italy, especially in Romagna, is refined on the spot (as is some portion at Catania) and sold in "flour," in "rolls," or in "cakes," or simply ground; but Sicily exports some 300,000 tons annually, and the United States have been for some years importers of about one-third of the whole. The expenses of extracting, smelting, and exporting the article are so great that mines are often worked at a loss—indeed, the cultivators say that they cannot really work at a profit unless the price on board in their

ports reaches ninety-one lire. Prices have stimulated the invention of chemical processes for the extraction of sulphur from pyrites of iron and copper and from other matter to such an extent that, as early as 1873, Signor Sella intrusted Lorenzo Parodi with the mission of studying the entire question—the cost of producing mineral sulphur, the amount of pyrites in the market, and the amount used in the preparation of sulphuric acid. Parodi's report, which fills a volume of 300 pages, resulted in the statement that unless, by the reduction or abolition of the tax on exportation and of royalties, the amelioration of the wasteful systems of smelting, the extraction of the ore by other than hand labor, as costly as it is cruel, the Sicilians could bring down the price of sulphur to seventy-five lire per ton of 1,000 kilogrammes, they would lose the American market assuredly and most of the European markets also.

This prophecy was made just twenty years since. The tax on exportation still remains; the methods of smelting have been improved, but the price of the kilns renders their general use impossible; the proprietors of the under soil still retain rights which in continental Italy belong to the State; the child-laborers increase annually; and if the sulphur trade survives, it is owing to a few factors which could not enter into Parodi's calculations in 1873. The chief of these are the increase in the planting of vineyards, the increase of vine diseases, and the enormous proportions which the preparation of sulphuric acid has attained in the United States. Signor Conti, director-in-chief of Italian mines, made a calculation that, of all the sulphur produced, about 40 per cent. is used in agriculture for diseases of the vines and of cattle; 60 per cent. in industrial operations. The United States, which manufactured only 40,000 tons of sulphuric acid in 1865, now make 580,000 tons, of which it appears that 53 100 is employed in the refinement of petroleum, 35-100 in the treatment of phosphates, 12-100 in other uses of industrial chemistry. For the first two items the pure acid is not required, so it is chiefly extracted from pyrites, of which the States produce 107,000 and import 210,000 tons, consuming in 1892 317,000 tons—thirty-four times the quantity consumed in 1881. Still, the importation of sulphur did not decrease until 1891, the year in which the price rose so high that the cultivators deluded themselves with the fond hope that their woes were at an end, and that Sicilian sulphur could hold its own against all odds. Many mines which produce poor sulphur, or, rather, mineral in which the proportion of the sulphur to the ore is low, were reopened; the number of hands employed rose from twenty-five and twenty-seven to thirty-three thousand in 1892. Calculating a family of miners at four each, adding the numbers of carters, conveyors to the ports, stevedores, etc., we have at the lowest figures some 200,000 of the poor engaged in the sulphur trade. Hence the vast importance for all to secure fresh markets and to preserve their old customers.

The United States in 1861 imported 14,000 tons (of 1,000 kilogrammes); 41,000 tons in 1871; 99,000 in 1881, in which year the price of sulphur on its arrival in America was 180 lire per ton. In 1886 sulphur cost only 100 lire per ton, yet the importation amounted to only 84,000 tons. Then it increased steadily to 134,000 in 1888, to 114,000 in 1889, to 109,000 in 1890. We have no figures for later years of the cost of sulphur on its arrival in the United States, but the extraordinary difference of prices at the Sicilian ports is shown by the following figures for the last twenty-two years (1870 to 1892): In 1870 the price was 120 lire, then 128, 126, 126, 142, 141, 120, 100, 99, 97, 100, 115, 105, 95, 89, 83, 76, 69, 66, 65; in 1890, 77. This was supposed to be the last year of the crisis, and that year the United States imported 109,000 tons. In 1891 the price rose from 77 lire to 112, the United States importing 101,500 tons. In 1892 the price fell to 95 lire, the United States importing 89,500 tons. For 1893 we have not yet the official figures, either of production, importation, or prices, but the cultivators say that the price has fallen 40 per cent., and that, with the exception of the wealthy mines—especially those cultivated by the owners of the under soil, whose exemption from paying royalties enables them to expend their capital in machines for pumping, for the extraction of the material, and on the best kilns for smelting the sulphur—the greater number of mines are worked at a loss, and continue operations only to keep the mines free from water, trusting to better times.

The agitation is now at its height. The *Giornale di Sicilia* has opened its columns to all the competent authorities. The miners themselves, before the dissolution of the Fasci, held an orderly and efficient congress last November. Their demands were for the abolition of royalties, and their temporary reduction to 10 per cent., whereas now they amount to from 20 to 35, the average being 22 per cent. of the *gross* produce, whereas the official report for 1890 showed that, the cost of production being deducted from the selling price, the owners of the under soil received 53 per cent. of the net gains; the cultivators or tenants only 47. Again, the miners demanded the abolition of the infamous truck system, which in many mines binds them to receive a large portion of their wages when, where, and how the masters please. They insisted that the age of children who, allowed to work under ground, are subjected to the torture of bringing up on their backs by steep, irregular steps from thirty-five to sixty kilos of the mineral, should be raised to fourteen. They demanded that the *cassa* (the oblong heap of mineral which they land at the mouth of the pit) should be of the same size throughout Sicily. When an eight-hours' day was proposed, they objected, as they work by the job rarely if ever eight consecutive hours down in the mines, and when prices are low very rarely five days in the week.

The cultivators, whether owners or tenants, at first demanded the abolition of the tax on exportation, which amounts to about one-sixteenth of the whole cost of production. Then suddenly a new current set in. The majority affirmed that this reduction would cause great loss to the State, and would benefit only speculators, who play at raising or lowering the prices, and the foreign purchaser. Many went so far as to demand an extra half-lira per ton to be devoted to the opening of general warehouses. Some demand a syndicate or sulphur trust; others, that the State purchase all the sulphur and fix the price per annum. The one opponent of these schemes is the Marquis of San Giuliano, who was under-secretary for agriculture and commerce during the late Giolitti ministry, and he founds his objections precisely on the fact of the immense importance of the importation of the United States. Long since, in 1888, Signor Conti showed that, though hitherto they have imported all the pure sulphur required chiefly from Italy, and in small quantities from Japan and Spain, there are sulphur mines and indications of them in Louisiana and in Utah. San Giuliano barely alludes to their existence; what he fears is that, unless the price of sulphur is lowered, the go-ahead Republicans will invent new processes for purifying pyrites, and possibly find some better substitute. While approving the opening of general warehouses, he does not believe in the possibility of a syndicate, or the feasibility of inducing all the producers to sell their sulphur to the Trust. Neither does he favor artificial measures for raising the price of sulphur and keeping it at a given price. Whether the State can now abolish the entire duty he does not say, but he insists that it shall at once be abolished *on all the sulphur exported to the United States.* The cost of production he puts, in common with most experts, at 61 lire 90 centimes; by removing the tax there would be a clear gain of 16 lire. But no one seems to understand the uses to which the pure sulphur is put in the United States; hence it is difficult to see how the exporters are to conduct their trade so as to retain the market.

In more departments than sulphur the United States are important factors in the prosperity of Italy and especially of Sicily. Ten years ago the prices of green fruit (oranges, lemons, citrons) imported chiefly from Sicily to the United States, ran so high that the planting of *agrumeti* was regarded as one of the most profitable speculations. As late as 1879 the price per quintal (100 kilos) was 27 lire; in 1887 it had fallen to 18 lire; last year lemon and orange producers were grateful for 12 and thankful for 9 lire. Sicily in 1892 possessed 10,714,342 "green fruit" trees, yielding some one hundred million of oranges, a billion and a quarter of lemons, besides mandarin oranges, citrons, limes, etc. American importation has not yet decreased in quantity, as the following table proves:

Year	Cases of oranges.	Cases of lemons.
1873	737,551	454,035
1883	1,448,057	1,544,220
1892	545,292	2,268,702
1893	1,061,624	2,595,901

"It's the price that kills," say the proprietors. Then the question arises, What does the price depend on? As far as oranges are concerned, probably the competition of home production in Florida and California explains it in part. But we were told, when in Sicily, that the fault lies in great part with the producers, who, since the disease has attacked their plants, have not taken sufficient precautions for its cure, and are also too careless in packing the fruit for export. This complaint was made not long since in Liverpool, where the merchants allege that whole boxes arrived rotten and had to be thrown away. This comes again from the system of middlemen, which is the curse of Sicily. The proprietors sell their fruit to the highest bidder, who sends men to pluck it, contracts for the wrapping, packing, and carting to the nearest station. Now, if the proprietors were themselves to employ the women who wrap and pack, with close supervision so that no fruit damaged by *pidocchi* or other malady, or bruised, be despatched, the higher price for perfect fruit would more than compensate the additional outlay and trouble. No sacrifice can be too great to secure the future of this agricultural product, which, after wine, is the chief, Sicily yielding nine-tenths of all the green fruit grown in Italy. The diseases (*cagna* and *gomma*) which affected the orange and lemon trees in former years were overcome by grafting the plants at the trunk with the bitter Seville orange; but the new distemper, *mitilaspis florescens*, affecting the lemon plant and fruit, seems more difficult to cope with. The lemons affected get brown and shrunken, and although the quality of the fruit is not spoiled, foreign importers object

to receive them. The exportation to Austria is on the increase since the abolition by the treaty of 1888 of the entrance duty. The half million of cases exported to Trieste in 1879 increased to one million in 1892; but all Europe does not offer so large a market as did the United States, which have also lessened their demand for sumac, owing, it is said, to a new process of tanning discovered in Philadelphia.

J. W. M.

PAILLERON'S "CABOTINS."

PARIS, February 28, 1894.

"CABOTINS" was a very suggestive title to choose, and it gave great hopes to all the friends of M. Pailleron, the fortunate author of "Le Monde où l'on s'ennuie," which has been played, I believe, already more than three hundred times. But what is really the meaning of "cabotin"? It is a slang word which was first used for a bad actor, vain and mediocre. We even often say, for short, "cabot," instead of "cabotin." There was once at the Odéon an actor of this sort, called Bocage, who played in tragedy; he had come out after the Revolution of 1848 as a great Republican, and made his appearance at public meetings, where he discoursed upon politics. One evening he was hissed at the Odéon by some students; he advanced majestically towards the front of the stage and asked, "Are these hisses addressed to the actor or to the citizen?" "Neither," said a student; "to the *cabotin*." Bocage was answered and asked no more questions.

The word has since been applied by extension to all charlatans, to all those who live on shams. The field is large, too large for a satirist; you will find the *cabotin*, taken in this sense, in all ranks in society. The professor in "Le Monde où l'on s'ennuie" who delivers philosophical discourses to an admiring circle of ladies, and whose real desire is to carve his way in the world, to get places and honors, and to find a rich wife, is no better than a *cabotin*. He makes spiritualistic speeches and talks of pure love, but he becomes very materialistic in his love affairs. We can find the spirit of "cabotinage" (for the word *cabotin* has engendered this last word) even in the Church. If you should go during Lent to hear the fashionable preachers, you would often be shocked at the amount of worldliness which is mixed with devotion and piety. Need I mention the political *cabotin?* We speak no longer of statesmen, we speak of politicians; and what is a politician? He is a political charlatan, a *cabotin*.

The genus is very large, the number of species is endless. It was a bold attempt on M. Pailleron's part to attempt a theatrical satire on the general charlatanism of the time. He was evidently led to it by the success of "Le Monde où l'on s'ennuie," a mild attack on a certain sort of charlatanism which is found in Paris in a certain number of academical salons. If he had had in him the spirit of Aristophanes, he would have boldly put political charlatanism on the stage, and models would not have been wanting; he did not dare to do it, and it is perhaps well that he did not, for the task would have been beyond his powers. Pailleron has, in his "Cabotins," kept, if not to the academical world, at least to its frontier. He presents us a foolish old man, whose chief ambition is to be made a free member of the Institute. *M. de Laversée* has a wife, who holds a salon, where her pleasure is to receive indiscriminately all the celebrities, all the rising stars—artists, writers, politicians. She has a large fortune and no children. Such a princess must have a sort of maid of honor, a *dame de compagnie;* she has educated a poor girl and spoiled her by accustoming her to a life of pleasure, of agitation, of absolute worldliness. (Mlle. Marsy plays the part of the girl, and Mlle. Brandès the part of *Madame de Laversée.*) One day, they go together to the Salon, with a great following, as usual, of artists. *Valentine* (Mlle. Marsy) stops before a statue, and declares that it ought to have the medal of honor. The statue is the work of an unknown young sculptor who is meditating before his own work; he hears the interjection and the prophecy of the handsome *Valentine*, and naturally finds her very fascinating. He does not know who she is, but he falls in love at once (what we call the *coup de foudre*).

We see him in the first act in his studio, working from memory at a bust of the unknown *Valentine*. He is unhappy, he is poor, he is in debt. An old *brocanteur* comes to see him, naturally a Jew, well known to all the young artists, who has read in *Figaro* an article on the statue of our young sculptor *Pierre Cardevent*, and he knows that *Cardevent* will probably have a medal. He tempts him with money, and finally succeeds in buying his statue at a very small price. The atelier is filled by degrees with the friends of the sculptor—artists, writers, journalists; they all come from the South, they are members of a mutual-admiration society, the "Marmite," and have periodical dinners.

There is not much invention in this episode of the "vie de Bohême." I doubt if the modern ateliers present many types such as those which were delineated by Henri Mürger. The gayety of the friends of *Cardevent* is somewhat vulgar; they are noisy, and they are not really young; they are sceptics, even cynics, and their cynicism is all the more marked in that *Cardevent* himself is represented as very sentimental, ingenuous, and high-minded. The most exuberant of these young men of the Midi is *Pégomas;* he is a journalist who intends to become a Deputy. (This part is admirably played by Féraudy.) He is a mixture of *Rabagas*, of Tartarin, and of the many types of meridionals which Daudet has so well described—men who are overflowing with animal spirits, shrewd at the same time and exuberant, cautious and extravagant, full of life, of cold passion, of apparent faith, actors and *cabotins par excellence*. Féraudy's part is the best in the new play, and without *Pégomas* the "Cabotins" would be like "Hamlet" without the Prince. *Pégomas*, with his violent gestures, his way of buttoning his coat at the moment of great outbursts of eloquence, of throwing his head backwards, with the sonorous ring of his phrases and his strong Southern accent, forcibly reminded me of Gambetta. But he becomes Gambetta only in the second act; in the first act, he is still a mere journalist who wants to become the secretary of *Laversée*, and he has promised to make his employer not only a member of the Institute, but a Deputy.

Laversée, his wife, and the beautiful *Valentine*, with the gentlemen-in-waiting of *Mme. de Laversée*, visit *Cardevent* in his studio, to compliment him on his *médaille d'honneur*. His friends of the Marmite form a great procession in the studio, with palms in their hands. *Cardevent* is now a great man. Reporters come from all sides to ask for details about his age, his birthplace, etc.; they want his photograph. But *Cardevent* has but one thought: he has recognized in *Valentine* the object of his secret love; she has seen also the bust which he made of her from memory. She is prepared to fall in love with him. *Pégomas* seizes his opportunity and *Laversée* accepts him as his secretary. From this moment *Pégomas* becomes the leading character of the play; from this moment, also, the piece subdivides itself into two: a sort of vaudeville, which never rises to the dignity of a comedy, but often falls into the vulgarity of a farce of the Palais Royal or of the Bouffes, is intermingled with a sentimental drama (or rather melodrama) of the Porte St.-Martin. The transitions are often wanting: we are expected to laugh, and immediately afterwards we are expected to cry.

M. Pailleron has several times attempted to touch the sentimental chord of the human heart, but he has generally failed. The natural bent of his character and of his talent is not in that direction; he is much happier when he follows the impulse of his natural gayety. The heroes of the drama which is interwoven in the "Cabotins" are the young *Valentine* and the sculptor *Cardevent*. The penniless girl who has been brought up in the drawing-room of the *Laversées* has been a great flirt; young men speak to her with extraordinary freedom; she is very imprudent—but she is good and honest at heart, and when she falls in love with *Cardevent*, she is thoroughly changed and becomes very earnest. *Cardevent* is a model of all the virtues, though he lives surrounded by the *cabotins* of the Marmite. He is madly in love with *Valentine*, but he is a good and obedient son, and his mother, a nice old peasant of the South, has very strict notions, and she refuses her consent to the marriage of her son with *Valentine*, because *Valentine* is a natural child.

Madame Laversée has always been jealous of the beauty and success of her lady-in-waiting. She has a lover, a *cabotin* doctor, who follows her everywhere, and one day she finds this impudent doctor making a declaration to *Valentine*. *Valentine* despises the doctor, but she has no time to explain. *Madame Laversée* turns her out of her house. Where shall she go? To the virtuous young sculptor's house, of course, and she asks the sculptor's mother to take her with her to the South. After a decent term of probation, the mother gives her consent to her son's marriage with the unfortunate *Valentine*.

This rather commonplace drama is involved, as I have said, with a vaudeville which at times becomes a political satire, for the object of *Laversée* is to become a member of the Institute, and *Pégomas*, his secretary, has proved that the best way for him to reach the Institute is to be first made a Deputy. *Pégomas* has his own project; he does all the canvassing for the foolish old *Laversée*, he writes his speeches, he sends articles to the newspapers, he gives prizes, he inaugurates public buildings. He goes in person to the South, to the department where *Laversée* is a candidate, and he does so well that his compatriots, seeing only him, hearing only him, delighted with his inexhaustible eloquence, finally choose him as their candidate. Who can resist the dictates of universal suffrage? *Laversée* is angry at first, for he has given all the money for the campaign; but *Pégomas* is so lucky that a place becomes vacant in the Institute, and he sees that it shall be given to *Laversée*. *Laversée* will now be buried under the green palms of the Institute, and *Pégomas*, the great *Pégomas*, will go to the Chamber and astonish the world, as he has already astonished his compatriots, by his eloquence, his wit, and

has practised statesmanship. He will probably become a minister, and, as such, he will preside at a banquet of the Marmite.

Correspondence.

THE DUTY ON COAL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your statement in this week's *Nation* that "The duty on coal . . . affects only a corner of New England" seems not to be correct. In this battle we must "speak by the card," and the facts are that, in the last four years, the States on the Pacific Coast imported about four times as much coal from British Columbia, etc., as was imported by New England from Nova Scotia.

Yours truly, Edwin Brainard.

Chicago, March 16, 1894.

UNIVERSITY WOMEN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am glad to see an answer to your correspondent "M. F. K.'s" rather extraordinary letter entitled "Women in German Universities." Women, oftentimes young girls needing chaperones, will go to lectures; they have more leisure than men, and they attend lectures wherever lectures are to be had, largely for that reason. But it is only misleading to confuse such ladies with bona-fide women students—women whose names are either regularly borne on the college books, or are working under definite business relations with particular professors.

I have had considerable experience of advanced education for women, both in this country and in Europe, and I have never heard of any unbecoming or giddy conduct, except the *cause célèbre* in Leipzig some years ago. If any criticism should be made, I would say that the average young woman in college or university takes herself too seriously. Indeed, this criticism may be well applied to women who are "coming on" in all lines of endeavor these days. The *reductio ad absurdum* of it gave us that anomaly, a Woman's Building at Chicago. What women need to learn is, that they have no interests apart from men, intellectual, social, or economic. And, perhaps, it is the sounder education that is going to impress this truth.

I have a little story in point. A definer on one of the ponderous new dictionaries that distract our minds and deplete our purses was an elderly clergyman. He belonged to that generation of men, now happily dying off, to whom women are "females." Naturally, he proposed to define, and did define, "female college." Presently the word came before another definer in the same office, a college-bred woman, who disposed of it with the quiet remark that she saw no need of the distinction. A college is a college, no matter who goes to it.

Leonard Boyer.

New Haven, Conn., March 16, 1894.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I greatly regret to see my statement doubted. It was, nevertheless, a very real experience in a German university lecture-room during the winter of '91–'92. M. F. K.

Northampton, Mass., March 17, 1894.

[The writer is a perfectly responsible and trustworthy witness — Ed. Nation.]

ZOÖLOGY IN THE STANDARD DICTIONARY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: When I assumed the charge of the Zoölogical Department of the 'Standard Dictionary,' I surveyed, with all the care I could give, the field before me, and concluded that the wisest course was to admit most of the current family names, in the higher classes at least. The chief reason for so doing was that the family is a large unit, much used in the discussion of morphological and zoögeographical problems, and any one may come up in some important and unexpected connection. For example, the family *Gracilariidæ* (not *Graciliariidæ*, as your printer has made you say) is of interest to horticulturists and arboriculturists on account of its attacks upon the leaves of various plants. One of the best-known species infests the common lilac in some regions, and it has been the subject of extensive studies. It seems to me that the name of a group with such a record deserves the admission it has obtained in a dictionary having the scope of the 'Standard' or 'Century.' The derivatives apt to be used are given in the simple words "*gracilariid*, *a* and *n*," and "*gracilarioid*, *a*," and indicate the peculiar usage of entomologists. Examples of the constant use of analogous names are innumerable. In *Insect Life*, published by the Department of Agriculture, kindred words may be found in every issue.* The function of such words is chiefly to avoid circumlocution. Thus, *gracilariid* is preferable to "a moth of the family *Gricilariidæ*," or even to "one of the Gracilariidæ."

My own desire and deed were to keep out unnecessary words and such as should not be in an English dictionary. Many thousands found in other dictionaries were therefore excluded. Doubtless I have often failed in judgment, but my own action was the reverse of "padding" or unnecessary augmentation of the mountain of words. Theo. Gill.

Washington, March 17, 1894.

JUVENAL READ BACKWARDS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the symposium of opinions by the bishops of the P. E. church on the fourth article of the Chicago-Lambeth "quadrilateral" (*Independent* of March 8), appears a letter from the Bishop of Missouri, who winds up with what appears to be meant for a quotation:

"To advocate any practices for the alleged promotion of Christian unity which count out the Historic Episcopate, is simply *propter vivendi causas perdere vitam*."

Put beside this the actual utterance of the old satirist:

"Summum crede nefas animam praeferre pudori
Et propter vitam vivendi perdere causas" (Juv. viii., 83).

Juvenal's clear note of high, courageous, self-sacrificing virtue is distinctly and flatly reversed. We are forced in charity to credit the bishop with a kind of "heterophemy," a momentary lapse of intelligence. Else he speaks as an "incumbent," a placeman, a (mere) official. The old Roman's original "indignation" is infinitely better than the episcopal revision. Y.

* I have counted twenty-seven different names in the last number of *Insect Life* lately issued (Vol. 6, No. 3), and enclose a list with references to pages.

THE INDEX-MAKING CONSCIENCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have been trying for some years to use the volumes in the series entitled "English Men of Letters." It may surprise the editor of that collection to learn that I have now and then succeeded in finding in one of these books a passage or a reference of which I was in search. Not a volume in the series has an index. There is a table of contents in each; but this is often so brief as to be only an exasperation. I will cite everything that is given to assist the reader in unravelling that tangled skein, the life of Shelley: Chapter I., Birth and Childhood; II., Eton and Oxford; III., Life in London, and First Marriage; IV., Second Residence in London, and Separation from Harriet; V., Life at Marlow, and Journey to Italy; VI., Residence at Pisa; VII., Last Days; VIII., Epilogue. Some of the volumes contain a very brief bibliography or list of authorities, but this is evidently in each case a departure from the general plan of the series.

Recently a new book has come to my attention, interesting to read but difficult to *use*—Littledale's 'Essays on Tennyson's Idylls of the King' (Macmillan, 1893). The work has no index whatever. It should be marked, like Excalibur, on the front cover, "Take me," and on the back, "Cast me away."

Years of vexation have caused me to ask the question, How about the *morality* of publishing books of reference without indexes? A very little consideration for others, an elementary application of the law of love, would seem to be sufficient to arouse in every writer an index-making conscience. A. H. Tolman.

The University of Chicago, March 10, 1894.

Notes.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. are about to publish 'An Island Garden,' Mrs. Celia Thaxter's description of her own at the Isles of Shoals, with illustrations in color by Childe Hassam; and 'Does God Send Trouble?' by Dr. C. C. Hall.

Thomas Whittaker announces 'Addresses to Workingmen,' by Dean Hole.

A translation of Sabatier's 'Life of St. Francis of Assisi' is in the press of Charles Scribner's Sons.

Frederick Warne & Co. publish immediately 'In Love with the Czarina,' from the Hungarian of Maurice Jokai.

D. Appleton & Co. will issue in the course of next month an English version of Baron de Méneval's 'Mémoires pour servir à l'histoire de Napoléon Ier,' remodelled and revised to suit the present rage by his grandson; 'Aerial Navigation,' by J. G. W. Fijnje, translated and revised by Col. Geo. E. Waring, jr.; 'Memoirs of Edward L. Youmans,' by John Fiske; 'General Washington,' by Gen. Bradley T. Johnson, in the "Great Commanders Series"; 'Evolution of the Public School System in Massachusetts,' by G. F. Martin; a revised edition of 'Smith's Classical Dictionary'; 'Creatures of Other Days,' by the Rev. H. N. Hutchinson; 'Aphorisms from the Writings of Herbert Spencer,' selected by Julia R. Gingell; and 'Symbolic Education,' by Susan E. Blow.

The Jewish Publication Society of America (Philadelphia) will shortly bring out the third volume of Graetz's 'History of the Jews,' and 'Papers of the Jewish Women's Congress,' Chicago.

The Baker & Taylor Co. will issue next

month 'With the Wild Flowers, through the Spring, Summer, and Autumn, from Pussy-willows to Thistle-down,' by E. M. Hardinge; 'The Amateur Aquarist,' by Mark Samuel, Aquarist to Columbia College; 'Christianity Practically Applied,' being a report of the proceedings of the Evangelical Alliance for the United States held at Chicago in 1893.

Charles H. Sergel Co. will shortly publish a 'History of Bohemia,' by R. H. Vickers.

Capt. John Bigelow, jr., Tenth United States Cavalry, has issued a second edition of his 'Principles of Strategy' (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.). Considerable changes have been made in matter and form. Part of the geometric and diagrammatic treatment of the subject has been omitted, and a condensation of this part of the work has thus been effected without diminishing the clearness or value of the presentation of principles. The space saved has been profitably used by critical analyses of other campaigns of the civil war, in addition to those before given. The work is now issued in octavo instead of the quarto form—a gain in handiness and no loss in beauty. The new edition may therefore be received as an improved one.

'Practical Methods in Microscopy,' by Charles H. Clark, A.M., Principal of Sanborn Seminary (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.), is a very compact and handy treatise on the simpler principles of the microscope, with practical lessons in its use. To this is added sound instruction in methods of studying fresh natural objects and those artificially prepared. The subject of the preparation and mounting of microscopical specimens in different departments of investigation is thus introduced, and the chapters devoted to it are more than ordinarily full and valuable. The study of bacteria and their culture occupies a couple of well-digested chapters, and another is given to practical first lessons in photomicrography. The author does not profess to rival the greater standard treatises, but has been very successful in reaching the result he aims at, viz., to make a reliable and useful handbook for the student. Besides a good number of woodcuts illustrating apparatus, etc., a series of very beautiful reproductions of photomicrographs, by the half-tone process, will be found in the appendix.

'Everybody's Guide to Music,' by Josiah Booth (Harpers), is a not particularly successful attempt to condense elementary information regarding music and its composers into 175 pages. The fact that in the biographic portion (headed "The Growth of Music") Handel gets five pages, Mendelssohn four, and Bach one and a half, while Chopin is not even mentioned, shows the writer's absolute unfitness for his task.

'Musical Education and Musical Art,' by Edith V. Eastman (Boston: Damrell & Upham), is a well-printed little book containing essays on "The Language of the Sense," "The Uses of Silence," "Art in Education," "Characteristics of Musical Art," "From the Conservatory to the Kindergarten," "The Eye versus the Ear," "The Voice and the Ear," "Fences and Gates," "The New Education." Those who teach music or are interested in that subject (beyond the mere technique) will find matter of interest in the author's suggestions, observations, and apt quotations; and all American women who would like to possess a musical speaking voice will find useful hints in the essay on "The Voice and the Ear."

Students of harmony as a basis of musical composition may profit by C. C. Müller's 'Tables for the Writing of Exercises in Harmony' (Wm. A. Pond & Co.) as a guide to chord succession. Mr. Müller's principle is that "the best way to study harmony is to harmonize *melodies*."

'The Art of Singing,' by Sinclair Dunn (London: T. Fisher Unwin), is a little book of 117 pages, containing a few chapters on voice production and cultivation, and a few others (on a dozen popular singers) which are called "chats," but are little more than compilations from the musical dictionaries. The author's mental calibre may be gauged from a ten-page list of songs "embracing most well-known classics," in which Schubert occurs only three times, Schumann once, and Jensen and Franz not at all, while the Matteis, Molloys, Sullivans, Balfes, and Claribels are abundant.

Oscar Browning, author of 'Guelphs and Ghibellines, a Short History of Mediæval Italy from 1250 to 1409' (London: Methuen), is best known, so far as Italian studies go, by his article on Dante in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' a fairly good summary of the facts relating to the poet's life and works. The volume now before us is perhaps a useful book of reference, but it is hard to conceive of anybody reading it with pleasure. The author lays great stress on details, but makes almost no attempt at generalization. The result is that no reader, not already acquainted with the subject, could imagine that the epoch thus dryly treated was a great formative period in Italian art, letters, and civilization. The manner throughout is that of the perfunctory lecturer. There are no notes, no preface, no list of authorities, nothing that would enable the student to continue his reading on the subject, or even to begin it in anything like a philosophic manner.

The Players have published, in a most beautifully printed pamphlet, the full proceedings of the memorial meeting held in the concert hall of the Madison Square Garden on the 13th of last November to commemorate the sixtieth birthday of Edwin Booth, the founder of the club. The book is a model of its kind. It contains the minute of the board ordering the commemoration, the list of the committees which carried it out, the card of invitation (printed from the copper plate), the programme as the guests held it in their hands, the speeches of Mr. Joseph Jefferson, Mr. Henry Irving, and Signor Salvini—this last both in Italian and in English as read by Mr. Henry Miller—the oration of Mr. Parke Godwin, and the elegy of Prof. George E. Woodberry. Prefixed is a photogravure of the admirable portrait of Booth painted by Mr. John S. Sargent, and now framed over the mantelpiece of the most frequented room in the club-house which the actor presented to The Players.

The 'Dictionary of Political Economy,' edited by Mr. Inglis Palgrave, of which six parts now compose the first volume, A—E (Macmillan), will henceforth appear only in volume form. It is hardly necessary to say that economic science is at present in a somewhat transitional state, and that many of the subjects treated of in a work of this kind are as difficult to handle to the satisfaction of all as the dogmas of the theologians. There is, however, a wide field to be worked, historical, legal, literary, and biographical; and the digesting and arranging of the material gathered here is enough of itself to give value to such a publication as this.

'Yankee Doodle at the Fair' would have been a fitter title for a work summing up the Centennial Exposition of 1876 than for this small-folio record of the Columbian Exposition just begun to be published in parts by George Barrie, Philadelphia. The title apart, this is the most captivating effort yet made to produce a parlor-table souvenir of the later Fair. The text has been wisely committed to many hands, and takes the shape of monographs, *e. g.*, "Columbus and La Rábida," by William E. Curtis; "The Architecture of the Exposition," by Henry Van Brunt; "The Gobelins at Chicago," by E. Gerspach; with which are intercalated biographies of artists, as, Edwin Lord Weeks and Madeleine Lemaire. The illustrations are largely in color, and as such are at their best in some of the vignettes, initials, and tailpieces. The black-and-white process cuts are fully up to the average level in similar works. The fact that the work is published by subscription probably accounts for the break in continuity of some of the articles we have enumerated. A lack of variety in each part, especially in the first, might have been an impediment to canvassing.

The Department of Philosophy and Education of Columbia College announces the early publication of the first of a series of contributions on philosophical, psychological, and educational subjects that are to appear under the editorship of the members of the department. They are not intended to interfere in any way with existing journals, but will contain (1) the longer and more important dissertations submitted by advanced students in philosophy and education, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of doctor of philosophy; (2) occasional longer and more technical studies by the professors and instructors themselves; and (3) reprints from other journals of contributions made to them by members of the Department of Philosophy at Columbia. The contributions will appear at irregular intervals, and will be numbered consecutively for binding and preservation. They will be under the editorial direction of Profs. Butler and Cattell and Drs. Hyslop and Farrand. The first will be entitled "Friedrich Heinrich Jacobi: A Study in the Origins of German Realism," by Norman Wilde, A.M. The second will be "Kant's Inaugural Dissertation of 1770," including a translation of the dissertation, together with an elaborate introduction and notes by Prof. W. J. Eckoff of the University of Colorado. Orders for these numbers, or requests for information, should be addressed to the Department of Philosophy.

We receive from the Librairie Chevalier-Marescq & Cie., Paris, the first number of the *Revue du Droit Public et de la Science Politique en France et à l'Étranger*. As the title indicates, the department of private law, which is already abundantly cultivated, is not included within the scope of this magazine. The editor very justly observes that many persons outside of the profession of the law have an interest in international questions and in general political science. For these a review of current events and literature is desirable, and this programme includes a survey of constitutional law, administrative law, international law, the administration of justice, penal jurisprudence, financial legislation, individual rights, etc., etc. It cannot be said that this programme errs on the side of narrowness; on the contrary, the danger is that nothing except private law will be excluded. However, a skilfully prepared digest of incessantly accumulating material is always acceptable.

The *Physical Review* for March–April (vol. i., No. 5), published for Cornell University by Macmillan & Co., contains a portrait of the late Prof. Heinrich Hertz, with an appreciative notice.

The most interesting points brought out by

Mr. R. D. Oldham, the Superintendent of the Geological Survey of India, in his paper on the evolution of Indian geography, published in the *Geographical Journal* for March, appear to be the very slow growth of some of the mountain chains, and the fact that the erosive forces are getting feebler, and in certain places are so feeble as to be inefficient. In these cases, where the streams are "no longer powerful enough to keep their valleys clear," the mountains are gradually being buried under their own débris. There is also an account of a journey in Hadramaut, Southern Arabia, by L. Hirsch, too condensed to be interesting, and a paper by Mr. J. W. Redway, in which he accounts for the treeless plains of the United States, "not because of prairie fires, nor yet of unwholesome conditions of the soil, but from the simple fact that the seeds of forest trees have never been distributed over its surface at fortuitous [*sic*] times." A notice of the second general census of India, taken on the night of February 26, 1891, refers to the remarkable fact that the vast majority of the total of 287,223,431 persons were told in less than four hours. The mean density of the population is 184 per square mile, but it varies from 31 in Kashmir to 522 in Oudh. While in England 53 per cent. of the whole population is found in 182 large towns, in India under 5 per cent. reside in the 227 towns of similar size—20,000 inhabitants and upwards. The increase of population during the last decade was nearly 28,000,000. This is not a high rate, however, for in a list of twenty-eight countries, India stands "twentieth in respect of rapidity of increase of population; New South Wales being the highest and France the lowest."

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for March contains an account, by Mrs. Lilly Grove, of the Archipelago of Chiloë, a group of sixty islands lying off the south coast of Chili. The inhabitants, numbering 75,500 in 1889, are mostly Indians, and occupy themselves with agriculture and wood-cutting, though some thousands of them go every summer to the mainland to work upon the railways or at harvesting. They are peaceful and industrious, and much attention is paid to their education. In the department of Castro alone there are seventy-three public and private schools, and, out of a population of 36,000, 80 per cent. can read. There is also a paper upon Fiji, by Mr. J. P. Thomson, containing an unusual amount of information in a condensed form. A wonderful fertility is ascribed to the soil. Two and sometimes three crops of maize are harvested annually, and "fifty bushels to the acre is the annual yield, while some soils yield as much as eighty or one hundred bushels." Sugar, copra, and "green fruit" are the staple crops, though attempts are being made to cultivate tea, coffee, and tobacco. Very little cotton is grown, as compared with former years, on account of the low prices prevailing, though it is of a "quality better than can be obtained in any other country." In certain places the Sea Island variety "grows to perfection."

Mention was recently made in these columns of photographs of the pictures in Venice and its environs taken by D. Anderson (Spithoever) of Rome. We have just received Signor Anderson's catalogue, and it contains—not to mention works accessible in photographs of any kind before—the Carpaccios of the Scuola di S. Giorgio ("The Sbrine of the Slaves"), the most interesting Tintorettos of the Scuola di S. Rocco, the Academy and the Doge's Palace, the Vivarinis in the Frari, the Lottos and Cimas of the Carmine and S. Giovani e Paolo, the Giovanni Bellini of S. Giovanni Crisostomo—this master's last altar-piece—and all the better pictures in the Seminary; including the dainty Filippinos, and Giorgione's ruined but still enchanting "Apollo and Daphne." At Vicenza, Signor Anderson has photographed Giovanni Bellini's "Baptism," Giorgione's "Christ Bearing the Cross," and Montagna's "Pietà," three of the sublimest creations of Italian art.

The Woman's Education Association of Boston, in order to increase the meagre opportunities for advanced courses of study by college women, offers two foreign fellowships of $600 and $400 respectively. Applications for these fellowships for the year 1894-'95 should be sent before May 1, 1894, to Mrs. N. P. Hallowell, chairman of the committee, West Medford, Mass. Candidates must be graduates of the colleges recognized by the Association of Collegiate Alumnæ, or graduates of the Harvard Annex, and should be women who expect to follow permanently professional, scientific, or literary work. It is noteworthy that "satisfactory evidence of thoroughly good health" is one of the requisites for appointment.

We have received from Mr. F. S. King, the well-known engraver on wood, a portrait of Daniel Webster on plate paper, the print being about 11x13 inches. It should naturally be a specimen of this artist's craft, but we are really perplexed to describe it. At first glance it appears to be a steel engraving, in line except the head, which is in stipple and yet almost shows the marks of the lithographic crayon. However produced, it is a very strong and interesting performance, and, being from a life drawing, is a valuable addition to the long series in which Webster has come down to posterity. The figure is a half-length in a characteristic attitude, and the face, though grave, has a sweet and healthy expression. Mr. King's address is No. 806 Fifth Avenue.

—Close upon the heels of the clever article in the March *Atlantic*, "Is the Musical Idea Masculine?" which sets out to prove that women as a sex are, on both physiological and psychological grounds, incapable of originating musical ideas, comes the curious announcement that, at the present moment, all of the students of the violoncello at the Royal Academy of Music, London, are women. The increase in the number of female violinists is also one of the items of current musical gossip in England, where the superb violin-playing of Lady Halle in concert with Herr Joachim has lately been winning unqualified praise. Finally, at the Royal Academy concert a couple of weeks ago, the most interesting feature of the programme was a sonata in E for pianoforte and violin, composed by the Macfarren scholar, Miss Llewela Davies, and pronounced to be a bright, fanciful work, written in musicianly style. Although none of these facts are conclusive against the argument of the *Atlantic*'s essay, they at least go to prove that the final evidence as to the musical ability or disability of women is not yet in the hands of the theorists.

—The current issue of the *Astronomische Nachrichten* contains charges of a serious character, prima facie, against the photometric work of the Harvard College Observatory. They are presented by Dr. S. C. Chandler, a professional astronomer of high standing, who maintains that the Photometric Catalogues contain errors so numerous and of such a nature as to rob the work of any claim to high scientific character, while there is grave question whether it has any value whatever. The mistakes were discovered by Dr. Chandler in the course of his well-known investigations of variable stars, and, having become aware of their existence, he felt in duty bound to announce them to the astronomical world. It is within that world that the weighing of the importance of these errors must take place; but as the matter has already been laid before the general public in a Boston newspaper, it may be proper to mention some circumstances which will have to be taken into account. Much is made of the fact that the light of a star is in one case multiplied in the Harvard Photometry by over one hundred. This ratio seems quite monstrous. The fact is, that the star is set down as one of the faintest photometrically measurable, while in fact it is quite invisible with the telescope used. It is so many magnitudes fainter—no matter how many. It was set down as barely visible; it is invisible. If its light had been multiplied a hundred thousand times, the error would be the same, that of recording a star where no star was to be seen. The mistakes which Dr. Chandler has brought to light have probably originated in the telescope being misdirected. It is a very common occurrence in an observatory that, perhaps on a cold night, the assistant, with his eyelids almost glued together with frost, reading by a dim lantern a minutely engraved circle in an awkward position, sets for the wrong star. In ordinary meridian work this is discovered the following morning with certainty, because the observed time of passage will prove too decidedly out. But in photometric work there is no such check; and if the observer, on putting his eye to the telescope, sees a star of about the same brightness that the star he is looking for has been reported to have, he naturally takes that to be the one. This may so easily occur that, no doubt, every possible precaution ought to be taken to avoid misidentifications of stars. Dr. Chandler's charges, therefore, would seem to reduce themselves to this, that the precautions taken were insufficient. Astronomers at present judge of the Harvard Photometry by the degree of its agreement with the Catalogues of Pritchard and of Wolf, which were independently executed. The errors which Dr. Chandler has discovered must, if they affect the whole body of photometric work under Pickering, have influenced the estimate of his accuracy formed from that comparison. If, thanks to Dr. Chandler and other critics, they can be detected and eliminated, the work will have an even higher value than astronomers have hitherto placed upon it.

—Mr. Sidney Lee, editor of the monumental 'Dictionary of National Biography,' encounters obstructionists in curates and parish clerks. His work has reached only the middle of the alphabet, but he has found more than a third of the incumbents to whom he has applied "more or less refractory" in the matter of granting public access to the public records. In many cases no answer was given to his letters, though repeated more than once and with stamps enclosed. Among the answers received, after reiterated inquiries, were the following: "Time with me is too valuable for profitless occupation." The meaning of "profitless" was shown by other answers when nothing more than a date was asked for, thus: "I regret that I cannot give the information required except on receipt of 1s. for the search and 2s. 6d. for the information, *i. e.*, 3s. 6d. in all." To another and repeated application to learn a recent death-date, the reply was: "Call

at the church at a certain hour on a certain day and we will discuss the question of fees." Thus the desiderated date was ascertained by the outlay of 5s. In another case, a curate, having been paid 2s. 7d. for a date, claimed £3 19s. 6d. for looking it up. He afterward agreed to compound for three guineas, and his extra charge was finally beaten down to £1 1s. 6d. Mr. Lee was indignant at charges always arbitrary and often extortionate, and has recently exposed them in the London *Times*. He holds that search in parish records for literary purposes ought to be permitted at lower than usual rates. The fact is, that English restrictions on the examination of parish records have often hindered the knitting together again of ties between New and Old England which were early snapped asunder. For generations a large proportion of Americans who have crossed the Atlantic have been curious about their ancestry. Some few of these inquirers into ancestry, like James Savage long ago, as well as Col. Chester and his successor, Mr. Waters, came with credentials to dignitaries and dedicated decades to their work. This elect few have had little to complain of. But with the great mass, who were not genealogical experts and without much of time or money to spare, it has been far otherwise. Several of the Massachusetts Willards have investigated their ancestral English annals. One of them reports in the family history that he did not dig very deep, since it was too expensive a luxury. Imperious clerks would allow him to copy nothing, and for abstracts, however meagre, exacted enormous fees. Mr. Lee's grievance is not so much that he is overcharged as that he never can tell how far extortion may stretch.

—As no person of judgment can pretend that the Writings of Thomas Paine are no longer worth reading, intrinsically or historically, the first service rendered by Mr. M. D. Conway in his edition of them is the putting of them in clear and open type (vol. i., 1774–1779, G. P. Putnam's Sons). There are to be four volumes in all, uniform in style with the Hamilton, Franklin, Washington, Jay, and Jefferson, already completed or undertaken by the same firm; and none are more worthy of a place among the literary monuments of our Revolutionary fathers. The first volume contains "Common Sense," whose effect can never be estimated exactly, and may or may not merit Mr. Conway's assertion that it "has never been paralleled in literary history." No doubt can rest upon the extraordinary sale of this pamphlet, or upon its contemporary reputation as invaluable to the American cause. With it are conjoined here the caustic "Epistle to the Quakers" and the polemical "Forester's Letters," now reprinted for the first time, as are the several articles on Silas Deane; while quite new is the letter to Franklin copied from the MS. "The Crisis" is the other famous body of pamphlets embraced in this volume. "The Rights of Man" and "The Age of Reason" are yet to come. Opinions will differ as to the need or worth of admitting to this collection thirteen of the first fourteen pieces, from the *Pennsylvania Journal* and *Magazine*, though their authorship is purely conjectural. The first, on "African Slavery in America," has a show of evidence in its favor. Mr. Conway's introductions and annotations seem to us sufficient, albeit a footnote reference backwards or forwards would now and again be a convenience.

—Two of the three "familiar quotations" made from Paine by Mr. Bartlett are to be found in this volume, beyond which we need not go for the essential qualities of Paine's style, which is too much overlooked nowadays. No writer of the Revolution is more sententious, and it is surprising that a greater number of his sayings have not become household. His metaphors are apt and striking—"literary ornaments," he calls them; and it is amusing to see him drop into them in spite of himself immediately after he has given notice (as on p. 409) that he will avoid them in order to be understood of those who can scarcely read. He knew his good things, and was fond of quoting them, and he felt his superiority as a popular writer to his associates in the cause. With all the occasional intemperance of language pardonable in a heated time, the contents of this volume could win only respect for Paine's character with posterity. His sense, his humanity, his disinterestedness, his independence, his probity, his political "tone," are simply admirable. We will quote a passage which we commend to the *Outlook*, as it recalls that religious journal's grave aberration in the Hawaiian matter. Paine is speaking of "national honor":

"In a Christian and philosophical sense, mankind seems to have stood still at individual civilization, and to retain as nations all the original rudeness of nature. . . . As individuals we profess ourselves Christians, but as nations we are heathens, Romans, and what not. . . . It is, I think, exceedingly easy to define what ought to be understood by national honor: for that which is the best character for an individual is the best character for a nation; and wherever the latter exceeds or falls beneath the former, there is a departure from the line of true greatness."

We shall read later Paine's sincere profession, "My country is the world, and my religion is to do good."

—M. Brunetière has been giving at the Sorbonne an unpaid course of lectures on Bossuet and the movement of ideas in the seventeenth century. The students, dissatisfied that he should have reserved no seats for them, seeing in him a partisan of the old while they are unanimously for the new, irritated because, in the late elections to the Academy, Brunetière had been taken and Zola left, but above all excited by the preparations for the procession of students and washerwomen the next day (*mi-carême*), and glad to get an excuse for a little fun, flocked to the Sorbonne. The call that had been circulated among them deserves to be reproduced: "Grand chahut, chez Brunetière, grand amphithéâtre (Sorbonne). Serpentins, etc. Rendez-vous à l'Ecole de Médecine, à 2 h. moins ¼. On partira en monôme et sans bruit. Faire circuler S. V. P." They came early and filled the galleries. They shouted unmusical songs, threw confetti, *serpentins*, and paper darts among the ladies, and when the professor came drowned his voice. The ladies took up his defence by applauding. Then came an ungallant shout, "Conspuez, conspuez les femmes!" followed by a variant on a Boulangist refrain, "C'est Zola, Zola, Zola-â-â, c'est Zola qu'il nous faut, oh, oh!" When M. Brunetière, after twenty minutes, abandoned the contest, they broke up his table and chair, and, when finally hustled out by the police, they proposed to sack his house and his room at the offices of the *Revue des Deux Mondes;* but the one was too distant and the other too strong for their zeal. The papers condemn the students—they could not do otherwise; but they take occasion to say disobliging things of the victim. They note that, in the confusion, he shouted, "Je ne savais, messieurs, qu'il était *encore* mi-carême," meaning to say *déjà*—a slip of the tongue unpardonable in a severe critic. They give little biographical sketches of him which are not precisely intended to win for him the sympathy of the public. His character is disagreeable and *grincheux*—the usual attribute of lack of power. Finally, his election to the Immortals was the consequence partly of private influence, partly of a desire to favor the *Revue des Deux Mondes*.

—Under the general and, many will think, appropriate title "Le Naturalisme, ou l'Immoralité Littéraire," and under the specific title 'Émile Zola, l'Homme et l'Œuvre,' M. Antoine Laporte, who appears to be his own publisher (Paris), gives us an arraignment of Zola, his methods, and his school, which, though strongly tinged in many places with partial antipathy, expresses what is surely a deep and general feeling. That feeling is one of disgust at the success which Zola's abominations have obtained in Europe and America—for in respect of eager reading of his works Americans are not, it is to be feared, much behind the French. That Zola has marked ability as a writer, that there are passages, many passages, in his books of undoubted force and beauty, that he has the gift of impressing on the mind a sense of vastness and multiplicity, no one will deny. In 'Germinal,' in 'L'Œuvre,' in 'La Débâcle,' in 'L'Assommoir,' there are pages which prove his power, but in comparison with the remainder of his work these pages are few and scattered, and wholly inadequate as redeeming features. In vigorous language M. Laporte denounces a naturalism which "is not merely the art of tickling and exciting the depraved tastes of the public, but of heating and surcharging its sensual appetites to the point of hysteria, of erotic madness." His work is a healthful sign of reviving morality, and will be read with interest and sympathy by very many.

GOLDWIN SMITH'S POLITICAL ESSAYS.

Essays on Questions of the Day, Political and Social. By Goldwin Smith, D.C.L., author of 'The United States,' 'Canada and the Canadian Question.' Macmillan & Co. 1893.

Mr. Goldwin Smith is a writer whom it is very easy to criticise and very difficult to review. It is easy to pick out his hasty deductions and impetuous conclusions, array them, riddle them, ridicule them, but difficult to depict the length and breadth of his studies, his wonderful memory, his clear presentation of things historical and political, without at the same time countenancing the mistakes which he makes in dealing with his own knowledge. He was always an independent thinker; with age he seems to have grown fond of crossing the ideas of all other men on all subjects, and of auguring the worst result from any given present condition of affairs. But, whatever his errors of deduction, Mr. Smith fairly states the premises. If the reader has head enough to draw his own deductions, he will find the book whose title we give above most interesting and instructive. We have before us a review of it by Principal Grant in the Toronto *Week*, which may be said to be an indictment of twenty-four counts; but all and each of these counts go to conclusions and deductions. The writer well says, "It is the inconsistency of Dr. Smith's language rather than its inaccuracy that I wish to point out."

Even with these limitations understood, it is startling to find a man of Mr. Smith's years—

an educated, intelligent, cultivated man, who has been a professor in one of the chief universities of the world and in one of the largest universities of America—calmly looking forward to civil war in the most stable empire of the modern world, and (more paradoxical still) contemplating it as a right and duty, as the lesser of two evils. This civil war will not be dynastic like the Wars of the Roses; nor religious like that of the Roundheads and Cavaliers; nor sectional like our war of secession; but a war of classes—the French Revolution over again, with this radical difference, that the revolutionists will embrace the wealth, property, education, intelligence, rank, and nobility of the kingdom. In other words, the stable, cautious, conservative elements of society will take the part of the Jacobins, and the lower classes that of constituted authority. That we may not misstate his position we quote what he says:

"The Newcastle programme, drawn up to gain votes, raises issues which together would be enough to bring on a revolution. In America civil war ensued upon a presidential election, which corresponds to the general election in England, and was its natural result. No country can bear for ever these convulsions, which grow more violent as the suffrage is extended, and more frequent as the exercise of the prerogative of dissolution becomes more unrestrained" (p. 120).

"People are not bound to fold their arms in tame submission when they can prevent the cruel indulgence of class hatred, public rapine, or the dismemberment of the nation, any more than they are bound to fold their arms in tame submission when the tyranny of a despot becomes insufferable. There are international situations, though few, out of which the only exit is war. There are domestic situations, far fewer still, out of which, as Mirabeau saw, the only exit is civil war or the display of a determination to face civil war rather than suffer the extremity of wrongs" (p. 123).

"Civil war is a dreadful thing; but there are things even more dreadful than civil war. Submission to the dismemberment of the nation by the sinister machinations of a morally insane ambition, would in the end work more havoc than the civil sword. 'I am prepared,' said the constitutional and cautious Peel, 'to make the declaration which was made, and nobly made, by my predecessor, Lord Althorp, that, deprecating as I do all war, but above all civil war, yet there is no alternative which I do not think preferable to the dismemberment of this empire'" (p. 306).

The causes which are carrying the British Empire towards some great political convulsion, according to Mr. Smith, are two-fold: first, there is the tremendous upheaval in which the combining forces are philanthropic, sentimental, demagogic, agrarian; second, there is the defective condition of the British Constitution, undefined, inoperative, in parts defunct—a constitution which has been amended by abandoning fundamental safeguards without putting substitutes in their stead; a constitution ill-adapted to withstand a shock or bear a strain; weaker than the constitution, written or unwritten, of any people in the world. Nominally, the government consists of an independent executive and two legislative bodies, each a check upon the others. In fact, the power of the executive has passed to the ministry; the ministry is but a committee of the House of Commons; the House can turn the ministry out of office at any moment; the ministry can turn the House out of office by dissolving Parliament; the authority of the Lords is becoming as obsolete as that of the Crown; the existence of the judiciary is absolutely dependent upon the will of Parliament.

It is refreshing here to turn from this disorderly, needless, and [illegible] constitutional situation as it is admirably depicted by Mr. Smith:

"The people of the United States have a written Constitution which emanates from themselves and is the subject of their profound reverence. They have a Supreme Court to guard that Constitution. They have a President whose veto is a salutary reality, and whose authority is being signally displayed at the present juncture. They have a Senate, elected on a principle comparatively conservative, and really coördinate as a legislative body with the popular House, whose bills it amends or throws out without fear. The federal structure of their commonwealth, like that of a ship in compartments, is a safeguard against any sudden flood of revolution. In their Constitution is an article forbidding legislation which would impair the faith of contracts" (p. 91).

On the Irish question Mr. Smith's opinions are well known and are as extreme as those of Lord Salisbury. His chief grievance is that the home-rule bill is not really a law, but an amendment of the Constitution; that it is dismemberment without the consent of a majority of the people of England, Scotland, and Wales, or of a majority of their representatives in Parliament; that it is secession without the consent of the North. He does not believe in the fitness of the Irish for self-government—nay, more, he holds that they were never fit to govern themselves and never will be. He includes the whole Celtic race in his distrust, and quotes Mommsen and Bishop Lightfoot, and goes back to the time when St. Paul exclaimed, "O foolish Galatians." But certainly there are vast differences in the Celtic races of to-day. The French peasant, if we may judge from the portraiture of French realistic fiction, is mean, miserly, selfish, reticent, distrustful, with large bumps of acquisitiveness and secretiveness. Like his cousins in Canada, he cares little for government or dynasties, and is solicitous only in regard to his church and the tax-gatherer. The Welsh peasant is industrious, thrifty, contented, heartily loyal, yet has so much truly national spirit in him that he has held fast to the language of his fathers, hearing it from the pulpit and reading the news of the day in papers published in his ancient tongue. The Irish we know pretty well, and how he differs from the others.

The essay on the British Empire and that on Church Disestablishment will seem to American readers fair, reasonable, and just; yet there is hardly a class of English or Canadian readers whose views they will not cross. To Canadians especially the former must be exceedingly rasping, bringing into view as it does the extraordinary want of unity that exists in the Dominion—an English Canada, a French Canada, an American Canada, an aristocratic Canada, a democratic Canada, a demagogic Canada. It deals, too, with all of the scandals and mistakes of the Canadian Government. It speaks of the Governor-General of Canada as a sham, and calls "her mimic aristocracy, her baronets and knights, a political outpost of monarchical and aristocratic England on the territory of American democracy." But the reader will not find anywhere in the same number of pages a clearer view, historical and political, of the British Empire.

The most valuable essay in the book is that on Social and Industrial Revolution. The reader who desires to see with his own eyes the field of nationalism, socialism, combinations, unions, strikes, etc., will find its clear-flowing, illustrative style most interesting reading, and will be saved much research if he really intends to examine the subject for himself. As we have before said, the errors of Mr. Smith are chiefly those of deduction; but here there are points, and very strong points, of which he has not made enough. For example, he says:

"Strikers should never forget that they are themselves buyers as well as producers, and therefore employers as well as employed; so that if they can strike against the rest of the community, the other trades can strike against them, and, wages being raised all round, nobody will gain anything."

The proposition which is here intended is, that if the remuneration of all the manual laborers in the world were doubled instantly, the cost of all the products of manual labor would soon be doubled, and the result would be the same. The striker would have to pay twice as much for everything he bought; his money would be doubled, but its purchasing power would be halved; it would be but a new form of inflation. It is idle, however, to tell strikers that they "should never forget" this. And it is not true in their case. It is like telling a small band of monopolists that they "should never forget" that the rest of the world can form monopolies and make them pay as roundly as they are making us. They are ahead in the race; they have doubled their remuneration while the rest of the working-world have been looking on in a vague, sympathetic belief that strikes of organized labor will somehow or other benefit themselves, and in utter ignorance of the fact that it is they themselves who are, for the most part, paying the augmented wages. Again, Mr. Smith says that it is really the consumer and not the employer who pays the increase of wages. He should have brought out the fact that the employer of to-day is being ground between two stones, the strikers insisting on putting wages up, the purchasers insisting on buying where they can buy cheapest. Who has ever heard or read a sermon in which the clergyman told his flock that when they get ready to pay Christian prices, they will find employers ready to pay philanthropic wages?

Mr. Smith speaks in the above extract of "the other trades," and he frequently alludes to trades, artisans, railroad hands—in short, to organized labor, as if it embraced all workingmen. We know that he does not really mean to convey that idea, but his uninstructed reader will not look behind his words for his meaning. When we take into the account the masses of unorganized laborers whose pay is ordinarily about one-third that of the artisan class, and the small farmers, gardeners, etc., who are not employers or capitalists, but get their wages out of their work, and the legion of women workers who struggle hopelessly at the foot of the ladder, we find that strikers are but a small fractional part of the mass who live by manual labor. When we look further into the operations of the "trades," we find that they are monopolists of the most selfish and exacting type, who have organized to exclude other men from honest work, and to exact tribute from every class of men who earn their bread by the sweat of their brow. The greatest of the wrongs which exist in this country is the repression of the lower strata of manual laborers; their exclusion from better-paying pursuits; the denial to them of the constitutional right of every man to seek unmolested his own advancement.

This has not been brought out in the essay as fully or as strongly as Mr. Smith could have portrayed it; and it is a wrong of which the public are strangely ignorant, or as to which they are more strangely indifferent. A few years ago a poor woman ran about the streets of Washington soliciting "influence" to obtain, not an office or a pension, but the poor privilege of apprenticing one of her boys to a bricklayer *who was willing to take him*. And it was refused her, ruthlessly, tyrannically; and to this day that American boy, after having heard much encouraging talk in a public

school about the inestimable birthright of being an American boy, and after living within the hearing of the speeches of members of Congress concerning their love for the working classes, and their abhorrence of capitalists, corporations, millionaires, monopolists, and employers in general, has not been allowed to earn his bread by laying bricks. The woman is dead now: hard work and many disappointments, anxieties, and cares dragged her down; but to her dying day she cursed trades-unions as despots who had mercilessly degraded her children to the lowest caste, and blocked against them every accessible avenue of advancement. Philanthropic ignorance pats these monopolists on the back, rejoices that they are elevating themselves, and tells them to keep on, but in a lawful way, *i. e.*, without riots or breaches of the peace. The worldliness of the world is indeed exemplified by its action in the field of manual labor. It serves power. The stronger are helped and encouraged and coddled; monopolies as odious as any of those against which the Parliament of Elizabeth revolted are upheld; the really poor and deserving—agricultural toilers who furnish city artisans with wheat at sixty cents a bushel, women who furnish ready-made clothing with no eight-hour limit to their toil, men who do the most wearisome part of the work at one-third of the others' wages and with the hope of better things shut out—these receive much commiseration and some alms, but scarcely a defensive word, from the demagogue in Congress up to the minister in the pulpit. This thing is the Slavery of to-day.

BISMARCK CONTRA CORONAM.—II.

Das Deutsche Reich zur Zeit Bismarcks: Politische Geschichte von 1871 bis 1890. Von Dr. Hans Blum. Leipzig and Vienna: Bibliographisches Institut; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 1893. Large 8vo, pp. xx, 708.

The death of William I. in 1888 and the accession of the Emperor Frederick in no wise affected the Chancellor's position. Bismarck's most persistent enemies, the Prussian Clericals and Tories, could expect no favor from so liberal a monarch; and the advanced Liberals, who constantly asserted Frederick's sympathy with their aspirations, appear, from Dr. Blum's statements, to have exercised little influence. The only serious conflict of the dying Emperor's brief reign was due to the scheme of a marriage between one of his daughters and Prince Alexander of Battenberg—a scheme, we are told, of English origin, strongly supported by the two Victorias. Bismarck declared that such a marriage would seriously compromise Germany's relations with Russia. An English attempt to obtain a contrary statement from the Russian court failed, and the Emperor decided against the marriage.

With the succession in the same year of William II., Bismarck's position seemed assured him for the rest of his life. He himself, we are told, had no doubts on this point. But the restless ambition of the young ruler soon made him chafe under the Chancellor's somewhat dictatorial counsels. It is clear that Bismarck regarded the new Emperor as an apprentice in statecraft—a pupil of promise, indeed, who might some day be "his own chancellor," but not until the death of his preceptor; and it is equally clear that William soon began to entertain the idea of an earlier emancipation. There were many who stood ready to suggest it. Military, Conservative and Clerical "under-currents" were again in evidence. For a time it was Count Waldersee, Moltke's successor as chief of the general staff, who was to be Chancellor, but the subterranean operations in his favor were checked by some mysterious countermine, and he was assigned to a departmental command.

Cases of "friction," however, between the Emperor and the Chancellor grew frequent; and the latter became aware that certain members of the Prussian ministry were working against him. He demanded that the cabinet order of 1852, according to which the Prussian ministers were to report through the President of the ministry and not directly to the monarch, should be enforced. This demand the Emperor met with a proposal to revoke the order in question. To this proposal, conveyed through a "confidant," Bismarck refused his ministerial assent, "in some such words," says Dr. Blum, "as the following":

"'If the King desires to limit Prince Bismarck's powers as Prussian Minister-President, his Majesty must himself act as Minister-President, of which office, as a matter of fact, his Majesty is already exercising the powers.' The Emperor responded . . . that he had no idea of himself assuming the position of Minister-President, and demanded from Prince Bismarck a memorial on the subject" (page 668).

The relations between the monarch and the minister were obviously strained to the point of breaking. They actually broke on a matter of slight intrinsic consequence. In the elections of February, 1890, the governmental majority of Conservatives and National Liberals had been converted into a minority, and Bismarck saw himself forced to reopen negotiations with the Centre. For this purpose he had an interview, on the 12th of March, with the Centrist leader, Windthorst. Of this interview and the events which followed, the discreet Dr. Blum gives an account in hypothetical form. "It is not improbable," he says, that Windthorst offered, on certain conditions, not only to support the measures of the Government in Parliament, but also to support the Chancellor "even in differences of opinion between the latter and his imperial master." "The assumption is equally well founded" that Prince Bismarck declined to enter into any such alliance. Distorted accounts of the interview were almost immediately carried to the Emperor. Among other untruths, it was represented that Bismarck "had shown himself not disinclined to an alliance with the Centre against the Emperor." The Emperor immediately sent the chief of his civil cabinet to the Chancellor to demand, for the future, preliminary notification of any political interview between the Prince and members of Parliament. Bismarck refused to give any such promise. Early on the morning of March 15, before Bismarck was out of bed, the Emperor came to see him. A stormy scene followed, in which the Emperor demanded information regarding the negotiations with Windthorst, and was met by a point-blank refusal. The matter was a private one, so far as Bismarck was concerned, and the commands of his royal master stopped at the threshold of his wife's drawing-room. The interview closed with a statement, by Bismarck, that he had retained his official position thus far only because of a promise to William I., and was ready to give it up whenever the Emperor desired.

Early on the 17th of March the Emperor sent word that he was waiting for Bismarck's resignation. The Prince refused to resign, on grounds of conscience and of self-respect. He did not think it right to abandon his post in the existing position of European affairs, and his resignation would present "a false historical picture of the facts in the case." The Emperor must dismiss him. A second messenger came, in the course of the day, with a direct order from the Emperor that the Prince should send in his resignation within a given number of hours. At the same time Bismarck was informed that the Emperor intended to make him Duke of Lauenburg. The Prince responded that he might have had that title before if he had wished it. He was then assured (referring to the grounds on which he had previously declined the title) that the Emperor would pledge himself to secure such a legislative grant as would suffice for the proper maintenance of the ducal dignity. Bismarck declined this also, declaring that he could not be expected to close such a career as his had been "by running after a gratuity such as is given to a faithful letter-carrier at New Year's." His resignation, of course, he would send in as soon as possible, but he owed it to himself and to history to draw up a proper memorial. This he took two days to write. It was a detailed explanation of the reasons why he had refused to resign save at the express command of his monarch. He has since repeatedly demanded the publication of this memorial, but without success. This whole narrative (pages 668–670), in spite of its partly conjectural form and the standing qualification of "somewhat as follows" which precedes every citation of Bismarck's language, is of course Bismarck's own account of the causes and details of his dismissal.

On March 20, the Emperor, in a most graciously worded letter (which was immediately published), accepted Bismarck's "resignation." He had learned "with deep emotion" of Bismarck's resolution to retire from active service. He was compelled, "with a grieved heart," to accept the resignation, because he saw, from the reasons given, that it would be useless to try to induce the Prince to reconsider his decision. At the same time the Emperor conferred upon Bismarck the title which the latter had twice declined (and has since persistently refused to use), and also promised to send his own "life-size portrait." What disposition Bismarck has since made of this work of art we are not informed. The immediate nomination of his successor forced Bismarck to quit the Chancellor's official residence in such haste that, as was stated a few months later in a German newspaper, it was impossible to pack his effects properly, and many articles of value were irrecoverably lost. "Bismarck himself compared his exit to the expulsion of a German family from Paris in 1870."

In this catastrophe it appears that no feminine influence was at work. We are expressly told that the present Empress was sincerely attached to the Chancellor. In her childhood, indeed, the Princess of Schleswig-Holstein, whose father Bismarck had deprived of a confidently expected crown, had been taught to regard him as a bogy; her French-Swiss nurse used to frighten her with "Bismarck is coming!" But before her marriage she had learned to admire him, and later she had come to hold him in the highest esteem. Dr. Blum cites a speech of hers, made before the death of William I., in conversation with a member of the Imperial Parliament:

"May the German people never forget their proud history. Their illustrious Emperor and their great Chancellor are still living; if they are always mindful of the love and reverence which they owe the former, and of the gratitude to which the latter has so just a claim, it will be the better for us and for our future. The time will come when the proud but true

words of an English King. 'Now they revile me, but when I am dead they will wish to dig me out of the ground with their nails,' will be applied to Bismarck. May that time be long in coming."

Introduced immediately after the story of Bismarck's dismissal, and without comment, this citation is unquestionably an effective bit of polemics; but it is a pity that Dr. Blum and his patron could not have denied themselves the pleasure of this thrust. Not even in criminal procedure is it permissible to use the testimony of a wife against her husband.

In the concluding chapter the ensuing public conflict between Bismarck and the crown is described *in extenso*. The Prince's weapons were inspired editorials and personal interviews. Those of the Emperor were circular notes and threats of prosecution; the omission of even formal invitations to public ceremonies, and requests to foreign courts to withhold from the Prince even social recognition; and, finally, a withdrawal of favors and privileges from all Bismarck's friends and admirers. His special historian, Von Poschinger, found himself excluded from the state archives; and the great historical work of Von Sybel, the keeper of the archives, was interrupted before it reached its natural conclusion. These writers had already found cause to praise Bismarck, and would probably have found more.

Dr. Blum defends Bismarck's caustic criticism of the imperial policy on grounds of patriotic duty, and he roundly denounces, not the Emperor, of course, but his responsible advisers, for the ingratitude and malevolence displayed by the crown. To outsiders it seems a pitiful affair on both sides. It is impossible to acquit William II. of all the charges brought against him, but it is equally impossible not to regret the undignified and inconsistent attitude of the ex-Chancellor. A life like Bismarck's, characterized by zealous loyalty to his king and filled with extraordinary services not to his country alone but to the dynasty, should not have closed in an open conflict with the crown and attempts to make its wearer contemptible. The German people, the great majority of whom are sincerely loyal to the monarchic principle and justly proud of Bismarck's public career, may well rejoice that so unseemly a strife has now been ended.

Essays about Men, Women, and Books. By Augustine Birrell. Charles Scribner's Sons.

One of the charms of Mr. Birrell's essays, for people who have opinions of their own, is their casual air. His most polished performance—the two volumes entitled 'Obiter Dicta'—is more like a sequence of happy accidents of thought than a premeditated judgment intended to be authoritative. He may go gloriously wrong with impunity because he is so far from posing as infallible, or from assuming that he speaks the last word. He has no theory to expound, and no pet philosophy to the illustration of which all facts are to be warped. The only opinion especially dear to him is that literature ought to do more and better than instruct and edify; that its mission is to please, to solace the weary, to humanize the wicked—in fact, to be an everlasting comfort and joy in this frequently uncomfortable and joyless world. His work forms a convincing tribute to his discrimination in selecting for positiveness an opinion he was so well prepared to live up to; it is so agreeable and so polite. We cannot imagine him unpleasant or uncivil, unless to the soulless wight who should assert that Dr. Johnson was neither great nor good, and that all Charles Lamb's splendid virtues of character go for naught in face of the disgraceful fact that he occasionally got drunk. He can differ and disapprove without a scowl or a volley of vituperative adjectives. Though not enraptured with the little book 'Americanisms and Briticisms,' the harshest thing he finds to say about it is:

"To try to make an international affair over the 'u' in honour and the second 'l' in traveller is surely a task beneath the dignity of any one who does not live by penning paragraphs for the evening papers."

About the same author's fervent appeal to good Americans to remember, always to remember, that the British are foreigners (an appeal which leads us to suppose that he is holding Sir Walter Scott and other innocent scribblers responsible for British gold and the Cobden Club), Mr. Birrell only exclaims: "What rant is this!"

No more deeply in love is he with Marie Bashkirtseff, yet he lets off that garrulous person, in whose presence ordinary decency shrinks away abashed, with a smile at the interest she took in her "arms and legs, hips and shoulders, hopes and fears, pictures and future glory." If Miss Bashkirtseff were still alive, we should have resented Mr. Birrell's mildness, but, fortunately for her mother and aunt and maid, she is dead, and the people who compared her with Rousseau must perceive that, though she had a glibness in self-revelation comparable to Jean Jacques', and was to the full as untrammelled by notions of propriety, she had not for several reasons his staying power.

Miss Hannah More is the only other woman noticed in the volume. There is something humorous in the juxtaposition—*les extrêmes se touchent*. Most of us are sadly familiar with the class to which Miss Bashkirtseff belonged; it was not the class to which Mr. Birrell relegates the verbose Hannah:

"This class may be imperfectly described as 'the well-to-do Christian.' It inhabited snug places in the country, and kept an excellent, if not dainty table. . . . Its pet virtue was church twice on Sunday, and its peculiar horrors theatrical entertainments, dancing, and three-penny point. Outside its garden wall lived the poor, who, if virtuous, were for ever courtesying to the ground or wearing neat uniforms, except when expiring upon truckle-beds beseeching God to bless the young ladies of the Grange or the Manor House, as the case might be."

If an imperfect memory of books permitted to be read on Sunday and never voluntarily opened on any other day is not too treacherous, it was on this class that Miss More fondly lingered through nineteen volumes, and we cannot agree with Mr. Birrell that the lot was cheap at eight shillings and sixpence, unless he found therein the story of the old lady's cruel deception by her presumably adoring menials.

The stories the author is constantly telling about the object of his discourse are the best proof of his fitness; this is the last touch of intimacy. It is to be regretted that he has not told more stories of the famous dead—that when he chose to write at all of Swift, for instance, he had not chosen to write more. It is a fault in some of these latest essays that they are too casual, and that the chain of thought is not smoothly linked. The essays on Sterne and Gay are mere notes, in which, we think, more than justice is done to the former and less to the latter. Mr. Birrell says, though with hesitation, that 'Tristram Shandy' is one of the most popular books in the language. Granting his limited understanding of "popular," his exclusion of that public which he remarks somewhere gets its "intellectual like its lacteal sustenance sent round to it in carts," from Mudie, such a statement is enthusiastic. More praise might easily be given to Gay's originality, since in "The Beggar's Opera" he is a genuine creator, and, though possibly better men and better poets may have been denied burial in Westminster Abbey, it is not likely that any better loved man lies there. "Gay," says Thackeray, "was lazy, kindly, uncommonly idle, rather slovenly, I'm afraid; for ever eating and saying good things; a little round French Abbé of a man, sleek, soft-handed, and soft-hearted." Nevertheless, even when he had ceased to be amusing, everybody, including Swift and Pope, loved him. Nobody, so far as we know, has tried to solve the mystery of Gay's hold on the affections of his contemporaries. Yet it is a much more cheerful subject for the speculative than is the mystery of the classic rage of the Dean of St. Patrick. Mr. Birrell says that the mystery and the misery of Swift's life have not been got rid of by his latest biographer, Mr. Collins. We agree with Dr. Johnson that the mystery of facts may, without regret, be left in that obscurity in which Swift delighted to involve them, and would also, were we not privileged to be a contemporary of M. Zola, echo the doctor's grave wish to be informed what there is in deformity, disease, and filth that may attract the human intellect delightedly to dwell upon them. But for the mystery of character which puzzled Scott and Thackeray, and baffles Mr. Birrell, is it not pretty well dissipated by reflection on the conflict between Swift's nature and his conditions? Thackeray, in his incomparable presentation of Swift, seems to have unconsciously disposed of his mystery:

"It was at Shene and at Moor Park, with a salary of twenty pounds and *a dinner at the upper servants' table*, that this great and lonely Swift passed a ten years' apprenticeship—wore a cassock that was only not a livery—bent down a knee as proud as Lucifer's to supplicate my lady's good graces, or run on his honor's errands."

A man of intellect as great, but of gentler temperament, might have forgotten the man and forgiven the God who had subjected him to such ignominy, might even have wrung from the torture some sweet spiritualizing grace. But Swift's temper was demoniac. It seems superfluous to be attributing to him secret infamies and crimes.

Mr. Birrell's aptness in discovering unconscious humor in his fellow-man is nicely indicated in "Parliamentary Candidates," and the fun latent in so solemn a document as a report of a Royal Commission is quite beautifully disclosed in "The Bona-fide Traveller." The question here argued is, Who may lawfully get a drink at an inn on Sunday? Only a bona-fide traveller, say the law-makers, and he, Mr. Birrell explains, "has to make out a special case for being supplied with drink. The fact that he is thirsty counts for nothing. Everybody is thirsty on Sunday." Here he utters an incontrovertible truth. The distress caused by a Monday or Tuesday closing-act would be light indeed compared with that inflicted by a Sunday act. In the last essay, "Authors and Critics," Mr. Birrell makes a statement which, though partially true, is not incontrovertible. He says that the habit of reviewing new books in literary papers is a trade thing directly referable to the advertising columns. That means that the publisher says to the editor, "Review my books or you won't get my patronage." The editor passes on the "mandate" to the

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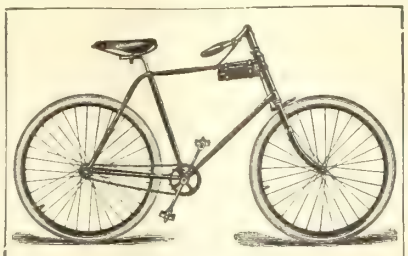

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 29, 1894.

The Week.

IT is interesting to compare the advice President Cleveland has been getting in regard to the seigniorage bill from its Western and Southern supporters with the comments which the same element made on his Cooper Union letter in 1891. The main point of it has been that, his party being largely pro-silver in the West and South, to veto this bill would mark the party for defeat at the coming election. Turning to the *Tribune* file for February, 1891, we find in a Washington despatch giving the views of Democratic Congressmen about the Cleveland letter, a declaration by Mr. Bland that "Mr. Cleveland's letter makes his candidacy for the Presidency ridiculous. He will have no following west of the Allegheny Mountains." Mr. Crisp of Georgia, now Speaker, was cautious in expression, but regarded the letter "as a mistake." Mr. Tillman of South Carolina said: "I regard Mr. Cleveland as politically dead, and I would not like to kick a dead man," so he refrained from further comment. Mr. Hurd of Missouri said the letter put Mr. Cleveland out of the race for the Democratic nomination. Mr. Sayers of Texas predicted that his nomination after this letter would "give life and activity to the third-party movement." Mr. Stewart of Texas declared that Mr. Cleveland "should be left out"; and so the comments went on. The results show how little these political place-holders could estimate public opinion. Mr. Dargan of South Carolina put the matter in a nutshell when he said, "The letter may hurt him with the politicians, but it will strengthen him with the people." Every one of Mr. Cleveland's courageous steps, whether in regard to the currency or the tariff, has called out these same alarming cries from the politicians, and received the same appreciative support from the people. There is no reason to believe that the history of the seigniorage bill will be any different.

The Springfield *Republican* announces the adhesion of Charles Francis Adams to the neo-bimetallists of Boston, and quotes from a letter written by him to Senator Carey of Wyoming the reasons for the faith that is in him, thus:

"'The financial troubles of last summer, due entirely to the withdrawal of a small amount of gold from this country, have satisfied me that a gold monometallic basis is altogether dangerous.' It might do, he says, in times of peace and quiet; but let any disturbance come, let any nation, in view of impending international trouble, deem it necessary to strengthen itself by drawing a hundred millions of gold into its coffers, and 'the entire exchanges of the whole world would be disturbed.'"

Opinions may differ as to whether the financial troubles of last summer were due to the withdrawal of gold, or whether the withdrawal of gold was due to the financial troubles, but there is abundant evidence to show that Mr. Adams's fear that "the entire exchanges of the whole world would be disturbed" by any nation drawing $100,000,000 of gold into its coffers, is groundless. Take an example. In 1880 the United States imported $80,758,396 gold, and in 1881 $100,031,259 more of the same metal, or $180,789,655 in two years. Deducting our exports of gold during the same period, we had a net importation of $174,585,498 in two consecutive years. This was exclusive of our own gold production. This drawing of gold into our coffers was accomplished without disturbing the entire exchanges of the whole world, or any part of them. On the contrary, the exchanges of the world were very much promoted by this gold movement. There is the best reason for believing that they could not have been carried on without it. So Mr. Adams must perceive the danger of building generalizations on too narrow a basis of facts.

Mr. Adams holds, however, that international coöperation is necessary to cure these evils. His view, according to the *Republican*, is this: "If we hang on to our present course, we can whip England into line for an international agreement within three years." If these are Mr. Adams's sentiments, he is the first man who has had the boldness to fix a time for whipping England into line. Others have told us that England would be brought to her knees some time by reason of a single gold standard, but they have prudently omitted to say when. We are glad to find somebody who fixes a time, and so short a time as three years. If this is really a safe prediction, we advise the new-fashioned bimetallists of Boston to take up the question of a ratio at once. They will need at least three years to settle that among themselves. The present market ratio is 35 to 1. Between that figure and the Latin Union ratio of 15½—the favorite ratio of all great bimetallists—there is abundant room for choice and also for dispute. Mr. Inglis Palgrave was recently asked to write down a few objections to bimetallism for the attention and criticism of Mr. H. H. Gibbs, who is perhaps the greatest light of that school in England. He wrote down as one objection of a practical nature the difficulty of choosing a ratio which the finance ministers of the world would agree to be bound by and to execute in good faith. Mr. Gibbs adjourns this difficulty to the day when the nations agree to try the scheme; that is, to the Greek kalends. Meanwhile, the world will go about its business much as usual. It will let the bimetallists do the talking, and gold will do the rest.

The most unfortunate feature of the new silver movement started by Gen. Francis A. Walker in Boston is the fact that it gives the rest of the country a false impression as to public sentiment in the East. The silver lunatics of the South and West are not given to fine distinctions, and do not take the trouble to read with discrimination long papers on financial topics. They jump to the conclusion that Walker, Adams, and other men whose names are known to them are in favor of silver coinage like themselves, and by another jump decide that this must be the sentiment of New England. This impression is now being given to the people of the South and West by many of the newspapers which publish and comment upon the Boston outgivings, and it naturally has a marked effect in reviving the financial craze which had begun to abate after the repeal of the silver-purchase act. There is really no ground for the belief that public sentiment in Massachusetts on the silver question is any less sound today than it has always been, but it is not strange that the recent developments should deceive people at a distance. This is the most deplorable aspect of the matter.

The form of words finally agreed upon by the Senate finance committee to effect the repeal of the reciprocity agreements is as follows:

"All agreements or arrangements made or proclaimed between the United States and foreign governments under the provisions of said section are hereby abrogated; of which the President shall give such notice to the authorities of said foreign governments as may be required by the terms of such agreements or arrangements."

This would seem to argue that the learned Senators have not even yet got over their muddle on this subject. If they had stopped with "hereby abrogated," they would have been on solid ground; but their going on to talk about the President's giving the "required notice" lands them in the quagmire again. Take the agreement with Brazil, for example. That has a clause which says that it "shall remain in force so long as neither government shall definitely, at least three months in advance, inform the other of its intention and decision to consider it at an end at the expiration of the time indicated; provided, however, that the termination shall begin to take effect either

on the first day of January or the first day of July." According to that, there would be no way of ending the Brazilian agreement, under the terms of this Senate amendment, before January, 1895. The case is different with the Spanish arrangement, which specially maintains "the respective right of the Congress of the United States and of the Cortes of Spain to modify or repeal said arrangement whenever they may think proper."

The committee's action shows far too much deference for the so-called treaties and far too little for the power of Congress over taxation. Even if those treaties were worthy of the name, they could be overthrown on the spot by Congress. In the Chinese-exclusion case the Supreme Court held that a law of Congress in violation of a treaty was only the exercise of a sovereign right to cancel a treaty. But the McKinley treaties were no treaties, were never submitted to the Senate for ratification, and were only individual agreements between President Harrison and the State Departments of other countries.

It really begins to look as though the limit of pension appropriations had at last been reached. The amount provided for the next fiscal year is in round numbers $14,000,000 less than for the current year, and ex-Commissioner Black, who is now a member of the House, thinks that the appropriation just made of about $151,000,000 will never be exceeded, but that the amount will steadily decrease. This is encouraging, but there is no doubt that if the element of fraud could be eliminated, the pension appropriation might be cut down to the extent of many millions every year. The New York *Times* is publishing the results of careful investigations which it has made, sampling the pension lists in various parts of the country, which show specifically case after case where men able to earn good wages are drawing pensions for total disability. The disclosures which it has made indicate that there must be a vast number of such fraudulent pensioners, and it will be a reproach to the Government if steps are not taken to overhaul the list and relieve the taxpayers of the unjust burden thus imposed upon them.

The anarchy which has reigned in New Jersey since the Senate was divided in January, was happily brought to a close by the Supreme Court of that State on Wednesday week. Gov. Werts comes out of the affair very badly. It is hard to believe that he could have been deceived as to the illegal character of the minority Senate he so promptly recognized at the beginning of the year. He knew that his private secretary had to sneak out of one window and into another to find ten Senators claiming to be a majority of twenty-one; and a Governor not under the control of schemers would at least have waited to investigate the matter. Even if he was deceived at the beginning, the way of honorable retreat was open to him immediately thereafter, but he refused to embrace it. To say that he has hopelessly fallen in the estimation of his best friends is to put it mildly. Nor should mention be omitted of the attitude of the two United States Senators, McPherson and Smith. It has been asserted that they were actively in sympathy with the conspirators, if not actually directing them. This they will now deny, no doubt, but they cannot deny that they have sedulously refrained from saying a word in condemnation of an attempted outrage which the best men of their party were condemning all over the State. In its broader aspects the happiest effect of the decision will be the renewed respect for the judiciary which it will bring about. The decision was eminently non-partisan. Six of the eight judges of the court are Democrats, yet all but one of them united with the Republicans in completely annihilating the contention of their own party. The one dissenting judge is of precisely the character to make his dissent the crowning proof of the high impartiality of the others. This is judicial integrity and independence at its best. Bad and corrupting as the politics of New Jersey has been ever since Leon Abbett became its evil genius, it has not contaminated the higher courts. The old tradition of the learning and character required in a judge has not yet been broken down. It is well that it has not, as the courts are coming more and more to be seen as the one refuge left us against the triumph of trickery and crime passing themselves off as legitimate political methods.

There seems to be no doubt that a wave of greater reverence for the sanctity of the ballot is passing over the country. The very general adoption of the Australian ballot would show this, even if the numerous recent convictions of election cheats in this State did not illustrate it. Much of this is doubtless due to the greater facilities for detecting fraud offered by the new law. The detection of election frauds in the days of the old "bunched" ballot distributed on the sidewalk, and of "the blocks of five" who were marched to the polls by the contractors for a triumph or a "vindication," was almost impossible, and the feeling that it was very difficult or impossible had a good deal to do, we think, with the very light view taken of election frauds by the public. The apparent popular indifference to them for a great many years was, in fact, somewhat of an excuse for the crop of bosses which sprang up all over the country, some of whom met their fate in Brooklyn the other day. Mr. Jenks, the counsel for Newton, made very good use of this in arguing in mitigation of punishment before Judge Brown on Thursday. He said:

"No man will yield more sincerely than I to the truth of the proposition that crimes against the elective franchise and the purity of the ballot strike at the very fundamental rights of a free people and deserve condign punishment. In that I concur and agree with Mr. Shepard: and yet I would like to say to your Honor that there has been a great revulsion of public feeling on this subject, and that some years ago we had even the spectacle of a Vice-President of the United States at a public dinner laughing and making a by-word of the purity of elections. But public opinion when it comes swells like the Solway, and those who are in the way of public opinion must suffer. This management of elections was more or less of a political game, perhaps—I do not say in Gravesend, but in many parts of this State—and the atmosphere which surrounded the defendant and many other people was not the atmosphere, perhaps, that now obtains in that place and in other places. I do not ask your Honor's mercy on this account. I do not plead to your Honor that this is a new crime lately put into the Code of Procedure, but I simply ask your Honor to take into consideration the fact that this man has neither cut a throat, nor has he in the watches of the night stolen property, nor has he harmed any individual by an individual crime; and, if he has done wrong, he has done wrong in an atmosphere which has not enabled him, perhaps, to clearly see the things which public opinion must make all people see now, henceforth and for ever."

The Vice-President was Mr. Arthur. The remarks referred to were made at a dinner given to Dorsey, who had been secretary of the Republican National Committee in the canvass of 1880, and had almost ostentatiously bought the majority in Indiana. Mr. Arthur spoke of this victory, amid shouts of laughter, as having been achieved by the use of "soap." Everybody knew what he meant, and the joke was greatly relished. That was fourteen years ago. To-day such an incident would be impossible. A President or Vice-President who should go to a public dinner and boast of the corruption wrought by his party would be thought insane. Of course it was improvement in public opinion which brought about the adoption of the new system of voting, but that improvement could hardly have been maintained and intensified so as to send so many election cheats to the penitentiary, were it not for the evidence which the machinery of the new law supplies at every election of the increased popular regard for the purity of the franchise. The multiplied formalities necessary in casting a man's vote surround the act with a solemnity which was entirely wanting under the old system. It was all but impossible to make anybody feel that getting a small bit of paper from a red-nosed tramp in the street and dropping it into a box, was a very serious performance. So long as man is human he will not think much of things which cost him little trouble.

The Home Market Club of Boston has been caught raising money with "strict

privacy" for the purpose of helping elect a Populist Governor of Alabama next August. Its circular, marked "In confidence," prays the recipient "to avoid seeing any but discreet men and to impress upon them the importance of secrecy" in raising "at least $5,000 in New England" for the purpose of aiding "the most hopeful movement we have ever seen in the South." This gives full confirmation to the rumors that the Populist candidate, Kolb, succeeded, in his recent visit to Washington, in enlisting the New England Republicans of the baser sort in his cause. "Bill" Chandler was reported to be chief intriguer, but he left the letter-writing to Senator Hoar and Congressman Walker. Their precious missives are published along with the circular, and a fine type of political morality they disclose. Senator Hoar admits that Kolb is a fiat-money man and a socialist, but is sure that "in some way the forces he leads will be found acting with us in all great essentials in the future." Walker, too, is eager to support Kolb, though he observes that "it must be done as quietly as possible." An inspiring sight they are, these eminently respectable and conservative New England Republicans scheming in the dark to saddle a Governor upon Alabama like Waite in Colorado, and doing it under the motto, "Light Breaking in the South."

It is a fact of considerable interest and significance that, notwithstanding the panic of last year, the consumption of coal was about two million tons greater than in the previous year. The *Engineering and Mining Journal* has taken extraordinary pains to collect statistics on this subject, and it finds that the consumption of 1893 was 183,422,710 net tons, while that of 1892 was only 180,399,017 net tons. After making account of imports and exports, the remainder shows an increase in consumption of 1,881,943 tons. From this fact the *Journal* draws the reasonable inference that "the depression in business through the year could not have been so great in fact as it appeared on the surface. During the first half of the year," it continues, "business men worried over and continually talked about the depression in trade, when in fact they meant in prices. The continual talk about hard times caused capital to become far more conservative than there was any real reason for, and thus affected other branches of business. The semi-panic spread everywhere and caused infinite harm to many industries but, as the figures of coal production show, manufacturing interests throughout the country certainly have not suffered to the extent claimed and believed."

It is a curious coincidence that, on the very day that the ninetieth birthday of "the apostle of prohibition" was celebrated, there was published in the capital of Neal Dow's State the inaugural address of a new mayor, containing this passage:

> "I come to a subject of the highest import, and in which I feel, from my personal acquaintance with you, I have your hearty co-operation, and that is the extinction of the dram-shop. We have taken our solemn oaths to maintain law and order. We want to remove temptation from the unfortunate who has become a slave to appetite. We want peace and quietness to reign so that our wives and daughters can walk the streets without insult. Let us be careful that 'the trumpet utters no uncertain sound.'"

The Augusta *Journal* remarks that "in regard to the illegal sale of intoxicating liquors the mayor well says, 'We want peace,'" etc., so that it is evident that for some time past it has been impossible for women to walk the streets of Maine's capital without danger of insult from drunken loafers. Nor is the case of Augusta exceptional. Not long ago it was announced that the city marshal of Biddeford threatened to prosecute the city liquor agent for running an illegal rum-shop, at which hard drinkers could get all they wanted. There has been a similar scandal about the liquor agency in Portland within a year or two. As for Bangor, the saloons run openly there.

Reference was more than once made in the recent debates on protection in the French Chamber to the opinion of Cavour, that protection and socialism were one in essence, and that the former plays directly and infallibly into the hand of the latter. Cavour's own words were:

> "I maintain that the most powerful ally of socialism, in its logical relations, is the doctrine of protection. It sets out from absolutely the same principle. Reduced to its simplest terms, it affirms the right and duty of Government to intervene in the employment and distribution of capital; it affirms that the function and mission of Government are to substitute its more enlightened decisions for the free decision of the individual. If these principles should become recognized as incontestably true, I do not see what answer could be made to the working classes and their representatives when they came to the Government and said: 'You believe in the right and duty of regulating the distribution of capital; why not also take up the regulation of production and wages? why not establish Government workshops?'"

This is an extract from a speech delivered in Turin in 1851, and the political history of Germany and France and the United States for the past twenty years stands as the sufficient justification of the Italian's forecast. It goes very well with a saying of Bastiat's, reported by Léon Say as having been uttered back in the forties, that the only difference between a protectionist and a socialist was that the former was a man who had an income of 50,000 livres, while the socialist hadn't a sou.

It is cheering to find socialists in one part of the world actually recognizing the difficulty of securing the money to carry on their experiments. The Paris Municipal Council, which is filled with socialists of one stripe or another, has been voting to raise the wages of class after class of municipal employees, until it started up a perfect fury among all hands to have pay doubled and work cut in half. Petitions to that effect have been raining upon the Council from the men who work in the parks and gardens, and pave the streets, and clean the sewers, and labor in the water-works, and drive cattle through the city, and attend doors in public buildings. All of them represent themselves as in a condition to make use of more of the city's money to great advantage. A committee had to be appointed to take all these petitions and complaints into consideration, and its chairman made a report the other day which contained at least one solemn truth. It was that "the public treasury is not inexhaustible." This was a hard saying for the socialistic Council, but as they would be bound to raise by taxation the extra money they might vote away, and were not able, therefore, with Director Ely, comfortably to consider all these grovelling details of finance from "a broad social standpoint," they sorrowfully concluded that they could not raise wages all round. This is a practical denial of the socialist idea of the State as a good-natured kind of old uncle with a bottomless purse. The socialists find their true motto in that saying of Dr. Johnson when he stood gazing at the ancestral seat of the Dukes of Argyll: "What I admire in this is the total disregard of expense."

Whether the report proves true or false that Peixoto, since the collapse of the Brazilian rebellion, has revived some obsolete imperial laws under which he can execute without trial all the insurgents and their abettors who may fall into his hands, its reception here is in marked contrast with that accorded the news about the "bloodthirsty" Hawaiian Queen. She simply proposed to try revolutionists by existing laws, which they had helped frame and under which they had been living with their eyes open. That was a monstrous thing, to characterize which properly the classical dictionaries and the encyclopædias had to be subjected to a terrible strain to furnish parallels. Peixoto makes some laws of his own to feed his vengeance, and it is only an act of stern republican justice, fit to be headed, as it was in one paper, "Death to Enemies of Brazil." This is nothing more nor less than the old doctrine of absolutism applied to republics. "The republic can do no wrong." The natural corollary is that a queen can do nothing but wrong—especially a queen to whom you have done nothing but wrong.

SERIOUSNESS IN LEGISLATORS.

When England counts up her debts to Mr. Gladstone, which are so many, she will find that not the least among them is that he restored a temper of seriousness to Parliament. For many years the favorite statesman of Englishmen was Lord Palmerston, a man of amazing talents, but of a temper pervaded with flippancy and jocoseness and a love of mischief, which was sure to break out on all sorts of occasions. He exhibited in all perfection one type of the English public-school boy—the type that never grows up, and is to the last incapable of being serious for any length of time; in earnest only about his games, in fun about his business, and always ready for a lark or a joke. A great deal of his foreign policy, which made him positively detested in Europe and the United States, proceeded from his unconquerable love of mischief, which was well exhibited in an early cartoon of *Punch*, that represented "Palmerston, the naughty boy, setting England and France [a bulldog and a poodle] together by the ears." In his management of the House of Commons he would repeatedly turn off the most serious complaints and the most urgent remonstrances for mistakes or inaction by repartees and jokes, delivered with a lazy jauntiness which made five-sixths of his hearers laugh and the other sixth ready to cry. Perhaps the climax of this flippancy was when John Bright remarked upon the unchristian boastfulness of the speeches that had escorted Sir Charles Napier's fleet to the Baltic, and to his grave and earnest protest Lord Palmerston began his answer with "the honorable and reverend gentleman." For this he was called to order; but the House in his long career repeatedly condoned phraseology hardly less impertinent.

This tone and temper Lord Palmerston derived in a great measure from his brother-in-law, Lord Melbourne, a man probably of greater natural talents and sweeter disposition, but at the same time of much greater indolence, possessed with a love of taking things easy; so that when his indolence had brought affairs to a pass where no serious excuse could be made, he was obliged to divert public indignation with a laugh. Both these distinguished men had sat at the feet of a far greater man, namely, George Canning, who, as an orator, a statesman, and a friend of humanity, was very nearly up to the level of such men as Burke, but who was cursed from the very beginning of his career to the end by the temper which inspired him in the *Anti-Jacobin*, a positive delight in laughing his antagonists out of court when he could not argue them down. The line of jokers in high office might be traced back historically through Sheridan to Lord North. But it is better worth while to consider its later developments and checks. The wit of Palmerston, rarely bitter, was encountered by the wit of Disraeli, which was rarely otherwise. But essentially different as the two men were in almost every other particular, they agreed in this, that they appeared always ready to get out of a tight place by a joke, and so, frequently, gave the impression of being serious about nothing—of playing politics as a game, sometimes for mere fun, sometimes for profit—but rarely from disinterested principle.

With the advent of Mr. Gladstone to power, all this became changed. He too had been a favorite of Canning, but only towards the end of the great orator's life. His real political ancestors are Peel, Pitt, and Chatham. From all of them he derived the feeling that the political affairs of a great nation are matters of serious conviction, and, in Parliament or out of Parliament, in office or out of office, in party or out of party, they are not to be treated flippantly or mischievously. Mr. Gladstone could—if one must speak in the past tense—be sarcastic for a moment, but he never could be a jester by profession. He might laugh a troublesome antagonist down, but he would not laugh a great question away. The effect of this temper on English politics has been great. There has been an end of jauntiness—of government by joke. The only public man who has shown signs of cultivating this temper—Lord Randolph Churchill—has proved a failure as a statesman Disraeli's own sarcasm changed its direction in his later administrations. Lord Salisbury and his nephew, Arthur Balfour, who might not be indisposed to Palmerston's methods, have shown a self-restraint and a disposition to treat serious things seriously to him unknown; and the same is true of Chamberlain. Sir William Harcourt alone has sedulously cultivated the old method; but it has not increased his influence, and it stands decidedly in his way as a leader at this day. For nearly thirty years the House of Commons has taken things seriously.

The House of Representatives does not take things seriously; or, rather, it is decidedly disposed to take things jocosely. The House of Representatives is divided not too unequally between two parties, with a small but conspicuous third party. The majority party, as has been abundantly proved, has no head on the floor of the House; the minority has a head, experienced, crafty, eloquent, and jocose. He sets the tone at all times. It would be in vain to deny to Mr. Reed not only great parliamentary and partisan talents, but great talents of a higher sort. He belongs to the first rank of politicians—he is very near being a statesman. But he is above all a wit. He loses no opportunity to make a joke and give a dig, chiefly at Democrats, but not infrequently at Republicans who lay themselves open to him. He is as willing to turn the laugh on Morse or Pickler as on Springer or Talbert. And this tone, as with Lord Palmerston, has infected the members. Seated at their desks, or rather wandering among them, they look from the gallery like a body of schoolboys, and a little longer acquaintance with them does not fail to deepen that impression. They behave pretty well with the headmaster in the chair; they are much less orderly when he puts a submaster in it. They are always availing themselves of an excuse to go out, to talk, to neglect their lessons, to play. When they get up to speak, both the speaker and the audience singularly remind one of a boy declaiming or reciting sums to a very listless school in recitation times, with the master answering questions *sotto voce* at his desk. When "Buck" Kilgore rises to object, it is exactly like a big idle boy, who has not got his own lesson, making an excuse to put off the recitation he dreads. Anything the least like a joke, however feeble or absurd, is instantly seized on, sets the audience in a roar, and breaks up everything; every chance for a personal altercation, "You did!" "I didn't," is seized upon, in spite of all the Speaker's hammering.

It is all very good-natured—the sharpest belligerents in debate are the best friends out of it. But when the great leader, now of the minority, but heretofore and probably hereafter of the majority, is always ready to give things a jocose or sarcastic turn, how shall things become more manly? We have said there is no leader on the other side. Mr. Wilson has broken himself down with overwork; the Speaker's leadership is felt oftener than seen; and of another prominent Democrat, who, when he is present, comes very near being a leader, can we say that he is a serious statesman? Mr. Bourke Cockran is astute, popular, eloquent; but is there not an almost insurmountable obstacle to taking him seriously? Surely his best friends and warmest admirers would find his prototype in Sheridan rather than Grattan—more at home in a row than in a battle.

There are, of course, on the floor of the House many men who are earnest, studious, thoughtful, conscientious; who appreciate as truly as Gladstone or Northcote that even party politics is earnest, and statesmanship most serious. There is, unquestionably, transacted a great deal of useful business; and even where business is blocked, talents are displayed. But in order that the House of Representatives shall be what it ought to be, unrivalled among legislative councils; in order that both parties may demonstrate their fitness to govern a great nation, they must take a leaf from Mr. Gladstone's book, and show that great leaders of great parties in great countries have a nobler ambition than sending a laugh running along the desks and putting their adversaries in a hole.

FICTITIOUS WAR.

It is the fashion with persons of the Jingo persuasion, when they are trying to cultivate the national taste for war, and thus extract from the national legislature larger levies of men and more money for ships, to compose accounts of fictitious engagements by sea and land. In these engagements either the national forces, after performing prodigies of valor, are worsted, owing to great inferiority in numbers, or they inflict on the enemy defeats so frightful that the heart of every reader glows with patriotic pride. The former method is usually the more successful one in England, where foreign invasion can be used as a bugbear. In this country, where invasion is out of the question and a land war grossly improbable, the latter is preferred, and our navy is made to scour the seas, the dread and envy of all nations. When our ship meets one of the enemy's, it simply "blows it out of the water," and makes "copy" of the very best quality for all the newspapers in the country.

Harper's Monthly, we are sorry to say, which used to be, as well as the *Weekly*, a "journal of civilization," has handed over its pages to one of these descriptions of imaginary sea fights by Lieut. Staunton of the navy, who tells us all about it under the heading of "A Battleship in Action." The article is profusely illustrated. There is "the challenge" to the enemy; a scene "in the depths of the ship"; "in the turret"; in the "secondary battery," in the "cockpit"; there is a "stand by to ram"; and a "military top"; until finally the enemy, seeing the ram coming, strikes her colors. There are, too, the usual number of wounded and dead men lying about the decks, and all the other well-known horrors. Here is what happened at the height of the action:

"Sweeping on with majesty and power, the two battle-ships came abeam at 300 yards, and with a blinding crash and roar, the jets of flame and smoke almost interlacing, their terrible broadsides were poured into each other. At such a distance to miss such a mark was almost impossible. Great breaches were made through the unarmored portions of both hulls; mangled men were blown along the decks by the explosion of heavy shells; bulkheads were demolished and guns dismounted. An eight-inch turret in the *Farragut* and a ten-inch turret in her antagonist were pierced, and their guns disabled. *It was a hell of destruction and death*, and the six-pounders kept up their murderous fire as the vessels rapidly separated."

This is all a very old story, very familiar to the world eighty years ago. The reason for reviving it now Lieut. Staunton unconsciously lets slip in the following paragraph:

"As yet each vessel ignored the other's presence. But to a thousand human beings the issue was one of life or death, and *to the two captains much more than that*—the crowning effort of serious and arduous professional lives, that crucial test long studied and long prepared for, success in which meant fame and honor, while failure meant reproach and bitter mortification, if not a broken and ruined career."

That is to say, the lives of "the thousand human beings" were imperilled, and the Christian nation at home filled with a savage African joy over the account of their dismemberment and disembowelment, in order to enable the two captains to achieve "fame and honor," and make with success "the crowning effort of serious and arduous professional lives."

What interested us most in this article, however, was the cause of the war which was to create "these hells of destruction and death." On turning to this, we were more than ever satisfied of the truth of Mr. Labouchere's maxim, that "Satan finds some mischief still for idle ships to do," or, in other words, that there is not a nation in the world which keeps a navy for simple self-defence or for the preservation of order on the seas. Behind every navy of any size there lurks a secret determination to bully some weaker power, or make somebody who has no navy "stand round." Lieut. Staunton's reasons for going to war are useful as giving us the naval idea, in case we had a great navy, of the causes which would justify us in treating the American public to grand spectacular "hell." It appears that the United States and some other nation (name not mentioned, but undoubtedly England) got irritated "over unfortunate questions of commercial influence and control." This irritation, strange to say, had been aggravated by "the rapid progress of work on the Nicaragua Canal." "The prosperity and population of the United States had continued rapidly to increase." Our commerce had been restored. The sea was again covered with our commercial marine. "The markets of South America were filling up with American manufactured goods, and their carrying-trade was under the control of American lines of steamers." "Slowly but surely European trade was being crowded out by the competition of the United States." "Our flag had once more become a familiar sight in the ports of the world."

Well, the European statesmen did not like this. Lieut. Staunton evidently holds that delightful old protectionist theory that nations you sell goods to are always in a towering rage with you because, instead of your taking their goods in exchange, you "carry the gold out of the country." Accordingly the larger their trade with the United States grew, and the more freight American vessels obtained, the more furious the European nations became, and at last they determined to control this business "by force of arms and subsequent treaty." So, one fine day, an American merchant captain violated some "discriminating custom-house regulations," and his ship was seized and he was arrested. Did he appeal to his minister for redress? Was there a diplomatic correspondence about him? Did he carry his case before the courts of the country? Did the secretary of state show that our custom-house claimed no such jurisdiction over foreign ships and crews in our ports? Not a bit of it.

"The captain of a United States cruiser sent an armed force on board the steamer, took her out of the hands of the customs officers, and escorted her to sea before the harbor authorities realized what was happening. A fast corvette was sent in pursuit, and an engagement took place between the public vessels in which men were killed and wounded on both sides."

Lieut. Staunton, the author of this contribution to the law of nations, has just gone to Honolulu as flag lieutenant to Admiral Walker. The magazine in which he publishes it as something very glorious for the education of the boys of the country, is one of the leading lights of periodical literature. The act which he describes as a legitimate cause of a respectable war is simply a bit of buccaneering which would disgrace King Lobengula, if he practised it on King Kama. Offering to follow it up with a "hell of destruction and death" does not improve it. It makes it worse. A man who presents his country to the world in such a rôle may be many good things, but he is certainly not a "good American." A "good American" is not a man who blows people out of the water on small or no provocation. He is a man who is just and fears not.

LIBELLOUS INTERVIEWING.

The committee of the Bar Association has reported against any change in the law of libel; but this is going too far. Some changes are necessary, but they are in the direction of greater stringency. For instance, nobody has proposed to take any action for the suppression of bogus interviews. The interview has, during the past thirty years, become an important and useful feature of journalism. It enables in many cases the only man who really knows anything about some matter of public interest to tell about it in his own way; and the reporter, in putting questions to him, directs his attention to the points in which the public feels the most interest and on which it most needs information. Moreover, many a man will submit to an interview who will not write a letter. There is something a little flattering to one's self-love in being sought after instead of volunteering. Even in writing a letter to the newspapers few men are capable of forgetting their dignity to the point of saying truthfully: "I have seen such and such things in your paper." The usual formula is, "My attention has been called to such and such things," etc. That is, he, consciously or unconsciously, likes to have it supposed that he does not see the paper, or only glances at it, owing to the

pressure of more important matters, and would not have seen this but that somebody brought it to him and asked him to read it. The interview meets this widespread peculiarity admirably. The person interviewed is sought out, which of itself adds somewhat to his importance, and is treated with the respect which the press always shows to the possessor of exclusive information, or of information of very superior quality on a topic of general interest.

Next in value to being sought out is the appearance of having been sought out, and this has led, in a great many cases, to the practice, on the part of persons who in old times would have written a letter to the editor, of throwing their thoughts into the form of interviews with themselves. This is apt to have a short preface stating the claims of the person interviewed to a hearing, on account of professional eminence or some peculiar experience or special acquaintance with the subject, followed in some cases by an account of his house, if he lives in the country, and of his library, or "study," or other room in which he does his thinking or writing. The reporter is then made to ask him a leading question, generally a little (but only a little) beside the mark, and the interview opens by a correction of this mistake, after which the eminent man goes straight at his subject, first clearing away the extraneous matter and the popular errors about it. The only objection to be made to this form of interview is that it is apt to smell of the lamp. The care shown in its composition usually so plainly betrays its character that it hardly seems worth while to throw it into the form of a dialogue. The reporter's questions, too, are apt to be too leading. He generally seems to have run ahead of the great man's mind, and to be simply waiting for him at well-known turns in the road.

But, in one way or another, the interview has really proved a valuable addition to the various instruments of public discussion. It does bring into the field a good many men of more or less authority who could not be brought in in any other way—men who would not take the trouble to write letters to the newspapers or to make speeches, but who, nevertheless, have opinions or knowledge which would be valuable and have influence if made public. But the value, of course, depends wholly on the genuineness. If the thing we read as Abram S. Hewitt's or Chauncey Depew's talk about this, that, or the other be not really his, if it be simply the invention of a youthful reporter without any knowledge of the subject, of course a fraud of a very gross kind is practised on both them and the public. And yet there is to-day no commoner kind of newspaper frauds than this. We do not believe we exaggerate when we say that one-half the interviews which appear in certain papers are pure fiction, the inventions of a reporter who dared not return to the office without a little budget of "news" of some kind. Why the sale of such things to the public is permitted any more than any other adulterated or bogus article, it is hard to say. They are now so numerous that the persons aggrieved by them rarely take the trouble to complain of them. Those who do, seldom find that it does them any good. The editor who, if he carried on similar frauds in any other business, would speedily find himself in a striped jacket beside McKane, is, on account of the money thus acquired, generally treated as a great man and estimable citizen; and, in fact, the greater his sales the more he is admired.

Of the effect on public morals, and especially the morals of the young, of this spectacle of open, unpunished swindling on the part of preachers of morality one hardly needs to speak. What we seek to know is why the publication of a bogus interview with a person mentioned by name is not set down in the libel law as at least a misdemeanor, rendering the editor liable to arrest and indictment. The practice could be completely stopped by one or two convictions. It reflects great discredit on the American press and great discredit also on the American public. The indifference of our public to the quality of our newspapers, and especially to their criminal characteristics, is a blot the world over on the national fame.

THE CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION.

We have received the following timely letter from a prominent member of the bar of this city:

"The Constitutional Convention is to meet on the second Tuesday of May, and if this community is to continue to be a half-fit place to live in, somebody besides the anarchists must be getting ready. It is important for people to know who the delegates are, and if any have declined to serve or res gned (as it was stated Mr. Whitney or Mr. Root would do). A list of them would at least set people to thinking."

Of the forty-four delegates from this city only one has declined to serve, namely, Mr. Whitney, who gave notice to that effect at the time of his nomination. The list contains many excellent names and a considerable number of very Tammanyish ones. There are in all thirty-three lawyers in it, three judges, one police justice, two journalists, two liquor-dealers, one contractor, one builder, and one real-estate dealer. With the exception of the four delegates-at-large, the delegation is composed entirely of Democrats who were put in nomination by Tammany Hall. Its most useless members are the two liquor-dealers, Tekulsky and Herzberg; Michael J. Mulqueen, known as "Mickey," who was nominated because he is Mayor Gilroy's son-in-law; William McM. Speer, who was formerly Mayor Gilroy's private secretary and is now editor of the Albany *Argus;* and "Joe" Koch, the police justice. There are many others who are of no importance, and who were nominated, not because of their attainments and qualifications, but because they were good Tammany men.

In regard to preparations for the work of the convention, we are glad to be able to say that a committee of the ablest lawyers of the City Club has been holding weekly sessions for several months, and has been conferring with the representatives of labor and other organizations, with a view to formulating amendments to be submitted to the convention. Among the questions considered in this way have been a series of amendments providing for the separation of municipal elections from State and national elections. This is the familiar plan of so changing the lengths of the terms of State officers and members of the Legislature that Presidential and State elections shall occur on even years, but two years apart, and municipal elections on odd years. That is to say, we may vote for Presidential candidates in 1896 and 1900, for Governor and other State officers in 1898 and 1902, and for mayor and city officers in 1895, 1897, 1899, and so on. It would be necessary to elect members of the Legislature in Presidential years, but no candidates for Governor or minor State officials would be in the field at that time.

As our readers are aware, we have been the zealous advocates of this change for many years. Few more important subjects will come before the Constitutional Convention, and we are rejoiced to be able to say that the advocates of the change will go before that body with a mass of evidence in support of it, especially in regard to the desirability of separate municipal elections, which cannot fail to exert a profound influence both upon the members of the convention and upon the voters of the State who are to pass judgment upon its work. It is the conviction of all students of the problem of municipal reform that separate elections, especially in large cities, are absolutely essential to any lasting improvement. In this city, experience has made it too plain for argument that we can never hope to be rid of rascally government till we get our elections so completely separated from State and national issues that the people can vote upon the question of good city government alone.

Other questions which have been considered by the City Club committee and other organizations are those of taxation, of a division of the Court of Appeals into two bodies, of the abolition of the Court of Common Pleas and the Superior Court in this city, and of a reform in the referee system. On all these subjects a great diversity of opinion has been developed, but the discussion has served to awaken interest in the approaching convention.

Another subject which ought to be brought before the convention is that of judicial control of contested legislative election cases. The people declined to adopt an amendment providing this reform, when it was submitted to them in 1892, but that was a Presidential election year and consequently a most inopportune time. The people had not had opportunity to inform themselves upon the subject, and, as usual in such cases, they voted against it. The only argument against the change that is of any weight is, that it brings our courts into politics and is in danger of impairing their influence. But as a matter of fact we are forced to bring the courts into contested cases now whenever we reach such a crisis as the Hill-Maynard performances brought us to in the winter of 1891-2. The courts had to be appealed to then, and the impartial and fearless manner in which one Democratic Supreme Court judge after another, and in which the Democratic judges of the Court of Appeals, gave decisions against the Democratic contentions, furnished gratifying proof that our courts can be trusted to rise above partisan considerations in political cases. The decision of the Supreme Court of New Jersey last week shows the same thing to be true of the courts in that State. If all legislative contests were referred to the courts under the laws, there would be far less danger of partisanship entering into the decisions than there is at present, when they are taken to the courts only after the fiercest partisan passions have been aroused.

AT THE BRITISH MUSEUM AND NATIONAL GALLERY.

LONDON, March 17, 1894.

FEW who are not regular visitors to the British Museum realize the good work that is accomplished in its Print Rooms. Indeed, it is only the student or the artist who can appreciate adequately the discretion and judgment with which the fine collection of prints and drawings has been made, and the skill and sympathy with which it is arranged. Appealing more directly, however, to the general public are the special exhibitions which are held in connection with this department at occasional intervals, and continued so long as they seem to prove profitable and interesting. Americans who purpose coming to London this summer should note the fact that a new one, even more comprehensive than the last, has just been opened. It is a show not to be overlooked by any lover of the art or history of drawing. The period covered extends from Masaccio to Watteau, and not a school of importance in Italy, France, Germany, or Holland is neglected. It is doubtful whether there is another museum in Europe that could bring together a series of drawings so thoroughly representative of the centuries traversed. Certain phases of the art might elsewhere yield more famous single examples; but it is the high average maintained by all schools which is the great merit of the Print Room collections, as it is of the pictures in the National Gallery.

The exhibition is made up chiefly of the Malcolm collection, which has been permanently loaned to the British Museum. Wherever it was weakest in chronological sequence, the treasures of the Print Room have supplied the missing links, so that from Masaccio to Veronese, from Clouet to Watteau, from Dürer and Van Eyck to Rembrandt and Rubens, the development of art in South and North, as it expressed itself in the studies and sketches of the masters, can be followed, step by step, in school after school. To the Italians, as is but right, prominence is given. Here we start with the illuminations of the Primitives, a characteristic beginning, since even in their work, as in that of the later schools, if the Venetian be excepted, strength lies in beauty of line or form rather than in splendor or poetry of color. And so we pass onward from the early Florentines and Umbrians to Botticelli and Da Vinci and Raphael, whose classical correctness and accomplished draughtsmanship are always more delightful in his drawings, in which, it may be supposed, he was working entirely to please himself and not his fashionable or pious patrons, and, therefore, we escape the cloying sweetness of his Madonnas and saints painted to order, and the tedious color scheme borrowed from Umbrian conventions. But more vigorous are the studies of Michelangelo, in which so strong a note of individuality is struck that at times they seem almost uncouth and grotesque compared to the restraint of Raphael and the suavity of the Venetians.

The latter are the greatest masters of them all. There is a drawing of a Turk by Bellini as refined and delicate in treatment as if it were not merely jotted down for a note or a suggestion, as is the case with the greater number of the drawings, but worked out carefully for reproduction as Abbey or Vierge might do it to-day. The landscapes of Titian, when genuinely Titianesque (it seems doubtful whether one or two are rightfully attributed to him), are triumphs of a simplicity whose value is the more emphasized by comparison with the niggled elaboration of the too little known Domenico Campagnola, Titian's pupil, who sought so diligently to borrow the methods and copy the effects of the master, and who succeeded so well up to a certain point. What he lacked, however, was the one great essential in art—genius. It is strange that the drawings of Veronese and Tintoretto are almost entirely lacking in interest. Michelangelo, on a piece of paper a few inches square, could suggest something of the vigor and majesty of his frescoes; but Veronese, as here seen, apparently had not the talent of expressing in the shorthand of art the stateliness and dignity of his decorative achievement.

French work begins with Clouet, when already it had outgrown the naïveté of the Primitives, and, in its maturing, had acquired a refinement not unworthy of the Venetians, and developed a striking originality. After Clouet, however, it degenerated, only to be revived again with Claude and Poussin and the acceptance of the classical tradition. It was at its best in the exquisite dainty drawings of Watteau, and of these the collection contains many very wonderful examples.

The only noteworthy contributions from German art are found in the studies of Dürer and the portraits of Holbein, virile, full of character, decorative in treatment, varying in methods, but with little of the graceful elegance that distinguished the Italian draughtsmen. There is so extensive and fine a series of Dürers that one can but wish that the great Dutch master, Rembrandt, had fared as well. The Malcolm collection, however, boasts of few Rembrandts, and in this instance the Print Room has not been successful in filling the unfortunate gaps. Examples of Lievens, Van der Heyde, Ter Borch, the crayon portraits of Cornelius Visscher, and the over-finished, tiresome productions of Ostade can scarce be considered sufficient compensation. Van Eyck and Rubens represent the earliest and latest Flemish schools included. And for the rest, two minor collections of northern and Italian engravings of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries complete the exhibition. The drawings are done in the many mediums which the old men were most apt to use—pen-and-ink, sepia, crayon; a few are in color, notably some of Dürer's and also of Rubens's, who, it is amusing to find, in one at least of his landscapes, was entirely preoccupied with a problem of color which people to-day are apt to think wholly and entirely modern. Altogether, the show is unusually important historically, unusually delightful artistically; a relief from the mediocrity and prettiness that prevail in the popular Bond Street or Piccadilly gallery.

At the National Gallery, if one cannot look for new exhibitions, on the other hand new purchases or new bequests are constantly adding fresh interest to the most perfectly selected and arranged collection of pictures in the world. The last to attract attention is a painting by Ford Madox Brown which has very recently been hung in the British section. Madox Brown exercised so powerful an influence on the younger generation of English painters that, even had his work been less notable in itself, it would still deserve a place in a national collection with the least pretence to being representative. But, despite its faults—and they are many—it has qualities which compel admiration and respect, and which will insure its survival long after the average Academical picture of the day has perished. The canvas chosen by the subscribers, who have presented it to the National Gallery, is his "Christ washing Peter's feet," and it could hardly be more typical of the artist's style and methods. It shows the dignity of his composition at his best, in the arrangement of the table around which the apostles are grouped, while Christ is on his knees before Peter in the foreground; it has the richness and beauty of color which, perhaps, seem less in his work only because so much greater in that of Rossetti, his friend; it reveals the sincerity of his aims and methods in the treatment of the many figures, and the skill with which he has spared us the mock sentiment and banality the modern, as a rule, brings to the rendering of Scriptural or religious subjects. As a whole, the picture is austere and solemn and dignified, as effective a mural decoration as the Christs and Madonnas of the old Italians and Flemings. And yet its faults are all too evident: the weakness of drawing is most aggressive in the kneeling Christ, the muscles of whose neck protrude as if to form a goitre; the handling is light and tedious; textures are so poorly rendered that the white tablecloth and the cushions upon which Peter recline are like nothing so much as cast iron. These, however, are details which cannot mar the fine, impressive effect of composition and color. It is long since so welcome an addition has been made to a section into which more than enough incompetent and trivial canvases have found their way. Now that it is too late, Englishmen may well regret that to Madox Brown were not intrusted some at least of the decorative

[illegible] St. Paul's would, judging from the glimpse lately allowed to a few artists and critics, threaten to disfigure hopelessly the fair architectural proportions of Wren's Cathedral.

N. N.

PASQUIER'S NAPOLEONIC MEMOIRS.—VI.

PARIS, March 14, 1894.

THE third volume of the 'Memoirs of Chancellor Pasquier' has as much interest as its predecessors. It appears at a moment when the Napoleonic revival is at its height, and, in some respects, it may be considered an antidote to the enthusiasm which is felt at the present hour for the great Emperor. What gives it a special value is the fact that Pasquier does not fatigue us with military details; he does not look upon Napoleon from the standpoint of the soldier. A civilian, he analyzes events chiefly from a political and social point of view. He accepted office under the Bourbons in 1814, but he saw at once the dangers which threatened the Government of the Restoration. The chief danger was the existence of the army, which had so long been identified with Napoleon. The Bourbons had given peace to France, but their situation was extremely delicate: the men who had served Napoleon at the court or in the army had to share their power with *émigrés*, with men who were most of them unknown. The *émigrés* assumed an attitude of superiority which offended the servants of the Empire. "It often happened that the most illustrious generals heard inquiries about their names in the drawing-rooms of the Tuileries. These names, which had so often been mentioned in the bulletins of the Grand Army, were known at Vienna, at Berlin, in the numerous capitals of Europe."

There is no exaggeration in saying that from the island of Elba Napoleon continued to be the chief of the French army. In a report which Pasquier wrote for the King, and gave to the Abbé de Montesquiou, he said: "The army, which was once the terror of families, has become popular since a large number of officers and men have gone back to their families and talk incessantly of its exploits and its sufferings. It has become an object of admiration, even of affection. . . . Its glory has become a sort of national property; to this sentiment must be joined a profound antipathy to foreigners." This was written five months before the return from Elba. A Napoleonic army, a people becoming more and more attached to the army and dissatisfied with the *noblesse* and the *émigrés*—such were the elements on which Napoleon founded his audacious attempt. Napoleon was also aware of the difficulties which existed between the sovereigns at Vienna, and was perhaps hoping that a new coalition could not easily be formed.

Talleyrand, who represented France at the Congress, had adopted as his favorite theme the theory of legitimacy, and invoked it especially against Prussia, which wished to keep Saxony. Each sovereign wanted a part of the spoils. In a conversation with Alexander of Russia, the latter said: "I will keep what I occupy." "Your Majesty," answered Talleyrand, "will keep only what belongs to him." "I am in accord with the great Powers." "I don't know whether your Majesty counts France among the great Powers?" "Certainly; but if you don't want each of us to suit himself, what do you claim?" "I put right first and convention afterward." "The conventions of Europe are the right." "This language, sire, is not yours, and your heart disavows it." "No, I repeat, the conventions of Europe are the right."

"I turned then," writes Talleyrand to Louis XVIII., "to the wall, put my forehead against it, and, striking the wall, said, 'Europe! Europe! poor Europe!' and, turning towards the Emperor, 'Shall it be said,' I asked, 'that you destroyed it?' He answered: 'War rather than abandon what I occupy.' I let my arms fall, in the attitude of a man afflicted but resolved, who seems to say, 'The fault will not be ours.' I said nothing. The Emperor too remained silent for some moments, then repeated, 'Yes, rather war.' I remained in the same attitude; then raising and agitating his hands, as I had never seen him do, he screamed rather than exclaimed, 'This is the theatre hour; I must go; I promised the Emperor; they are waiting for me.'"

Alexander was thinking of Poland, Prussia, of Saxony; the fate of Murat and of the two Sicilies was not decided; all seemed uncertain at Vienna. Napoleon did not lose much time in waiting; he left the island of Elba and landed in France. Pasquier says but little of the triumphal march through the province of Dauphiné. The first effect produced in Paris by the news of the return of the Emperor was a complete stupefaction. The Government confided the principal army corps sent against Napoleon to Marshal Ney. Nobody had more brutally forced the Emperor to sign his abdication at Fontainebleau, but "nobody knew that this man of iron on the battlefield was very weak when it came to taking a resolution, and that it was easy to push him from one extreme to another." His wife was the niece of Mme. Campan, who had been, as well as her own mother, a maid of Marie Antoinette; she had expected to become a favorite with the Bourbons, but had been very coldly received at the Tuileries whenever she appeared there. She had become very much embittered, and made incessant complaints to her husband. "Small causes produce great effects, and it may be that the feelings of Mme. Ney had something to do with the defection of the Marshal."

Pasquier was informed very early of the departure of Louis XVIII. for the north of France, by M. de Vitrolles, who offered to take Pasquier with him to Bordeaux, where he was going himself, and represented to him that he had much to fear from Napoleon's wrath.

"When I left him, I was not without much uncertainty as to the course I ought to take I had but one fixed resolution, which was to leave France only at the last extremity. It was a Sunday. I went to the castle at the hour of mass. The crowd was great in the drawing-room, some brought there by a real interest, many by a desire for information. Few people knew that the departure of the King had been fixed for that evening; those who knew were silent. I saw the King and the Princes cross the salons, as usual, towards the chapel. Notwithstanding the great sadness painted on their faces, they kept a good countenance. The Duc de Berry stopped before me, and took my hand in a way that said, 'Adieu.'"

The King left Paris on the night of the 12th of March, and the next day the Tuileries were a complete solitude. Pasquier asked M. de la Valette for advice, and learned from him that a military conspiracy had been formed in the north of France, and that Gens. d'Erlon, Lallemand, and Desnouettes were in it. "Why!" said Pasquier, "did these generals intend to go and meet Napoleon?" "Not at all; and the news of his landing and his progress has upset the whole conspiracy." "What, then, did you wish to do?" "We were to go to Paris, where we had good friends waiting for us; we should have seized the King and all the members of his family who chanced to be with him; we should have taken them politely to the frontier." "And then?" "Then we should have taken a sovereign who would have received his crown from us, and not from foreigners." "But where would you have got this sovereign?" "Who knows? perhaps the Duc d'Orléans, if he had been willing to be intelligent and reasonable. He would have been obliged to be sincerely constitutional. I don't think he would have frightened Europe, which would surely not have armed herself merely in the interest of Louis XVIII."

A few days after the return of Napoleon to Paris, Pasquier received an order of exile; he was allowed to go wherever he wished, provided he was more than forty leagues from Paris. He went to Fouché to ask for his passport. Their conversation was very extraordinary. Fouché took him into his garden and asked him what he thought of the situation. Pasquier felt rather shy at answering. Fouché broke the ice and said: "I must tell you that this man [Napoleon] is not at all cured: he comes back as despotic, as desirous of conquests, as mad as ever he was. . . . I declare to you that all Europe is going to fall upon him; it is impossible for him to resist, and his business will be done in four months." Pasquier was naturally surprised at hearing such language from Napoleon's minister of police. He said: "Well, if this happens, I shall be resigned; but, in good faith, Monsieur le Duc, what is the bearing of the confidence which you make to me?" "I will tell you. I am willing that the Bourbons should come back, only things must be a little less stupidly arranged than they were last year by Talleyrand. We must have good conditions, good and solid guarantees." Fouché went on to explain his projects; he wanted good men, he wanted somebody for the city of Paris, and he offered Pasquier the post in advance. Meanwhile, he advised him to write a letter to Napoleon, asking leave to go back to the Council of State. "He will be too happy to grant it to you. Don't you suppose that he hates me much more than he does you, and I am his minister?"

Pasquier did not wish to go so far; he stopped half way.

"Upon reflection, I saw no inconvenience in following the advice given me to write to Napoleon. I said that I had served him faithfully till the day when it had been proved to me that the interests of my fellow-citizens, which were confided to me, the interests of the whole country, demanded the only course which could then avoid greater misfortunes. I had done nothing which could offend him personally, and I had never forgotten what I owed to the man who had given me functions of high confidence."

The letter remained without an answer. "Napoleon expected something more of me," says Pasquier; "he wished me to solicit the honor of serving him again." Pasquier says that he never regretted having taken the part which was recommended to him by reason and by delicacy; all the more when, a few days afterwards, the Council of State made a declaration the most bitter, the most offensive, against the House of Bourbon. The Emperor wished every member of the Council to sign it with his own name, and it was brought to the houses of those who had not attended the deliberation. Molé, who was among the last, would not sign, and he wrote to the Emperor to explain his refusal. "The deliberation of the Council," said he, "begins with the formal recognition of the sovereignty of the people; I know not a more dangerous or subversive principle." The Emperor accepted this reason: "he would not quarrel then with the

name of Molé." Benjamin Constant, who had written violent articles against Napoleon, and, when he heard the news of his arrival, thought for a moment of going to the Vendée, accepted the post of Councillor of State. Carnot had joined the Government of Napoleon, and, foreseeing a new invasion of France, accounted for his action by the necessities of the country. Pasquier retired to the Château de Coulans, near Le Mans, on the road to Laval. He found there his brother, who was an ardent royalist; he soon heard that the Duc de Bourbon had left Angers and embarked for England, that the Duchess of Angoulême had been abandoned by the troops and had also left France. The Duke of Angoulême was obliged to surrender to Gen. Grouchy, and left Cette for Spain. The French territory was now again wholly in the hands of Napoleon.

We shall see now, in Pasquier's Memoirs, how he spent the "Hundred Days," the famous period which ended at Waterloo.

Correspondence.

LAW TERMS AND LEGISLATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In commenting recently on the absurdity of the tax proposed by the Wilson bill upon legacies, as if they were parts of the taxpayers' incomes, you failed, perhaps from motives of clemency, to point out another absurdity that results from a surprisingly careless misuse of words. Although the mistake is one of form rather than of substance, still, considering the character of the document in which it appears, I think that it ought not to go unnoticed.

To every one who is at all familiar with legal phraseology, it is well known that the words *devise* and *inheritance* apply exclusively to lands. Therefore, this passage from the bill, "the value of any personal property received by gift, *devise*, or *inheritance*," is tantamount to the inconsistency of saying (substituting Bouvier's definitions of the two technical terms in question) *personal* property received by "gift of *real* property by last will and testament," or "a perpetuity in *lands*."

True, a precedent for construing the term *devise* to mean *bequeath* may be found in Camfield vs. Gilbert, 3 Fast., 516 (decided in 1803). In that case Lord Ellenborough's gallantry made an exception to the rules of technical construction in favor of the fair sex, and he held that "*devise* . . . might yet be easily mistaken for *bequeath* by an uninformed testatrix." But is it not a little humiliating that in order that this blunder, which would be inexcusable in a law student, should be overlooked, and, to "make sense" of a piece of solemn legislation enacted after grave deliberation by the highest hall of popular representation in the land, it should be necessary for the authors to take refuge behind the skirts of an "uninformed testatrix"?—Yours truly,

S. R. T.

Chicago, March 24, 1894.

WOMEN AND THE JURY-BOX.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A serious issue (which the woman-suffragists will not be slow to turn to account) of the disfranchisement of women as it affects the course of justice in trial by jury is brought out by the repulsive breach-of-promise case now before a Washington law court. It is an unfortunate but nevertheless undeniable fact that society holds to a dual standard of sexual purity, one for the woman, another for the man. Hence the plaintiff and defendant in the case referred to, guilty by their own confessions of mutual sin, are arraigned before the bar of two separate and distinct moral codes, one uncompromising, the other lax. But the jury which is to decide their respective measures of guilt is not, as humanity and reason alike would seem to dictate, composed half of individuals upon whom the one, and half of those upon whom the other code is binding, but, owing to the non-eligibility of women as jurors, consists exclusively of persons who would themselves be judged by the code of the defendant alone.

An adroit and skilful use of this advantage has already been made in his opening statement by the defendant's counsel, who takes occasion to say that under the same circumstances "many a man" has behaved in the same way as his client. A more direct appeal than this to the *esprit de corps* of the unmixed jury could not well be made. The question arises, the woman-suffragists say, whether a jury so composed can honestly be sworn. And they answer in the negative. For men to truly swear that they are without opinion in this and similar cases, when they are under the influence of the most subtle and far-reaching class prejudice, is an intellectual impossibility. Justice will continue to be travestied, they urge, until a woman, no less than a man, may be legally condemned or acquitted by her peers.

G. S.

Baltimore, March 24, 1894.

ROSEBERY AND PITT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your last issue you quote from the London *Economist* an article which appeared in that publication relative to Lord Rosebery becoming Premier of England, and seem rather to side with your contemporary in concluding that, because his lordship "was practically unknown to the great mass of electors of the United Kingdom before 1884," and only happened to be in Parliament for about ten years—"two of which he spent in seclusion"—prior to his assumption of the high office of premier, and because "he is almost an unknown quantity to the British public," the wisdom of his selection is, to all intents and purposes, open to much doubt.

In citing the names of Gladstone, Disraeli, Peel, Palmerston, and Salisbury as ministers "who climbed painfully to power through long years in Parliament and many subordinate places," it would have shown well, by way of comparison, had you also cited the case of William Pitt, who, direct from a university, and at the age of twenty-one, entered Parliament, was Chancellor of the Exchequer at twenty-three, refused the premiership, offered him by the King, at twenty-four, and *was* actually premier before he reached the age of twenty-five. Not alone was he the youngest man who ever held this high office, but he probably justified, beyond all its previous or subsequent incumbents, the degree of confidence in his ability and political sagacity which the people—"the great mass of electors"—reposed in him. He developed into a great man, a most worthy son of "the great commoner," and left behind him a lasting imprint on the pages of modern history. Lord Rosebery will not have in opposition to him a Fox, a Burke, a Sheridan, or a North, as had Pitt. He enters upon the task twenty or more years an older man than was Pitt when he took up the reins; and why the *Economist* or the *Nation* should regard the circumstances of his appointment as "astonishing" is more than I can comprehend.—Respectfully,

John Fanning O'Reilly.

251 Pearl Street, New York, March 24, 1894.

[Some things may be astonishing which are not unprecedented.—Ed. Nation.]

BESIDE THE MARK.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of the 8th inst. your correspondent "F. H." discusses a "brace of whims" which he fancies has cropped up in the following sentence from a California writer in the *Educational Review* for last October:

"What good results in teaching English, pure but not affected, and easy without slovenliness, can be looked for from young women who say, *I wished I was home*, and *at all?*"

Since the excuse alleged by "F. H." for wasting paper and ink on the matter implies a contemptuous criticism, I may be allowed to point out his error. It will be immediately evident to any one who reads the article in the *Educational Review* that the writer, Prof. H. B. Lathrop, had no thought of condemning the locutions *was home* and *at all*. He was merely alluding to that combination of pedantry and ignorance which is occasionally found in teachers of a certain class—the pedantry being illustrated in this case by an affected articulation of the phrase *at* (hiatus) *all*, and the ignorance by the vulgar *I wished I was home* for *I wish I were at home* or, if "F. H." pleases, *I wish I were home*. We shall not even stickle for the *were*. Had Prof. Lathrop written *wisht*, perhaps the point would have been more readily seen; the vulgarism certainly is not unfamiliar (cp. *attackt*). Incidentally I may say that I can hardly appreciate the difference between *I wished I was home*, as "F. H." understood the sentence, and *I was home all last week*, which "is not to be tolerated." But to discuss that is not at all to my purpose.

Perhaps "F. H.'s" ink has not been wasted after all. For though I for one had never harbored a suspicion that the two phrases he considers at such length were in any way open to censure, and was therefore not interested in his long array of examples, I was interested in his information that the locutions *have* been censured, and that there are depths of ignorance or heights of pedantry which need the illumination of his kindly light.

A. G. Newcomer.

Leland Stanford Junior University, California.

THE HARVARD OBSERVATORY'S PHOTOMETRY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you kindly permit a word or two of correction to the otherwise excellent notice of Dr. Chandler's criticism of the Harvard Observatory astronomy? The investigation referred to by Dr. Chandler (Annals H. C. O., vol. xxiv.) is not that one which may to some extent be judged "by the degree of its agreement with the catalogues of Pritchard and Wolff." It is a different work, executed with a different instrument upon a different set of stars, and the two are not comparable. One who is not thoroughly at home in the special

literature of photometry may well be forgiven for confusing the investigations, but the fact remains that Dr. Chandler's estimate in the *Nachrichten* is the first opinion given by an authority as to the work in question.

It is true, also, that a close reading of Dr. Chandler's article would show that the errors mentioned are not the clerical errors which your critic has deemed them, which can be eliminated to the betterment of the catalogue. They are indexes of weakness in the principles upon which the work was conducted. These two facts seem to point to a conclusion quite different from that deduced by your critic.

JOHN RITCHIE, JR.

BOSTON, March 24, 1894.

Notes.

THE 'Anabasis' of Profs. Goodwin and White is to be reissued in May by Ginn & Co., newly printed and thoroughly revised; Dindorf's text being exchanged for Hug's, but with critical acceptance. White and Morgan's Dictionary to the 'Anabasis' will be incorporated with the work.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will shortly publish 'The Lives of Twelve Bad Men,' "eminent scoundrels," by various hands; 'Maximilian and Carlotta,' a story of Imperialism, by John M. Taylor; 'The Philosophy of Religion,' the Gifford Lectures for 1893, by Prof. Otto Pfleiderer; 'Prose Fancies,' by Richard Le Gallienne; and 'Prince Henry the Navigator and the Age of Discovery,' by C. R. Beazley.

'Total Eclipses of the Sun,' by Mabel Loomis Todd, is announced for publication April 2, by Roberts Bros. of Boston; and 'Public Libraries in America,' by William I. Fletcher, April 12, by the same firm, both volumes being in the "Columbian Knowledge Series," edited by Prof. David P. Todd of Amherst College. The same firm will issue 'By Moorland and Sea,' essays by Francis A. Knight, illustrated by himself, and 'Art for America,' by Wm. Ordway Partridge.

A volume on socialism by Prof. R. T. Ely is to be added next month to T. Y. Crowell & Co.'s series in economics and politics.

Gustav E. Stechert, 810 Broadway, will market in this country a German work on the language of the Zimshian Indians in Northwestern America, by Dr. A. C. Count von der Schulenburg, with ethnographical introduction, grammar, specimen extracts, and vocabulary. The tribes in question inhabit the rocky north coast of British Columbia.

Charles Scribner's Sons have brought out the second volume of Pasquier's Napoleonic Memoirs, covering the eventful period 1812–1814.

The record of the Woman's Building and the Children's Building is completed in Part 8 of 'The Book of the Fair' (Chicago: The Bancroft Co.), and that of Machinery Hall is entered upon. The illustrations continue to be of a high order of process work. The hall just mentioned (alias Palace of Mechanic Arts) is finely shown on a full page as well as in detail.

An 'Index of Noteworthy Words and Phrases found in the Homilies of Clement' (Macmillan) may be commended to patristic scholars. This accurate and elaborate work was printed seventeen years ago at the request of Dr. Lightfoot, and is now reprinted by the trustees of the Lightfoot fund.

The work of popularizing the results of the higher criticism of the Pentateuch which was begun by the Rev. B. W. Bacon in 'The Genesis of Genesis,' is now carried further by the same author in 'The Triple Tradition of the Exodus' (Hartford: Student Publishing Co.). More of the details are necessarily tentative in this volume, yet the method and the broad outline justify themselves. The skilful use of different type to display the different documents adds not a little to the convincing power of the argument, and the whole appeals to the mind as an inevitable explanation of the phenomena in much the same way that the glacial theory accounts for scored rocks and moraines and perched boulders—though, without the key, even a Darwin may fail to perceive the evidence, as he did on his first visit to the rocks of Cwm Idwall.

Mr. F. C. Conybeare's translation of the 'Apology and Acts of Apollonius, and Other Monuments of Early Christianity' (London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan) is made from ancient Armenian versions, first published in 1874, and themselves derived from older Greek and Syriac originals than any manuscripts of them now extant in those languages. The peculiar interest of thus going back of the commonly received renderings of the dozen *Acta Sanctorum* here given is in seeing how the accretions of later times invariably made the narrative more miraculous and more orthodox. One naïf editor of the Acts of Athanagines states that he "made orthodox all that was said" (by the various actors). This continual recasting of the documents of early Christian literature must be taken into the account by its students.

M. E. Lintilhac has published (Paris: E. André fils) the second and concluding volume of his 'Précis historique et critique de la littérature française.' The first volume brought the work to the close of the sixteenth century; the present treats of the literature of the seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth centuries. Each volume contains a useful set of biblio graphical references.

M. Émile Bosquet, himself a bookbinder, has gathered into a single volume a dozen articles about his art in the present and in the past ('La Reliure'; Paris: Lahure; New York: F. W. Christern). Like most French books on its subject, it is narrowly national, and concerns itself almost altogether with the work of those who dwell on the banks of the Seine. In artistic bookbinding the superiority of the French is incontestable, but in commercial bookbinding the French are inferior to the British and to us. No French binder, for example, has ever produced a specimen of commercial binding at once as fine and as strong and as beautiful as that of the 'Century Dictionary.' Still, these papers of M. Bosquet's are interesting to all lovers of bibliopegy. The illustrations are portraits of modern French bookbinders and photogravures of recent covers, the most curious of the latter being one by Raparlier, a figure-sketch with background, in which an outline is worked boldly on the leather by the use of lines almost incised.

Varnhagen's 'Ueber die Fiori e vita di filosofi ed altri savii ed imperadori, nebst dem italienischen Texte' (Erlangen) is a critical edition of the quaint old collection of anecdotes about famous philosophers of antiquity —long ascribed, apparently without reason, to Brunetto Latini—with which Dante and his contemporaries were familiar, and which is still studied with interest as one of the earliest monuments of Italian prose. Varnhagen has applied himself also to an investigation, successful where other scholars have failed, of the relations of the various manuscripts of the 'Fiori,' and of the sources from which the author drew. Following a hint of Gaspary, he has shown that the 'Fiori' is nothing more than a tolerably faithful translation, made some time during the boyhood of Dante, from the 'Speculum historiale' of Vincentius Bellovacencis. He draws also certain inferences in regard to the relation of the 'Fiori' to the 'Novellino,' the most famous pre-Boccaccian collection of stories in Italian, and as to the use which Dante (omnivorous reader that he was) made of both of them in a certain passage of the 'Divine Comedy.' The interesting illustrations to the treatise, which have nothing whatever to do with the text, are taken from early printed Venetian books, in which it seems that the Erlangen library is rich.

It is pleasant to find that the growing sum of knowledge about Dante's relation to his time confirms the opinion of his political impartiality that one forms from reading him with care. The latest writer, Gregorio Lajolo, attempts to show, in his 'Indagini storico-politiche sulla vita e sulle opere di Dante Alighieri' (Turin), not that Dante was a Guelph or a Ghibelline, for those names are anything but mutually exclusive, and meant little or nothing at the time, but that he was fair and wise in his political predilections. His ideal was justice, and it was justice, according to the best sentiment of his time, that he dealt to those whom he met in his journey through hell and heaven. As Dante said, he found himself forced by the contingencies of party to form a party by himself. Were he now alive, he might easily take a similar stand and suffer a similar fate.

The motto prefixed to Arullani's 'Lirica e Lirici nel settecento' (Turin) is from Algarotti, and is to the effect that versifiers were many in those days and poets few. The author seems at times to go even further and to find nothing good in the eighteenth-century Italian lyrics. Luckily, Signor Arullani is not only a pleasing writer, but a poet himself, and his book, though far different from the modern idea of what historical criticism should be, offers the reader a clear and not unsympathetic account of what was best in the dullest century in Italian literature, when Petrarchism and Arcadianism were rampant, and, despite the great influence of the classics, none had learned from them, as Leopardi did, grace and compactness of thought and form.

The thirteenth annual report of the Director of the United States Geological Survey contains essays by Prof. N. S. Shaler on "The Geological History of Harbors" and by Mr. Bailey Willis on "The Mechanics of Appalachian Structure," that will excite widespread interest among scientific readers. The first essay presents a general and popular account of the reëntrants of coast lines in which refuge may be found from wind and waves, classifying them according to geological origin, and considering the changes that they suffer under natural agencies. Following this is a specific account of our Atlantic and Pacific coasts, beautifully illustrated by charts and views, the charts being chiefly derived from the publications of the United States Coast Survey. Teachers of geography in all grades will find this essay most serviceable. Mr. Willis's essay is of a much more technical character. It presents a serious discussion of the structural features of the folded and faulted Appalachians, with a review of various experiments made by the author and others in imitating the conditions of mountain deformation. The illustrations are of a high order. The paper makes a

great stride in this division of theoretical geology.

The February number of the Pilot Chart of the North Atlantic, issued by our Hydrographic Office, contains on the back of the sheet an account by G. W. Littlehales of the formation of waves at sea and of the action of oil in decreasing their destructive effects. It is shown that the action of oil depends first on its spontaneous spreading over the sea surface; second, on its forming a shield to the orbital movements of the water particles, so that the wind cannot so effectively blow the crest of the waves forward; third, on its decreasing the surface tension of the water, whereby the waves do not break so easily as before.

Bulletin B of the Weather Bureau is a discussion of the currents of our Great Lakes, by Prof. M. W. Harrington, chief of the Bureau. It is published in atlas form, and includes charts of the Lakes, showing the drift of hundreds of bottles thrown into the water at various points in the summers of 1892 and 1893 and later picked up on the shores. One of the most definite currents rounds the southern end of Lake Michigan, flowing southward on the western shore and northward along the eastern shore. These studies will be continued, and, with the special bulletins of lake storms, promise to be of practical service to our inland navigation.

The meteorological service of India has issued a series of daily charts of the northern Indian Ocean for August and September, 1893, on which the monsoon winds and cyclonic storms of this classic region are better portrayed than we have elsewhere seen them. The barometric pressure is prevailingly low during these months from the head of the Bay of Bengal northwestward across India, and thence westward into Arabia. Towards this region, the southeast trade winds of the southern hemisphere are extended, turning to southwest winds as they enter our hemisphere. Not infrequently, a small area of low pressure is developed over the bay, and then the successive maps illustrate its progressive increase in intensity as a cyclonic storm, while it moves northwestward towards the mountains. In this subject, as in so many others, the meteorological service of India furnishes the world not only with excellent collections of observations, but with scientific investigations, well directed towards important ends.

A large photogravure by Dujardin after a painting, "Un excellent pot-au-feu," by the Misses Desliens, comes to us from the Librairie de *l'Art*, 8 Boulevard des Capucines, Paris—not inappropriately from that quarter, for the most interested observer of the dishing of the mess is a priest. In his expression we read "excellent," and in the old cook's merely "pot-au-feu." If not a great it is a pleasing picture of its kind, well drawn and composed; the chimney-jambs are, without being out of place in a kitchen, even elegant.

Lovers of curious musical scores will find gratification for their taste in a limited edition, about to be brought out, of an important manuscript in the Fitzwilliam Museum at Cambridge. The manuscript, which contains one of the most valuable collections extant of the earliest works for keyed instruments written in England, is known by the attractive though unfortunately erroneous title of 'Queen Elisabeth's Virginal Book.' Its publication is a noteworthy step in the progress of musical culture, as it opens the way to a better acquaintance with the little-known but important early English harpsichord music. The joint editors of the work will be Mr. J. A. Fuller Maitland and Mr. W. Barclay Squire. It will be issued in monthly parts, and may be subscribed for through Breitkopf & Härtel, No. 54 Great Marlborough Street, London.

Greek archæology suffers an irreparable loss in the death, on February 23, of Dr. Lolling, for the last ten years director of the department of inscriptions in the National Museum of Athens, editor of Baedeker's 'Greece,' and, since 1879, librarian of the German Institute in Athens. He excelled most in epigraphy, and the Greek Government fittingly recognized his astonishing achievements in this field by making him custodian and editor of the enormous body of inscriptions which the eager excavations of recent years have brought to the central museum at Athens. His catalogue of these inscriptions, a work involving enormous and ingenious labor, is well advanced in MS., though only the first part, on votive inscriptions, is published. Many American scholars remember gratefully the unselfish kindness of this modest, sad man, and regret that attainments and achievements such as his should have been haunted by a sense of defeat and failure.

—The current number of *Appalachia*, the official organ of the Appalachian Mountain Club, more than sustains the average standard which has been attained by this instructive journal, devoted primarily to the mountain interests of New England. A somewhat broader scope is represented in its articles than has heretofore been the case, and there is also an advance in the character of the illustrations. The special "touring" articles of the number are: "A Trip to Mount Rainier," "Three Days on the Zinal Grat," and "A Climb in the Cordillera of the Andes"; the last from the pen of Prof. W. H. Pickering of the Cambridge Observatory, and, while brief, certainly the most instructive of the three. It is an account of an ascent of the volcano of El Misti (19,200 feet), on the Titicacan plateau, which was accomplished without serious difficulty beyond that which accompanies muscular exercise in a very attenuated atmosphere. A night-camp was established at an elevation of 18,440 feet, whence the rim of the double crater which occupies the summit, a few hundred feet above, was reached in about twenty minutes early in the following morning. Prof. Pickering touches incidentally upon the subject of mountain sickness, from which most of the members of his party appear to have suffered, and he attributes it primarily to hard work and to over-eating. He states that "at these altitudes one seldom feels very hungry, and a dinner consisting of a little broth and some fruit is all that is needed, and seems to be all that one can digest. Meat should in general be avoided." The experiences of mountain-climbers differ so greatly as to the conditions of this peculiar malady that it seems hardly safe to formulate a theory for its occurrence; it is undeniably largely individual in its action, and, like the much more commonplace *mal de mer*, has its selected friends and favorites. A picturesque, but not very well printed, photographic illustration of Illampu, "the highest of the Andes," as seen across Lake Titicaca, accompanies Prof. Pickering's article. This mountain, which is better known to geographers as the Nevado de Sorata, is referred to in a communication to the Club (p. 274) as being about 24,000 feet in elevation, or 2,600 feet higher than the newer determinations of Pentland made it. We are not aware that any trustworthy remeasurements of the mountain have been made within recent years which have restored it to its old height, and as the superior of Aconcagua. We also notice on page 272 a reference to Kunchinjinga as having an elevation of 27,000 feet, instead of 28,000 feet.

—A long step towards providing a new patron saint for France was taken in Rome a few weeks ago by the publication of a decree signed by the prefect and secretary of the Congregation of Rites, which announces that the application for the beatification of the "venerable servant of God, Joan of Arc, Virgin, called 'The Maid of Orleans,'" has been received with approval, and that the case is now open. Not that the Pucelle is likely at once, or perhaps at all, to supplant the secular patron of France, the great St. Denis, but it is to be expected, in case her canonization shall follow, that her cultus will become a highly popular devotion, not only from its being fresh and new, but also from a certain aura of patriotism which will go along with it. No such devotion, however, will be permitted at present, and the Pope has, in fact, forbidden it, since the present process is only the penultimate, or even antepenultimate, step towards formal and recognized sainthood, which is certified by canonization. The preliminary local inquiries have been made at Orléans, transmitted to Rome, and approved there, and the title "Venerable" has been accorded to Joan; but further investigation will take place at Rome, and, it is to be supposed, the *advocatus diaboli* will still have an office to perform before the new saint will be proposed to the suffrages of the faithful.

—A translation of the decree of the Congregation of Rites was printed in the *Monde*, and afterwards copied by other French newspapers. It offers nothing new to the student of hagiology. It is less rich than many lives of saints in point of wonders and miracles. There is nothing in it, for instance, to compare with the well-known legend of St. Denis. It asserts the divine call of Joan, and that her vision and voices were a divine revelation. It makes much of her bravery, of her charity, of her patience under reproach and suffering, but it does not directly assert that these qualities in her rose to the point of what ascetic theologians call "heroic" virtues. Nor will the merely mundane student of history get any more satisfaction out of the decree. From his point of view it is weak, vague, "popular," in the last degree. Not one historical difficulty in the case seems to have been wrestled with, or even considered. If it had been written for use in a primary school it could not be less erudite. One sentence in it, however, calls for a word of comment; "Elle est enfin, par un crime suprême, comme hérétique et relapse, en vertu de l'inique sentence de juges qui participaient au concile schismatique de Bâle, livrée aux flammes." This statement is quite inaccurate, as may be seen by recalling a few well-known dates. Joan was burned on the last day of May, in the year 1431. The council of Bâle had been convoked for the third of March of that year, but only one person was present on that day, and the council was not formally opened till the 22d or 23d of July, and did not hold its first session till December 14. Joan's judges, then, *participaient* in a council which was, as yet, non-existent. It was at a date much later than 1431 that the council of Bâle could, upon any theory, be called schismatic. Leaving aside disputable points, it is certain that the legates of Eugenius IV. sat in its twenty-fifth session May 7, 1437, and did not

leave the city till after the thirtieth session on December 23. Who is responsible for this historical slip does not appear. It may be in part a blunder of translation on the part of the *Monde*. The *Gazette de France*, in fact, suggests that "participaient" should be "participèrent." But this verbal change leaves the real question just about where it was. At the moment of Joan's death the church was at peace, at least outwardly, and Joan's judges were in full communion with the Holy See. Pierre Cauchon, the infamous bishop of Beauvais, Joan's venomous persecutor, did figure for some brief space at the Council of Bâle; but that was not till 1435, four years after her death, and two years before the legates of the Pope withdrew from the council. When Cauchon was at Bâle, he was there in very good company, and the fact that the council some years afterward became schismatic adds no deeper shade to his infamy.

—The Société de l'Histoire de la Révolution Française held its yearly meeting at the Sorbonne on March 5. M. Jules Claretie took the chair, and, after giving a brief report of the work of the society during the past year, read a paper on the French theatre during the Revolution. He was followed by MM. Aulard, Charavay, Chassin, and Flammermont, whose communications were all of them of much interest and value. M. Charavay brought in an unpublished letter of Marceau's; M. Chassin set himself to demolish two legends, the story of the five thousand republican prisoners of Saint Florent, who were said to have been saved by the clemency of the Vendean chief Bonchamp, and the story of the passage of the Loire by the Vendeans in October, 1793, which has been represented as the exodus of a whole people from homes that had been laid waste by Republican violence. Of much more weight than any of these, however, was the really important study of M. Aulard on "Bonaparte et les poignards des Cinq-cents." This appears at full length in the *Revue Bleue*, and may be left for the present with only the statement that it shows conclusively that the story which Lucien Bonaparte used to excite the soldiers to clear the hall of the Assembly of the Five Hundred—viz., that the deputies were on the point of assassinating their general, and were assaulting him with their daggers—was a story agreed upon beforehand between the two brothers, and was made up out of whole cloth. The unvarnished truth about the First Empire was never more needed in France than now, amid the revival of the Napoleonic legend.

—All Oxford assembled on Thursday, March 8, just before the Lent term ended, to hear the inaugural of the newly appointed Regius Professor of Greek (Bywater) on "Four Centuries of Greek Learning in England." The lecture was given, according to immemorial custom, with covered head, except that brief portion of it which touched upon Prof. Bywater's predecessor. The visible mark of respect thus shown enhanced the significance of a telling phrase in which the late Prof. Jowett's power to make Greek philosophy live again in the pursuits of English youth was vividly portrayed. Bentley's achievements formed the heart of the discourse. Few at the present day could easily measure the wonderful powers of Bentley, or adequately understand how far he was in advance of his time. Even Wolff had not seen fully the significance of Bentley's discovery of the digamma in Homer. Bentley mapped out two great lines of work, which subsequent generations of scholars could but follow. The Greek lexicographers were to be edited, and though Bentley himself did nothing here, his suggestion bore its final fruit in the monumental publications of Gaidford. The other line of work which Bentley saw must be done was upon the Greek poets. Here, too, his impulse has lasted till to-day. Even now, though with larger means and improved methods, Greek scholars can find little or no work that Bentley had not foreseen and required to be done. The greatest of those whom we may call of Bentley's school was Richard Dawes, whose 'Miscellanea Critica' is still a work of the greatest importance. The attention given to it even now in Germany is a very high tribute to Dawes's scholarship. After Bentley and Dawes came Porson and his school, and the Porsonians again focussed the Greek learning of England. There has been, however, a reaction against the Porsonian preoccupation with minutiæ, and Badham, the most distinguished of the later Porsonians, died a few years since in Australia, having attracted less attention in England than on the Continent. The historical school, represented by Grote and Thirlwall, succeeded in displacing the Porsonians, but failed to maintain the former reputation of English scholarship. Of the present, the present was no fit judge, nor would the lecturer usurp either the prophet's or the politician's place in order to declare what room was still left for Greek learning, or to foretell the form in which the study of Greek would be permitted to survive.

—The libretto (as it is modestly styled) of the "Phormio" of Terence has appeared, preparatory to the performance of the play in Sanders Theatre, Cambridge, on April 19, 20, and 21. It is preceded by a notice setting forth the circumstances of its present introduction to the American public as follows:

RELATA · XX · POST · SAECVLA
DIE · CONCORDIENSI
PROFESSORIB · LITT · LAT · CONL · HARV
CVRATORIBVS · LVDORVM
EGIT · IN · VNIVERSITATIS · THEATRO
GREX · ACADEMICVS
MODOS · FECIT · RECENTIORES
VNVS · EX · CVRATORIBVS
TIBIS · INPARIB · IV
CAROLI · GVIL · ELIOT
PRAESIDIS · A · XXV

The Boston papers are full just now of friendly tilts about the name of the new Massachusetts holiday, the 19th of April. Shall it be Concord Day, or Lexington Day? It has been suggested as a compromise that it should be called "the day on which the men of Acton fought the battle of Lexington on Concord Bridge." The *curatores ludorum* have taken the bull boldly by the horns, and called it simply *dies Concordiensis*. Just how they are to escape the wrath of the embattled farmers of Lexington remains to be seen. The libretto contains an admirable translation of the ancient Argument in English verse, and a new prologue for the occasion given in Latin *senarii* and English verse both. Even if no name were attached, it would be plain from the nimble numbers and the cheery and jaunty swing that they are from the pen of Prof. Greenough. The play itself is translated into English prose by Prof. Morgan. The English is vigorous and racy, never stiff or stilted, yet never degenerating into slang. For the public at large the convenience of this translation is obvious. It may also spare those undergraduates to whom Terence is as Choctaw, the

"Iuvenes, quos clamor et audax
Sponsio, quos cultae decet adsedisse puellae,"

the mortification of being obliged to say they do not know, if they are asked the unpleasant question what this or that means—though if the programme, as rumor reports, is to be in Latin pure and simple without any English, there is another gauntlet to run. But here and there the *culta puella* may be from Radcliffe or Wellesley or Smith or Vassar, and may help out the young man.

—Another feature of the libretto, and one which will make it of permanent value to the philologist by profession, is the illustrations in photogravure. The Vatican manuscript numbered 3868 and written in the tenth century is remarkable for the fascinating miniatures of actors and scenes and delineations of masks with which it is illustrated. These were, to be sure, published years and years ago by De Berger, 'Commentatio de personis vulgo larvis seu mascheris' (Frankfort and Leipzig, 1723), and some of them occasionally by others, as by Wieseler, etc. But these old copies are not to be trusted. The aim was to make pleasing engravings rather than faithful reproductions, and they are condemned by Leo and other experts who have tried to make use of them (see the *Rhenish Museum*, xxxviii, p. 342, seqq). Through the friendly mediation of the Right Rev. J. J. Keane, Rector of the Catholic University of America, and the Rev. Dr. F. Z. Rooker, Vice-Rector of the North American College in Rome, who are gratefully thanked in the libretto, a complete set of the illustrations for the "Phormio," twenty-six in number, has been furnished; barring the coloring, they are as good as the originals. The Latin Department expresses its deep indebtedness to his Holiness the Pope and to the Cardinal Librarian of the Vatican for the privilege graciously accorded of photographing and publishing.

—The second volume of Max Nordau's 'Entartung' (Berlin: Duncker) is devoted chiefly to the psychiatrical dissection of Richard Wagner, Henrik Ibsen, and Friedrich Nietzsche, whom the author regards as the most prominent and aggravated types of the mental disease and degeneracy characteristic of the present generation. The same malady manifests itself in Tolstoi, the Preraphaelites, mystics, and symbolists, and other offshoots and after-growths of romanticism; but finds its strongest symptomatic expression in "Wagnerei," "Ibsenismus," and the "Ich-Sucht" or philosophic egoism of Nietzsche. Nordau censures in severe terms the immorality of Wagner's operas, and thinks it highly creditable to the innocence and incorruptibility of German mothers and maidens that "they are able to witness these pieces without getting fire-red and sinking into the earth for shame." Their guilelessness prevents them from having the slightest conception of the kind of scenes passing before them; "in a less childlike audience no one would venture to lift his eyes to his neighbors or could bear to have them look at him." The assertion that Wagner's operas do not represent "the music of the future," because the subjects are taken from a primitive and prehistoric past, betrays a strange confusion of the accidental nature of his theme with the essential character of his art. Nordau denies to Wagner all original creative power either as a poet or a musician; his talent is that of a great historical painter, the gift of a picturesque imagination, which he possesses in such a pre-eminent degree as to border on genius, and by means of which he produces marvellous stage effects. Ibsen and Nietzsche fare no better at Nordau's hands, and, of course, the brilliant and hapless Nietzsche, "the philosopher of

egoism," as he is styled, now hopelessly insane in consequence of overwork, is represented as a striking confirmation of our author's doctrine of degeneration. The tendency of Nordau's work is sufficiently indicated by its dedication to his "dear master," Prof. Lombroso of Turin, whose book on 'Genius and Insanity' evidently incited his pupil to a fuller discussion of the subject. Nordau's work may also be read in French ('Dégénérescence,' Paris: Alcan).

RECENT NOVELS.

Horace Chase. By Constance Fenimore Woolson. Harper & Bros.

Miss Stuart's Legacy. By Mrs. F. A. Steel. Macmillan & Co.

The Face of Death. By E. Vincent Briton. Macmillan & Co.

Rose, Shamrock and Thistle. By R. M. Kettle. London: T. Fisher Unwin.

Memoirs of Sherlock Holmes. By A. Conan Doyle. Harper & Bros.

Garrick's Pupil. By Augustin Filon. Translated by J. V. Pritchard. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

A Spinster's Leaflets. By Alyn Yates Keith. Boston: Lee & Shepard.

THE reader of Miss Woolson's last novel, 'Horace Chase,' cannot forget that it issued from the press almost at the moment of the author's death, or escape from the company of sorrowful reflection. For criticism the point of view is altered. The author's life-work is accomplished, and the part is important only in its relation to the whole. Authority in literature is with the dead, but it is still too early to forecast the probabilities of Miss Woolson's surviving her generation. Every one is interested in the representation of scenes and characters that may be tested by his own knowledge, attracted by a drama in which he could have played a part. Miss Woolson has described the places we know as we know them, has peopled them with figures we can unhesitatingly put our finger on, has indeed appealed so exclusively to contemporaneous interest that time must do its sifting and settling before we can even form an intelligent opinion about the permanent value of her work. If she should survive, there will be no question about her nationality and no slurs can be cast upon her patriotism. In spite of her long residence in Europe, she took on no foreign manners or habits of thought. The scenes she loved to linger in were American, comprehensively American, extending from Michigan to Florida, and she solved the emotional problems of life in the clear-eyed, American-maiden way —a way that is often more entertaining than convincing to the rest of the world. Her books are crowded with excellent portraits of her compatriots, who, however much they differ in character, have one habit in common—they are always on the go. The only spot on earth where one may not hope to find them is at home. Miss Woolson never explained at length this constant change of base. Her households flit without warning from New York to St. Augustine, from Charleston to San Francisco, and thus literally does the American pursue both business and pleasure. Equally of course, she assigned business to the men and pleasure to the women, a delightfully typical American adjustment of burdens. By comparing her novels with Trollope's (they drew from corresponding classes, neither great nor lowly, but well-to-do), one may see how truly is America the paradise of women. Fast as her people ride, Black Care sometimes slips on behind, and sorrow and bitter disappointment take seats in specials; but it is not in the crises of fortune or the depths of despair that these people make their impression. At such moments their reality seems to drop away, and we often behold a romantic convention posing as a human being with a soul. It is in such a moment that Horace Chase falls short. Up to the climax he is admirably drawn, with understanding and sympathy. We all know him—a lanky man, sallow-faced, imperfectly educated, of indifferent manners, yet kindly, humorous, and sensitive, and animated by a sincere desire to pay the most appalling of milliners' bills. When such a man marries, as he often does, a girl not half his age, one so taken up with the things he can give—the clothes and opportunity to show them up and down the earth—that she cares little about what he is, one result is sure, in novels, at all events. We sniff the coming lover from afar, and when the knot is not to be cut in the French way, but in the American-maiden way, we wonder upon whom the duty of preventing a scandal will devolve. If the wife be, like Mrs. Chase, devoid of fixed principle excepting that of always, at any cost, gratifying herself, all may depend on the lover's coolness and caution; if he be fiery, we must look to some vigilant friend, perhaps a formerly rejected but still adoring lover. In any case, the husband cannot be counted on. His suspicions are all for his competitors in money-making, not for his wife, whom alone he has bought without calculating the chances for profit. But when, at last, he is shown upon how worthless a person he has lavished himself, how recklessly indeed he has been sold, then we believe that the American becomes as other men, and feels and shows spirited resentment.

Here is a problem of nature which Miss Woolson was not fitted to solve in a way that should carry conviction. Horace Chase, pitting patience and kindness against the pride of his wife's brother and the asperity of her sister, or exhibiting his splendid pluck and nerve as he guides the funeral train along the precipices of the Carolina Mountains, is strong and estimable and real, but, in the last scene with his wife, he is none of these things. Nothing too harsh could easily be said of Chase's wife, judged by the revelations of her conduct, her speech, and even the tendency of her thought; yet Miss Woolson abounds in explanatory excuse. She says that her heroine is "essentially feminine," and rejoices that this delightful essence had not been "refined away by overdevelopment of the mental powers, or reduced to a subordinate position by ascetic surroundings." The evidence of Miss Woolson's novels is that she estimated women by the effect they may have upon men, and regarded them always leniently if they attracted what she calls "masculine adorers." By the modern movement, the so-called emancipation of women, she appears to have been quite unimpressed. Perhaps she thought the clamor for rights all a humbug, regarding it as only a clever device for extorting further privilege from men. Presumably, she was hostile to the movement, and, in her last novel, has put her hostility on record in the person of the grotesque sculptress, Maud Muriel Mackintosh.

To lay the scene of a novel in India is to start with a heavy handicap. We instinctively anticipate a far-off echo of 'Tales from the Hills,' and are rather slow in remembering that the Indian Empire is big enough to breed a large brood of independent novelists. Mrs. Steel, the author of 'Miss Stuart's Legacy,' is happily as unaffected by Mr. Kipling as if he had never existed. She has the characteristic gifts which distinguish the novelist from the writer of short stories—the gifts of devising and sustaining a plot and of elaborating character. Her method is deliberate and thoughtful, without any appearance of striving for smartness or epigram. In incident she moves securely between the improbable and the commonplace, developing a drama not dependent for effect on detachable situations or sudden explosion of passions. Miss Stuart's coming to Faizapore is an apparently insignificant event, yet she holds in her hands the destiny of two good men and true, and of one whose virtues are less conspicuous than his defects. She is herself a passive instrument of Fate rather than an active agent. She is neither very beautiful nor very clever, but she is very nice, with no disposition to set up her inclination as a standard of conduct, the infallible arbiter of right and wrong. In a country where nice girls are scarce, it is no wonder that Belle Stuart found three lovers, and perhaps not incredible that two of them, when in danger of death, should practically exhibit their affection by bequeathing to her their worldly possessions.

Of these lovers, the forlorn and unlucky boy, Dick Smith, appeals most strongly to sympathy. He was of those predestined to failure in life and once in a while given a chance to wipe out an inglorious record by a splendid death. When, in the mountain solitude, with a mob of murderous Afghans close upon him, Dick telegraphed the English officer who had been decoyed by a false message, "Treachery! For God's sake stand fast!" and then fell dead, he was no longer "poor Dick Smith," but a hero for a world to wonder at. Philip Marsden, the lawful hero, is a tame and insignificant figure beside Dick, but Marsden suffers from the author's desire to have him always doing the right thing. When he comes back, as it were from the grave, finding Belle Stuart, now Mrs. Raby, enjoying the fortune he bequeathed her, one hopes he may go temporarily wrong, but he is correct to the end. Raby, the successful lover, is a complex person, who, to escape appearing thoroughly detestable, must be considered dispassionately. Mrs. Steel has drawn him so fairly and fully that though no one could esteem him, any one might like him. Besides Raby, Shunker Dâs, "usurer, contractor, and honorary magistrate," and Afzul Khân, the villain of the piece, are presented with singular force and completeness. In drawing the Orientals, the author seems to step out from her nation and her race, and to become one of their own people. When to such uncommon ability for characterization there is added a knowledge in detail of Indian scenes, customs, and manners, and a pleasant manner in description, it cannot be denied that Mrs. Steel has, in her first book, we believe, made good a claim to distinction in her profession.

The serious frame of mind which a properly disposed person would assume towards a novel entitled 'The Face of Death' is rudely disturbed by the first chapter, wherein a baronet of fifty years brings home his fifth wife. The emotion of horror excited by Bluebeard's closet is sacred to the wondering credulity of extreme youth, and a modern version of the legend addressed to maturity is food for smiles, not tears. So Sir Andrew Wyke's household took it, grinning openly and broadly at his matrimonial adventures and indulging in sarcastic allusion. When the fifth wife

is supposed to be lost on the mountains, an ancient servitor, being questioned about what Sir Andrew says, answers, "Nothing worth hearing; a wife more or less ain't much matter to him." Then a sister of the monster remarks to his son by the first wife:

"It is most unthinking of your father to go on marrying these silly women one after another; I can't think where he finds them. How did the last one die?—tumbled down stairs, or sat in a draught, didn't she? They really must be a great trouble to Patty."

Fortunately for Patty, they were no trouble to her. Her levity increased with her number of stepmothers. Quite young, she perceived that her father killed off his wives by unceasing worrying and nagging, and the hope of her life was for the advent of a wife who should turn on him and beat him with his own weapons. The only person whom the situation plunged in gloom was the son, Alan Wyke, and it is to his horror of the Face of Death and struggle to get away from it that the author's serious effort is directed. What interest there may be in this struggle is seriously impaired by a devouring curiosity to know whether the fifth wife is taking it out of Sir Andrew, and an avidity for details of the process. Moreover, it is evident that the author has determined upon a belief in the immortality of the soul as the only cure of that fear of death which, as Dr. Johnson said, if any man says he never felt, he lies; and an argument of which the conclusion is foreseen from the beginning is dull. Then confidence in the author's fitness for the exposition of faiths is shaken by reference to the Stoics and Cicero as examples of a universal thirst for immortality, even as belief in his practical seamanship trembles when, meaning aft, or for'ard, he speaks of the "other end of the little boat." On the whole, the book presents the strange spectacle of a writer with rather a nice talent for comedy gravely and ineffectually striving after tragedy.

The title 'Rose, Shamrock, and Thistle,' though not exactly intriguing, has the merit of descriptive accuracy. The nationality of the characters may be detected by the chosen button-hole flower, and the scene of action is the old debatable land on both sides of the Tweed. Contrary to custom and expectation, the shamrock thrusts itself where it has no right to be, not for the purpose of causing division and strife, but to plead for union and personify smiling peace. When it, or she, Miss Rhoda Carysfort, arrives at the home of her English uncle, Mr. Mayne, relations between him and the Scotch Farquhars are strained. There is a dispute about land, and an unhappy love-affair, besides many minor grievances, all waiting for adjustment by a person of tact. Miss Carysfort's tact is equal to every call, and the result she achieves is consummate happiness for everybody. Besides having tact, she was very precipitate. Crossing to England, she rushes on deck in the dark and into the arms of a stranger, who throws over her "shuddering form a Scottish shepherd's plaid," and to whom "in the gloom she clung as to a pillar of refuge." Within five minutes she confides to the stranger details of her worldly condition and several precious reflections. It is by this impulsive method that her subsequent mediations are conducted and successes achieved.

Yet, in spite of all, she is not an interesting person. Nobody in the book is interesting, nor is anything that is done or said. The stranger (of course the Scottish foe of the Maynes) is a dreary bore. To know that he referred to the people dwelling about his Scottish tower as "poor hinds," is conclusive Of the English Maynes, the daughter is worthy and colorless, and the eldest son a ridiculous prig, who "pours out treasures of knowledge" to his little brothers at their play, and only when thus agreeably occupied, permits his "grave features to relax from their classic dignity." This is the sort of book that causes the disinterested reader aimlessly to wonder on what system of selection the business of publishing is conducted; it is also the sort of book that bitterly exasperates the writer of oft-rejected MSS and causes him to cry aloud against "rings" and inscrutable Fate. "May I be lost," he shouts, "if my novel is half so bad as that!" For his comfort be it said that his novel, unless he is afflicted with a mania for discussing "burning questions," could not possibly be worse.

In the 'Memoirs of Sherlock Holmes,' Mr. Doyle's pearl of detectives probably makes his last appearance. In the 'Final Problem,' where the game is changed and the most desperate and dangerous of criminals is hot on Sherlock's trail, they meet, grapple, tumble over a precipice and perish together. Of their bodies no trace was found, and probably none ever will be unless the spirit of the all-seeing Sherlock should personally conduct an investigation. In that case his enthusiastic biographer, Watson, will doubtless be on hand zealous to record, and perfect as ever in the rare art of self-obliteration. Except in Edgar Allan Poe's hands, the narration of the detection of crime has never been distinguished by literary quality, and he divided the interest between the horror of the crime and the mystery surrounding its perpetration. Mr. Doyle has adopted and extended Poe's method of deduction from minute observation, but has not been particular to select crimes of extraordinary atrocity or startling novelty for the display of Sherlock's acuteness. He appears to have chosen incidents at haphazard from police records and then applied a rule which may be formulated—Keep your eyes open and you must find out. His style is correspondingly matter-of-fact and succinct, and his work leaves no impression after the curiosity momentarily excited has been gratified. But he always excites curiosity, and he never falls into that vulgarity of sentiment and phrase which usually characterizes fiction worked up from police news. Considering the Sherlock Holmes stories, with such novels as 'Micah Clarke' and 'The Refugees,' we are struck by the author's uncommon versatility and his ability to provide entertainment for many tastes and moods.

M. Augustin Filon is better known in France as a historian and critic of literature than as a writer of fiction; he is, therefore, not among the French authors already popular in America. The little historical romance entitled 'Garrick's Pupil' is, indeed, the first translation of his work that we have seen. It makes a very pleasant introduction, noticeable, coming from a Frenchman, for a delicate appreciation of some authors, artists, and statesmen of the eighteenth century to whom their own countrymen are particularly bound by esteem and love. The drama has properly the flavor of its century. There is a wicked lord pursuing innocence for its undoing; a difficult complication unravelled by the declaration of the remorseful villain that he had caused two infants to be exchanged at birth; and, finally, young and tender lovers united, made happy and powerful by the immolation of the wicked lord and his wickeder mentor each on the other's rapier. This antique legend is so well set that we feel some irritation against memory insisting that we have heard it several times before. Some incidents of the Gordon riots are vividly told, though more "bookish" than the scenes that cannot be found in serious history. The dainty and wilful young actress is nicely contrasted with the rakish Lady Vereker, and it is again noticeable, coming from a Frenchman, that the young person is as good as she is beautiful, and that her most serious escapades are no more than frolics. The translation might easily have been better, yet is not vexatiously bad, and, after all, even indifferent English seems a more natural and fitting garment for such a tale than the best of French.

The fund of cheerfulness with which Nature endows the average mortal is not warranted to endure through a prolonged spinsterhood passed in the monotony of a small village. Especially when the spinster plunges for relief into autobiography is she prone to become lachrymose. Nothing except a sense of humor and a very warm heart can save her from perpetrating a book of lamentations. The "I" of 'A Spinster's Leaflets' is possessed of both saving graces, conspicuously the latter. She took an interest in her neighbors; she loved their children; she had a dream of a door-step baby—all of which kept her from contemplating herself as a rare exotic among common garden plants, unkindly left to wither on the stem. Her reminiscences are interesting and pleasantly written, though there is sometimes a strain for unusual expression, a confusion between the value of an idea and mere sound, which detracts from naturalness and desirable simplicity. One gets a little tired of the dream of the door-step baby, and welcomes the conversion of the vision into a fact. Like most realized dreams, this one does not give unadulterated joy. In spite of the old maid's tact and reasonableness and generosity and love, the boy goes wrong—wrong as if he had been her own son—and the tragedy of his wrongdoing is perhaps more bitter for her than for an actual mother. The scene where Philip confesses his transgressions indicates deep emotion, heroically restrained, and is altogether genuine. His repentance takes a form which hardly seems to be a natural development of his character, but, since it filled the spinster with contentment, there is no reason for less interested persons to cavil.

LOCKYER'S DAWN OF ASTRONOMY.

The Dawn of Astronomy: A Study of the Temple-Worship and Mythology of the Ancient Egyptians. By J. Norman Lockyer. Macmillan & Co. 1894.

Mr. Lockyer's power over the enginery of hypothetical reasoning—that which searches out the explanations of observed facts—is, with reference to astronomy, acknowledged by all Europe. When he first entered the field of astronomy, it was as an amateur, and he now audaciously leaps into another arena where there was no thought of his apparition. The principal object of his book is to advance the hypothesis that Egyptian temples were generally oriented to the risings and settings of stars, so that a few priests, standing in the windowless cell which is the holy of holies of every such structure, and looking out along the narrow axal aisle of pillars, would be looking in the right direction to catch sight of the temple's star at its rising or its setting.

Let us see how much there is to make this a

reasonable suggestion. Certainly an intimate connection subsisted between the theology and the astronomy of Egypt. Thus, one of the hieroglyphic determinatives for a god is a star. That is to say, a scribe having to suggest the idea of a god by means of a simple picture, draws a star as likely to effect his purpose. What could better betray the Egyptian way of thinking? The very name of the god of earth, Seb, coincides with the usual word for a star (*sba*, written *sb*); at least, so that god's name has usually been read—Brugsch thinks it should be *Geb*, which would destroy this argument. But though Seb, or Geb, is god of earth, there is no doubt the planet Saturn was appropriated to him. It is needless to dwell upon such points, because the idea of the gods having stellar affinities is commonly entertained by Egyptologers.

A certain importance was attached to the orientation of temples. The notion that a man ought to face some particular object when he prays belongs to most religions, if not to all. Everybody knows that our churches look the oldest ones to the east, later ones to the west. We learn from Mr. Lockyer that the tradition is, they should be directed toward the sunrise of the patron saint's day. Many temples in Egypt are known to be oriented with precision. In particular, the pyramids of Gizeh, which have been accurately surveyed, are out of position by only 4′, 5′, and 14′, and we remember that 1′ is the *minimum visibile*, 31′ the mean diameter of the full moon on the horizon. We know, too, from the inscriptions, that the determination of the azimuth for a temple was a matter of ceremony quite as much as our layings of corner-stones, the king being sometimes called upon to perform it; and in this ceremony a star was observed.

We know that the risings and settings of stars were carefully observed by ancient astronomers. The poem of Aratus, which, though itself relatively late, reproduces archaic observations, is in evidence. The last 200 lines are entirely devoted to describing what stars are on the horizon simultaneously at different times. When the eastward movement of the sun among the fixed stars has brought a given star far enough to the west of the sun for its rising to be observed before sunrise, the star is said to "rise heliacally"; and it was by the heliacal risings chiefly that the progress of the seasons, the times for planting, etc., were ascertained. In Egypt this was particularly necessary; and it was by the heliacal risings of Sirius, and later by the cosmical risings, or risings at the same moment as that of the sun, that the date of the inundation was predicted. It would be natural to build temples so that they might serve as observatories in which such risings could, owing to the exclusion of stray light and the direction of vision to the right point of the horizon, be conveniently observed.

Thus it would seem that the hypothesis is antecedently quite probable. That which gives it importance is the fact that the rising point of every star oscillates north and south owing to the precession of the equinoxes. In the course of 130 centuries the shifting will amount to from 54° to 73° for different stars, or about half a degree per century; and in special cases it may become indefinitely rapid. Consequently, if we knew that a hundred temples of the old kingdom of known orientation had been oriented to the risings of known stars with a probable error of 1° each, we could astronomically determine their average age with a probable error of only 20 years. Now there is a good 500 years of doubt at present affecting the dates of the old kingdom; and our general conception of the course of civilization and of the nature of man depends quite considerably upon the manner in which this doubt is to be resolved.

Mr. Lockyer reports that there are but a few temples whose azimuths are sufficiently known for the purpose of testing his theory. Still, he instances 7 which he supposes directed to the rising of Sirius, 12 to that of Phact, 9 to that of Hadar, 3 to that of Dubhe, 7 to that of Etamin, 4 to the setting of Canopus, 5 to that of Capella, and 2 to that of Spica. For each of these forty he calculated the date of orientation; and upon comparison with history he finds that in every case his calculated date either agrees with that of history or antecedes it. But he well remarks that it is quite possible that many temples were erected upon the foundations of previous structures whose orientation they followed, so that the cases in which his date antecedes the recorded date are not to be counted as against his hypothesis. We add, however, that neither are they to be counted in its favor; so that the result thus far is that Mr. Lockyer's theory is unrefuted by facts, and is even in small measure supported by observation. Considering its great importance, if true, the verdict should be that Mr. Lockyer has done enough to warrant the expenditure of the time of some of the foremen of the world's work and of sufficient money to obtain sufficient data to put the question at rest.

But while we are quite in earnest as to this, we cannot blind our eyes to certain serious difficulties in the way of the theory. For example, Mr. Lockyer finds five temples oriented to the setting of Capella. One of these is the temple of Ptah at Karnak. Another is a temple believed to be dedicated to Ptah at Memphis. Concerning the cult at the others there is little evidence. But why should a temple of Ptah be directed to the setting of Capella? The so-called circular zodiac of Denderah, now in the Louvre, shows us in the place of Capella a mummified cat held out in the hand of a man wearing ostrich feathers. The projection of that zodiac is accurately enough followed to allow no doubt about this. The cat we know was the emanation of the goddess Bast, who was called the beloved of Ptah. Accordingly, if the temples of Ptah had been directed to the *rising* of Capella, we should see no difficulty. But Mr. Lockyer is positive that a star must be either male or female; that if female only its rising is to be worshipped, if male only its setting. It may be said that the figure on the Denderah planisphere that holds the cat represents Ptah. But is that likely? The scarab was Ptah's emblem; and there is said to have been an Egyptian constellation of the scarab. If so, it has been confounded by the Denderah artist with Cancer, which is misplaced where we put Leo minor. In fact, the stars of Leo minor, with a few from the feet of Ursa major, make a very good scarab, as anybody can see these evenings in the sky. This must, then, have been the part of the heavens sacred to Ptah, and it is unlikely there was any other.

Again, Mr. Lockyer makes no less than twelve temples directed to the rising of Phact and seven to that of Etamin. The former is a star of two and three-quarter magnitude, the latter fainter than two and one-third. The risings of such stars cannot be observed, we believe, even in Egypt. Only very bright stars can be seen to rise. Moreover, Etamin and Dubhe were so near north, and their risings and settings consequently so very oblique, as to be indeterminate and unattractive phenomena, which it seems very unlikely persons would be led to observe.

But our objections do not stop here. As long as astronomers busied themselves with the *times* of rising of stars chiefly without much attention to their *amplitudes*, or directions on the horizon, we can readily understand how the precession of the equinoxes could escape detection. But when they had built a few costly temples on purpose to have stars appear at their risings in the exact axes of long corridors, which temples after a few years (in the case of Dubhe after twenty years only) were found to be out of place by a whole degree, the king who had paid for them and who had, perhaps, devoted his personal attention to their orientation, would be likely to grumble and to appoint an investigating committee. Nor could the fact by any possibility be kept quiet. The precession of the equinoxes ought, then, one would think, to have been discovered and published. Mr. Lockyer supposes that it was indeed discovered, but that "the priests"—which can here only mean the whole body of the priests, say perhaps a tenth of the population—kept the matter secret. Very well, this is pretty violent, but let us suppose that it was so. Did they, then, still go on orienting their temples to the rising of Dubhe, knowing the star would not stay in that place for one generation?

Mr. Lockyer supposes that rival sects used to scheme to build their temples in each other's way, so as to prevent those others from seeing the worshipped star at its rising: and he thinks temples were abandoned and their cult put an end to in that way. At the same time he thinks that when temples were rebuilt at vast expense, the builders simply followed old lines of orientation, without taking the trouble to change them, although they could see the risings would not occur in the directions of the new temples, and even knew the principle by virtue of which there was sure to be such failure. These parts of the theory, we think, will have to be modified in some measure, even if any part of it stands. Whether, after such modification shall have been made, it will retain any great value as an arbiter of chronology is a question not to be hastily answered.

We were speaking of Ptah. Ptah was the god of truth. But that characteristic of truth which is particularly emphasized in the myths and symbolism of the god is unchangeability. Now it is unquestionable that absolute truth, if one could attain to it, is an eternal rock; but attainable truth, the most enlightened opinion, is distinguished from that which is cruder and less truthful by its life and growth and metabolism. When the Egyptians discovered the year had 365 days, they induced the king to enter the temple of Ptah and swear by all that was truthful that he would never change the length of the year nor allow any of his successors to do so. Soon it was found out that the year was 365¼ days, and matters of great concern were getting thrown into the utmost confusion. But what was to be done? The king had sworn in the temple of Truth. He had bound his successor and bound that successor to bind his successors for ever. So they kept on with the old year. In like manner it may be that when the king had once oriented a temple and had sworn to Ptah that that orientation never should be changed, the Egyptians may have conceived that it had got to stay so. They had a sort of the-boy-stood-on-the-burning-deck idea of truth. But when it had once become quite clear that the changeless orientation was wrong, there would no longer be any stinging incentive to strenuous

endeavors for the highest accuracy of orientation.

The Egyptians were priests or engineers or physicians or artisans. They were always pursuing a practical object, without unnecessary generalization. They had a decided distaste for generalization carried beyond practical needs. They hated to see things more regular than there was any use of their being. Right angles bored them. Longfellow said he *hated* science, and so he did; and so did the Egyptians. The greater their cleverness in solving practical problems, the more it brings into relief their utter incapacity for science. The mathematical papyrus is a marvel of inaptitude. The medical papyrus, recently translated, is beneath contempt. Claudius Ptolemy, if he is to be considered an Egyptian, is the only one of the race who ever showed scientific genius. Their weakness is put into a strong light when they are compared with the Chaldees, who, even when magic was their only lore, pursued that study with all the method and industry of modern savants. In particular, the Babylonians were great archæologists; and it is to the diligence with which some of them searched out their own history that the chronological accuracy of our knowledge about it is due. The Egyptians, on the other hand, cared nothing about fact. They covered the walls of their buildings, not with records of the past, but with dreams of what they would do in a future life. They loved to boast that their writings had been found in some ancient tomb or under the statue of some early king, because to their minds what was old and what was true were indistinguishable; but to veracious history they were indifferent. Of course, there are aspects—namely, all practical and theoretically ethical aspects—under which the Egyptians appear as a very admirable people; and Egyptologers become so seized with admiration for them that they are generally blinded to their scientific weakness. Erman alone, in his excellent popular work, 'Ægypten und ägyptisches Leben im Alterthum' (Tübingen, 1885), has told the plain truth.

We refer to this side of the Egyptian character here because we infer from it that it is most unlikely that that people persisted for ages in such scientific accuracy in the orientation of their buildings as to justify any inferences from it involving nice calculations. Lockyer adduces the circular zodiac of Denderah as evidence of the scientific accuracy of the Egyptians, saying (what we fully admit) that that zodiac must have been copied from a regular map of the heavens constructed about 700 B. C. That was Biot's discovery. But Lockyer rather innocently takes it for granted that that map had been made in Egypt. Not only is this gratuitous, but the nature of the projection proves that it was an importation, for it is a central projection from the vertex of a cone tangent to the sphere on the circle of perpetual occultation for a latitude little less than 40°; so that it cannot show any of those stars that are so far south as to be visible only at lower latitudes. We have been to the trouble of trying how a similar projection suited to the latitude of Denderah would look, and find it quite unlike the celebrated planisphere. Most likely, then, the original was executed at Nineveh (latitude 36¼°) in the reign of Sargon, when the Egyptians, as we otherwise know, after the fashion of defeated nations, were eager to acquire that knowledge that had gained their adversaries the victory of Raphia, 720 B. C. The copy set up at Denderah in the second century after Christ cannot well have been a copy at first or at second hand, and in it Egyptian constellation figures were substituted for the Assyrian ones, except in its most scientific part, the zodiac, all the figures of which are of Chaldean origin, barring the figure in the place of Cancer, and possibly Libra. But when Mr. Lockyer asks us to judge the astronomy of the Egyptians by this monument, we must in fairness assent to that. That that people, setting up such a costly piece of work in an eminently scientific age, knew no better way than to copy the record made in Assyria eight centuries before, without glancing at the heavens to see what enormous changes the precession of the equinoxes had brought about in the interval—that, we must confess, does indeed speak volumes in respect to the degree of assiduity with which they had been prosecuting the work of astronomical observation. It is as if we had no star-catalogues better than those of Sûfî and Ulugh Beg; or as if those astronomers had done nothing but make servile transcripts from Ptolemy.

We cannot leave the book without calling attention to the perspicuous and valuable discussion of the Sothic cycle. Some of the chapters upon the religion, on the other hand, seem to us, we must say, to push theorizing further than good sense can go.

ECONOMIC DISCORDS.

The Distribution of Wealth. By John R. Commons. Macmillan. 1893.

Labor and the Popular Welfare. By W. H. Mallock. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. 1893.

THERE was never a time when so great a number were crying out, "What shall we do to be [socially] saved?" as at present, nor ever one when the cries of "Lo, here!" and "Lo, there!" were more conflicting. That any one should have within a generation written of the harmonies of economics must seem to modern students well-nigh incredible. We have selected almost at random these two books as illustrating the bewildering diversity of the views which the public desiring to be educated is asked to accept. If the two authors were to read each other's works, it is clear that each would express a very derogatory opinion of the other; and some might be found to agree with both judgments.

Prof. Commons is a follower of the Austrian economists, and of course makes much of the theory of marginal utility. This theory, it is perhaps well to explain, owes its significance to the fact that when the satisfaction of a want is begun, the pleasure is more intense than that experienced as satiety approaches. Hence, as he that is full craves no food, food then offered has for him no value. Or, to take an illustration of our own, when the theory of marginal utility has been expounded until every one is tired of it, no further exposition affords any pleasurable sensation. For our own part, we think the new political economists have neglected a most important suggestion of Aristotle's, for they base their theory upon the proposition that an excess of useful things is useless, but Aristotle points out that it may be positively hurtful. Why should we not have an economics constructed upon this principle, just as the mathematicians elaborate a universe turned inside out through negative dimensions of space? We believe that several very pretty reputations might be won by young professors if they would expound political economy from this standpoint.

In justice to Prof. Commons we should say that in another connection he does present certain theories that are preposterous enough to give him claim to originality. He informs us that the right enjoyed by those now engaged in a certain trade to prevent other people from engaging in it is an extension of freedom of contract, "the essential right of freedom in industry." As the result of freedom of this kind is lack of employment for the outsiders, Prof. Commons very logically infers that they must have a right to be employed, and that a proper view of freedom requires that employers should be required to retain their workmen permanently, at such wages and upon such conditions as "the State" prescribes. But if by reason of dishonesty and inefficiency workmen are discharged by private employers, then the State will take them up. Public works shall be undertaken, and if such a thing as a deficit should occur, it is only necessary to squeeze the owners of "unearned increments" by taxation. As in Prof. Commons's view nearly all industry is subjected to monopoly, the possibilities of revenue here are beyond the dreams of Henry George. But there would be no deficit, for Prof. Commons assures us that not only would the wages of the lowest laborers be increased by 30 to 50 per cent., but the wages of all laborers would be increased by raising "the marginal utility of the marginal laborers."

While Prof. Commons finds monopoly and rent everywhere, Mr. Mallock eloquently demonstrates that the rent charge in England is a mere trifle. "In 1814 the incomes of the landlord and farmer were 56 per cent. of the total assessed to income tax, in 1851 they were 37 per cent., and in 1880 only 24 per cent." They are now only 16 per cent. If these incomes were divided among the people, it would give each man about two pence a day and each woman about three half-pence. Moreover, the holders of more than a thousand acres were in receipt of only £29,000,000 of rent in 1878, which must be now less than £20,000,000, while the million small holders whose rentals average but £76 received in the aggregate £70,000,000. Thus it appears, upon Mr. Mallock's showing, that the great landlords are scarcely worth plundering—and, indeed, when we consider the rate at which their property has lately depreciated, it looks as if it might presently vanish without the aid of the socialists.

Having shown that the proletariat would make little by confiscating the rents, Mr. Mallock then imagines a mob dividing the contents of a palatial house in London, and points out that rare pottery and pictures would not be susceptible of division without loss of value, and that in general a division of wealth would occasion great shrinkage. The net result would be that every one would find himself possessed of some kind of lodging, of £8 worth of furniture and clothes, the same value of provisions and miscellaneous goods, and somewhat less than £4 worth of jewelry. From this he justly infers that no equal division of capital is practicable, and that the efforts of the radicals must be directed to the redistribution of income.

But when the source of the national income is examined, Mr. Mallock finds that the socialists of what may now perhaps be called the orthodox or classical school labor under a grave misapprehension. They consider that all wealth is produced by the workers for wages; but Mr. Mallock contends that of the national income of £1,300,000,000, Labor produces about five hundred, while Ability and Capital produce about eight hundred millions.

For the vast increase in the income of the English people has been created by improvements in production, by the Ability which invents and applies inventions; while the manual labor is not essentially different in character from what it was a half-century ago. "Capital is Ability guiding and controlling Labor."

"A hundred years ago the utmost that labor could produce in the most advanced country of Europe was £140,000,000 annually for a population of 10,000,000, or £14 per head. The production per head is now £35, or, for each 10,000,000 of population, £350,000,000. . . . If Labor is credited with producing the whole of the smaller sum, the entire difference between the smaller sum and the larger is to be credited to Ability operating on industry through Capital."

The number possessing Ability is put by Mr. Mallock at 4 per cent. of the producing classes.

But while men of ability thus produce nearly two-thirds of the national income, they turn over a considerable share of this to the laborers. A century ago ten million laborers produced £140,000,000, but they kept but half of this for themselves. Now the same number would produce the same amount, but instead of £70,000,000, they get £200,000,000, Thus the laborer, although he works no harder than he did, receives nearly three times what he did. He gets far more than he would had the entire wealth of the kingdom at the accession of Queen Victoria been equally divided. He gets this increased reward through the competition of the men of Ability or Capital, as is shown by the fall in the rate of interest. If things go on as they have done, he will get more and more; but if he attempts to deprive Capital of its reward by confiscation, he will kill the goose that lays the golden eggs. For Ability is stimulated to exertion by the hope of wealth and the desire to provide for offspring, and if its reward is withheld, the whole fabric of modern civilization will crumble into dust.

There are several things in Mr. Mallock's argument that deserve comment, but his powers as a writer will doubtless secure him a sufficient audience capable of discriminating judgment. It is enough to say that his book in its emphasis upon the importance of able management to successful production is at the opposite pole of economic thought to such works as that of Prof. Commons, which are based upon the conception that the officers of government can profitably direct the industries of nations.

History of the Town of Harvard, Mass. 1732-1893. By Henry S. Nourse, A.M. Harvard: Printed for Warren Hapgood. 1894.

THE community whose history Mr. Nourse has compiled with so much industry and related with so much literary skill in this handsome volume, occupies the extreme northeastern corner of Worcester County, "the heart of the Commonwealth." Like other New England hill towns, it has declined in population since the railroads began to differentiate the rural districts, creating artificial centres of life and activity and opportunity along the easy grade of the watercourses. At no time numbering as many as 1,700 inhabitants, the total had retreated in 1890 to less than 1,100, whereas the first official census of the colony in 1765 showed a total of 1,126. But retrogression is not universal, for "the hay crop was [in 1771] not half what it now is," and "the production per acre was less than three-fourths as much as modern farming secures," even with nine yoke of oxen to one at the present day. In 1885, "Harvard ranked as the two hundred and thirty-fifth town in the State in population," a little lower in manufactures, yet forty fourth in agricultural products, and twenty-ninth in milk-producing. The enormous apple crop, which once went mostly to cider and demoralization, now goes to Liverpool, and the vote under local option is overwhelmingly against licensing the liquor traffic.

The town still, therefore, has a thrifty look, and the attachment of its natives has been manifested in the usual way, by endowing a church and founding a school, a public library, and a lectureship; and, in the case of Mr. Warren Hapgood (besides other benefactions), procuring the writing of this history and providing the means of publishing it. The beauty of the varied landscape and distant prospects on every hand is such as Worcester County abounds in without having the fame of some of her sister counties in this regard. The actual site of the town has a peaceful tradition, but the men of Harvard shared in the defence of neighboring settlements against the savages, served in the French wars, and bore their part manfully in the Revolutionary service. With singular independence, they sympathized with Shays's rising, and stood by Jefferson and the embargo. Their soldiers' monument testifies to their participation in the war for the Union. The first three ministers at Harvard were graduates of the college bearing that name, and so was the fifth, who was none other than the Rev. William Emerson, father of the Transcendentalist, and a school-teacher prior to his ordination; but in this secular occupation, we are told, "his inability to control a fierce temper was a bar to his success." As a clergyman the estimation in which he was held is indicated by the fact that, in order to secure his release to them, the First Church in Boston had to pay the sum of $1,000 to the Harvard society in 1799.

This circumstance made the greater Emerson a native of Boston instead of Harvard; but early in the forties (when, as he wrote to Carlyle, "Not a reading man but has a draft of a new community in his waistcoat pocket") his friend Alcott, casting around for a spot on which to "initiate a Family in harmony with the primitive instincts in man," selected Harvard. The story of "Fruitlands," briefly and not very reverently recorded by Mr. Nourse, is one of the most entertaining passages in his book. It forms part of a chapter having also to tell of the Shakers at Harvard, whose persecution is one of the few dark spots in the town's annals; and of the little religious fraternity grouped around the prophet Shadrach Ireland in the middle of the last century. He was the Harris of his day, inspiring his besotted followers with the belief that he had an immortal body, and preparing them, after his death, to welcome Ann Lee as his successor, and to be absorbed in the Shaker community. It does not appear that the Millerite fanaticism invaded Harvard, which, to be sure, would in 1843 have found itself embarrassed with another millennium supplementary to Alcott and Lane's, to say nothing of the contemporary *Morus multicaulis* mania.

The endowed school alluded to above bears the name of and is a memorial to the most picturesque figure in Harvard's chronicle, Col. Henry Bromfield. This Bostonian, who spent the last half of his life in retirement on his farm of one hundred and twenty acres, lived to be ninety-two years of age, being one of a remarkable list of nonagenarians that Harvard can boast. He carried over into the present century the dress, the manners, and domestic style of the Revolutionary epoch; a Sir Roger de Coverley, as he seemed to Mrs. Josiah Quincy. Mr. Nourse, who has omitted nothing of what we are accustomed to expect in a first-class town history, gives a rather extensive (if mostly theological) bibliography of Harvard. But while he includes Miss Quincy's memoir of her mother for the light it sheds on Col. Bromfield, he has overlooked Edmund Quincy's *Dedham and Harvard*, "An Octogenary Fifty Years Since." For in this story, which may be found in the volume called 'The Haunted Adjutant' (Boston, 1885), "Col. Wyborne" is none other than Col. Bromfield; "Sanfield," which, by way of mystification, was transferred to the Old Colony and the shore of Massachusetts Bay, stands for Harvard; the black "Peter" is Othello, or Thurlo; and the Rev. "Richard Armsby" may pass for the Rev. Nathaniel Thayer of Lancaster.

The clergy of the town have on the whole been a credit to it, beginning with John Seccomb, who led the way in toleration of heterodoxy, "praying that (notwithstanding any difference in lesser matters) we may yet, wherein we are agreed, and whereunto we have already attained, walk by the same Rule, and mind the same thing." The habits of the eccentric Rev. Joseph Penniman, it is true, were unsteady, but it is not clear that he was in his cups when, called to intercede at a farmhouse for the stricken inmates, he "besought the Lord to 'be very merciful unto Bezaleel, who lieth nigh unto death in the north chamber; . . . send thy ministering angels to comfort Bathsheba, groaning with anguish in the south chamber; . . . visit with thy healing grace Judith, thy sorely afflicted handmaiden, in the bedroom down stairs.'" The ancestors of the Rev. Dr. Henry W. Bellows and of the Rev. Dr. Cyrus Hamlin were among the swarm that went out from Harvard to settle the northern wilderness when the Indian alarm was over. The exodus still continues, but there is one house in Harvard which has been occupied by five generations of the same family, and from time to time, as we have intimated, a native fondly returns from exile, bringing his sheaves with him.

The typography of this volume, from the office of the Clinton (Mass.) *Courant*, is worthy of a metropolitan press. It is well illustrated with one portrait and several views, besides a map. Mr. Nourse displays the same qualities of head and heart which made his two volumes on the adjacent town of Lancaster so edifying. There is a cheerful moral to his Harvard narrative, in which the optimistic will read New England's *Resurgam*.

Roman and Mediæval Art. By W. H. Goodyear, M.A., author of 'Ancient and Modern History,' etc. With many illustrations. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent. 1894.

'ROMAN and Mediæval Art' is written with a grasp of its subject that is not common with books of its kind. It is also interesting, partly because the author has distinct ideas to present as well as facts, partly because his style is direct and animated, partly because he does not overload his work with detail. Mr. Goodyear knows what history and scholarship are; he has made himself acquainted with his subject in his previous work, and so his facts are well selected and well arranged, and his statement of them is trustworthy. The limits of the book have made careful selection and condensed statement imperative, and the condensation has been so close that qualifications and alternatives are left out which might well have found place in a book

intended for teaching, as we suppose this to be. This gives a pronounced character of finality, and makes statements on points that are open to contest as positive as on those which may be considered unquestionable.

We must dissent here and there from Mr. Goodyear's conclusions, or at least from his presentation of them. Among the influences which destroyed Roman classic art he makes too much, we think, of the destructive opposition of the early Christians. No doubt the Christians had for the idols and temples of heathenism a great hatred, which survived, or revived, in the eighth century: but this was most active in the East, that part of the Roman world in which the decadence of art was least and its subsequent development most rapid. In Italy, the repeated edicts of the Western emperors and governors of Rome, even of the Christian Theodoric, if they prove a tendency, as exists everywhere, to plunder old monuments, show also an effort to preserve them which was persistent, and, as subsequent history shows, largely successful. On the other hand, the rapid impoverishment and depopulation of Italy, especially of Rome, the abasement of the patriciate, which had been the fosterer of the arts, and the submergence of most of Italy and the northern provinces by a flood of domineering barbarians, who had no idea of art except for personal adornment and despised its monumental side, are influences of which, we think, Mr. Goodyear does not make sufficient account.

We cannot agree with him in deciding that the art of Western Europe was on the whole Byzantine rather than anything else from the sixth century to the eleventh, for this is the drift of his statements, or that "it is not till the eleventh century that we see spontaneous efforts at improved design in Western Europe," and in assigning that century for the beginning of Romanesque art. This is too ready a solution of the "Byzantinische Frage." It is true that recent criticism has remanded to the eleventh century many monuments that had before been ascribed to the eighth, ninth, or tenth, and that the whole history of art in the West during this period is obscure; but the development of Irish and Saxon illuminated MSS. from the time of St. Columba, the Celtic goldsmith's work, and the long growth of northern monastic architecture almost from Winfried's mission to Germany in the eighth century, are not to be ignored. To say that there was no independent development, in the face of the Book of Kells, the Ardagh chalice, and the famous monastery-plan of St. Gall, to mention no later works, is going too far. In truth the subject of the monastic pursuit of the arts is slighted, and Mr. Goodyear's readers are not told that while Byzantine art was running its course in the east, and certainly influencing western and northern art, though chiefly in its decorative detail, there was a steady growth of the art of illumination on the one hand and of architecture in one of its most imposing phases on the other, among the monastic orders of the north, and that this growth, of which the Romanesque of the twelfth century was only the last fruit, furnished the lay builders of the thirteenth with most of the material, except the decorative forms, for the splendid outgrowth of the pointed Gothic.

In the same way the northern school of mediæval sculpture is slighted. There is no hint that at the time when the Pisani began the rapid regeneration of Italian sculpture, there existed in France a well-developed school, the product of generations of slow but continuous progress, whose best works are more mature and more beautiful in style than those of the Pisani, though they are for the most part limited to figures about the doorways of cathedrals. All these things point to the main limitation of the book, that the reader's attention is kept too close to the south and east, especially to Italy, and that not enough notice is taken of the share of the north, which was the predominant factor in the Western art of the middle ages. This may be due to the effort to hold fast to the main line of historical development, which is certainly continuous from the Rome of the Empire to the Rome of the Renaissance, and the following of which is one of the special merits of the book; but it robs the book of completeness and of due proportion.

We notice here and there a slip, such as no writer of a book of this kind succeeds in absolutely avoiding. For instance, the west porch of the Cathedral of Chartres (figure 111) is called the south; figure 9 is called a variant of the Ionic capital instead of the composite; the pointed vault of the Cathedral of Mainz, rebuilt near the beginning of the thirteenth century, is said to be round, and the popular confusion between the Dome of the Rock and the Mosque of Omar is here encouraged. But such errors seem unusually few. The abundant process illustrations are very well chosen and well executed, though some, as is inevitable, are from imperfect originals. The paper is, for the sake of these prints, of a kind, heavily loaded and shiny, that makes handling the book disagreeable and reading it a penance.

The Wilder Quarter-Century Book: A Collection of Original Papers dedicated to Prof. Burt Green Wilder at the close of his twenty-fifth year of service in Cornell University (1868–1893) by some of his former students. Ithaca, N. Y.: Comstock Publishing Co. 8vo, pp. 493, illustrated.

Fourteen or fifteen sometime pupils of Prof. Wilder, of more than three thousand he has instructed in the past quarter of a century, have made contributions to a memorial for the twenty-fifth year of his professorship. The outcome is a large volume of scientific papers with many illustrations, a list of the professor's writings, and a good portrait. Four of the articles appeal to physicians, one to botanists, one to geologists, and the remainder to zoölogists. The work is not that of beginners; the authors were pupils years ago and have since become authorities in their different lines. These essays represent their best work, and give a good idea of present attainments and abilities. The average of excellence is high—highest, perhaps, in lines of direct observation.

The substance of a number of the papers had previously been given to the public. "Temperature and Vertebræ," by Prof. Jordan of Stanford University, occupies the post of honor. Theoretical premises, however, make this article more liable to serious criticism than some of the others. It treats of the fact that in certain families of fishes genera inhabiting warmer waters have fewer vertebræ. Günther first pointed out that some northern fishes had more than their southern representatives. Gill afterward enlarged upon this; and, later, Jordan, with more data, took up the subject to determine the cause of the differences. He concludes that, "other things being equal, the numbers of vertebræ are lowest in the shore-fishes of the tropics, and especially in those of local habits, living about rocks and coral reefs. The cause of this is to be found in the fact that in these localities the influences of natural selection are most active." He finds the tropical seas among rocks and coral reefs near the shore to be the centre of competition, where the struggle for existence is "a struggle between fish and fish, and among individuals of a very great number of species, each one acquiring its own peculiar points of advantage." This would place the severest struggle for life in the midst of the most favorable conditions of existence and the least favorable to activity. The statement that in those localities "in the sea the temperature is never unfavorable to self-activity" does not appear to be substantiated by what is known of habits, or by the comparative amounts of air in warmer waters. It is admitted, further, that the explanation does not cover the whole case; numerous exceptions are noted to be otherwise accounted for. Of some of these it is said, "Perhaps the retention of many segments is connected with that strength and swiftness in the water for which the mackerels are preëminent"; and of others, "it is evident that the presence of numerous vertebral joints is essential to the suppleness of body which is the eel's chief source of power." Use is thus resorted to when selection fails; but why we should in the other cases drop an explanation based on what has been ascertained of the habits for one based entirely on theory is not made clear. Crediting the results to selection simply begs the whole question and explains nothing. The converse hypothesis, "absence of selection," is quite as conclusive and fully as reasonable. Had the investigations been carried further, to the species of the genus, the conclusion would have been unavoidable that the variations in the numbers of vertebræ correspond directly with the habits, the comparative activity, the use of the vertebral column, in the fish. This is about what is conceded in the exceptions cited. Taking a particular genus, it is seen at once that the active species, preying on the others, have more vertebræ than the others that grope about the rocks and mud in the same water. The facts are, temperature makes possible the food supply; the habits depend on the character of the food, variety in the food inducing variety in the habits; and the habits modify the structure.

Louisiana Studies. By Alcée Fortier. New Orleans: F. F. Hansell & Bro. Pp. 307.

This volume is made up of a number of papers on the Literature, Customs, Dialects, Folk-Lore, and History of his native State, most of which, the author tells us, have heretofore appeared in different literary and scientific journals. The subjects are varied, and while some are not treated as exhaustively as might be desirable, the *tout ensemble* will be very acceptable to the student of history and philology, as well as to the general reader who is curious of penetrating into that (to many) *terra incognita*, the old Creole State. One hundred and twenty-two pages are devoted to the literature of Louisiana under three heads, viz.: Literature in the Colony, the French Literature of Louisiana, and English Literature. The opening chapter recites, briefly, the reasons why the Creoles have so steadily held on to the language of their forefathers with an exclusiveness which long stood in the way of their writers and confined their fame within the narrow limits of their own State. Since the war the use of English has become more general, though French remains still the mother tongue, the language of the home cir-

cle. Mr. Fortier reviews the condition of literature in the colony previous to annexation, and, as a specimen, reproduces *in extenso* a poem written in 1779 by Julien Poydras to celebrate the taking of Baton Rouge by Galvez, the warlike and popular Spanish governor. The style is pompous and bombastic—peculiarities which mark the works of the second-rate French poets of that time—but the poem is not without merit. We are next introduced to the representatives of the literature of the State of Louisiana. The first name in the record is that of Judge Francis Xavier Martin of the Supreme Court, who, in 1827, published a History of Louisiana extending to the year 1815. The fact that this work was written in English, at a time when French was almost exclusively spoken in the State, gives it additional importance. This valuable history was republished in 1882, accompanied by an interesting memoir of the author by Judge W. W. Howe, and Annals from 1815 to 1861 by J. F. Condon. Next comes the preëminent name of Charles Gayarré, the venerable historian, now in his ninetieth year, whose intellect is as strong and his pen as trenchant as in his mature manhood. Mr. Gayarré's talent is versatile, and while he is known to the English-reading public only as a learned historian, he is regarded, besides, in his own State as a dramatist and novelist of no mean order. Dr. Alfred Mercier is another versatile writer who in his ripe old age wields the pen with youthful facility, and cultivates various branches of literature with equal success. Mr. Fortier gives several extracts from this writer's works. The prose writers of Louisiana have turned their attention principally to the serious subject of history; or is it the romance of history, so prevalent in Louisiana, that has attracted them? They have produced but few novels. Poetry is the favorite field of the Creole.

The following remarks, which serve as an introduction to the subject of English literature, will attract attention:

"For a number of years after the cession to the United States the conditions were not favorable to English literature. The settlers from the United States were not very numerous, and they were too much absorbed by their material interests to attend to literary pursuits. As the prosperity of the State increased, more attention was paid to education, but the culture of the people, as in other Southern States, was directed principally to statesmanship, and we had great orators, distinguished journalists, but comparatively few authors of note. It is proper to state, however, that the celebrated *DeBow's Review* exerted a great influence for many years upon literature. Its pages contain papers of value on all kinds of subjects, and it is a complete encyclopædia of the Old South. The institution of slavery is claimed by many as having been detrimental to literary activity. It was not, perhaps, so much slavery itself as the material prosperity accompanying it, which was a drawback to literature. The Southern people were content with attending to their mercantile and agricultural interests and with governing the nation to a great extent, and, although many were highly educated, few wrote in branches generally included in the term literature. Too many, however, spent their energy and their talents in defending with their pens the cause of slavery, a cause which was naturally considered by them legal and just. Slavery, in that way, injured literature."

The study on customs and dialects will prove of much interest to the student of philology. Mr. Fortier gives many specimens of that peculiar dialect spoken by the negroes in lower Louisiana known as Creole French. Curiously enough, this dialect is not simply bad French, as might be supposed, but a purely phonetic idiom, having a grammar of its own, based upon the Old French language more than on the modern. "We may understand," says Mr. Fortier, "by studying the transformation of the French into the Creole dialect, the process by which Latin, spoken by the uncivilized Gauls, became our own French." The dialect of the Acadians—the pathetic history of these unfortunate people is feelingly reverted to by Mr. Fortier—is less interesting than that of the negroes. It is less *sui generis* and more like the French of 200 years ago, studded with provincial *patois* and corrupted by the introduction of foreign expressions from various sources. It varies, moreover, according to localities. Mr. Fortier thus accounts for this incongruity:

"Canada and Acadia were settled mainly by emigrants from Normandy, Poitou, Aunis, Brittany, and Picardy, with a few from Paris. The dialectical peculiarities of the ancestors may still be found, to a certain extent, among the descendants, although they must have been very much weakened by long residence in America. The constant intermarriage of people whose fathers were from different provinces tended certainly to erase the peculiarities of speech, and at the time of the dispersion of the Acadians in 1755 their language must have been nearly uniform. I should, therefore, arrive at the conclusion that the differences in the Acadian dialect in Louisiana are due more to local influences than to the provincial peculiarities of speech of the Norman or West France ancestors. The English language has naturally exerted a great influence on the Louisiana Acadian patois, and so have the Spanish and Creole patois, producing thus a very interesting speech mixture."

The Islenòs—people from the Canary Islands who were brought to the colony in 1778—form the subject of another interesting paper. Their customs and their language (the Spanish, slightly deteriorated) are graphically described.

Part iii. deals principally with the important question of Education. Mr. Fortier presents a careful review of the condition of education during the colonial period, in ante-bellum times, and at the present day. Private educational institutions of a high order have always existed, and the State's solicitude for the intellectual development of the young has been evinced in the establishment of free or partly free schools and colleges; yet when we consider the mixed population and sparsely settled districts, we can well understand the illiteracy of a large number of the population. Only since the system of public schools has been in force has the schoolmaster been truly abroad in the out-of-the-way parishes. Mr. Fortier says in conclusion: "One can see by this brief sketch of the history of education in Louisiana that great efforts were made in the past to educate our people. Much is being done now for the cause of education, and we have every reason to hope that Louisiana will soon stand on a par, with regard to the general instruction of her people, with her most favored sister States."

The fact of the "Studies" being distinct papers, published at different times, but having reference always to the glorification of Louisiana and her people, has made certain repetitions unavoidable which would not be found in a work written on a preconceived plan. The typographical execution and general get-up of the book are very creditable.

Sewage Disposal in the United States. By George W. Rafter, M.Am.Soc.C.E., and M. M. Baker, Ph.B., Associate Editor *Engineering News.* D. Van Nostrand Co. Pp. 598.

THIS is the most elaborate and, for engineers, the most useful book that has appeared on the important subject of which it treats. In fact, so far as practice in this country is concerned, it is the only comprehensive one. It will surprise even those who are familiar with the subject to know that so much material could have been gathered from actual experience with sewage-disposal works carried out in the United States, where the demand for any other disposal than discharge into a stream or into the sea first arose less than twenty years ago. The earliest works in this country for the purification of the sewage of a town were constructed at Lenox, Mass., in 1875–'76. The list of disposal works in operation in 1893, as here given, includes thirty-five towns and some half-dozen public institutions. These are described and illustrated in this book, supplementing by practical examples the theoretical portion of the text, which seems to cover the whole range of information on the questions discussed. Indeed, useful as this work cannot fail to be as a book of reference for engineers, its mass of tables and its very copious extracts from authorities will render it less attractive than it should be to the lay reader. From one important point of view, this is to be regretted, because the book contains a great deal that is of general interest, which will be very effective in forming public opinion and in propagating the gospel of cleanliness.

The value and influence of foreign study and practice in the field of sewage purification are duly recognized, but, even in the scientific discussion of details and methods, more attention is bestowed on what has been accomplished in our own country. In fact, while we must give full credit for intelligent leadership to England, and while most notable advance has been made at Paris and at Berlin, the investigations made by the Massachusetts Board of Health as to the processes actually constituting the work of purification are to be regarded as reaching the highest development of knowledge and theory on this subject; and this is fully recognized abroad. The theory of purification by oxidation, due to, and practically not taking place without, the active aid of minute organisms (bacteria) which consume the impurities and combine them with oxygen, was already formulated and had been established by laboratory experiments. The Massachusetts authorities have carried the theory and its application much further forward, have supported it by unquestionable demonstration, and have presented it in a form comprehensible to all intelligent persons. It is clearly shown that the oxidation by which the organic impurities of the sewage are destroyed in the soil of a sewage farm or in a sewage filter always requires the presence of organisms, the presence of air, and the access of both of these to the oxidizable material. The process is not a mere straining out of solid parts of the sewage; it is an actual burning up of organic matter in solution or in suspension.

This was clearly shown by the use of a filter five feet deep, filled with cleanly-washed gravel stones of the size of beans. The voids between these stones amounted to fully one-third of the total space. Sewage passed through this filter as fast as it could flow through the voids, air being excluded, would pass out at the bottom as foul as it entered at the top. When applied so gradually as only to wet the stones without filling the air spaces, the effect seemed almost magical. Sewage being applied fourteen times a day for six days in the week, at the rate of over 100,000 gallons per acre per day, 98⅓ per cent. of its organic matter and 90⅔ per cent. of its bacteria were removed. In the official report of the experiments, it is said of this filter:

"These results show more definitely than any others the essential character of intermittent

filtration. We see that it is not a straining process. By the application of small quantities of sewage over the whole surface of the tank every hour, each stone in the tank was kept covered with a thin film of liquid, very slowly moving from stone to stone from the top towards the bottom, and continually in contact with air in the spaces between the stones. The liquid, starting at the top as sewage, reached the bottom within twenty-four hours, with the organic matter nearly all burned out. The removal of this organic matter is in no sense a mechanical one of holding back material between the stones, for they are as clean as they were a year ago; but it is a chemical change, aided by bacteria, by which the organic substances are burned, forming products of mineral matter which pass off daily in the purified liquid.

"The liquid flowing out at the bottom is a clear, bright water, comparing favorably, in every respect that can be shown by chemical or biological examination, with water from some of the wells on the streets of our cities that are used for refreshing draughts by the public during the summer."

The Massachusetts investigations related to the use of all varieties of earth suitable for filtration, including the finest sands, and all demonstrated the same processes of purification.

The theory and practice of the clarification of sewage by chemical precipitation, making it fit for discharge into some water-courses, are set forth at considerable length; and collateral questions, such as the legal rights of riparian owners to prevent the fouling of streams, the availability of sewage irrigation in agriculture, and the use of ensilage for the abundant crops of sewage farms, are discussed at length and well.

Legends of the Micmacs. By the Rev. Silas T. Rand. [Wellesley Philological Publications.] Longmans, Green & Co. 1894. 8vo, pp. 452.

In addition to the legends, this volume contains short and satisfactory sketches of the life and the works of Dr. Rand, together with a paper upon the "Manners, Customs, Language, and Literature of the Micmac Indians," which, we regret to add, is not so satisfactory.

Of the legends proper, there is not much to be said. A few of them purport to be historical, and relate to scenes and events that took place in a war which these people say they waged with the Mohawks. That such a war occurred at some time in the past is quite probable; but that the events, as here described, ever happened, we take leave to doubt. The accounts are entirely too one sided, and, moreover, they do not agree with what we know of the fighting qualities of the two tribes during the past three hundred years. In regard to the remaining stories, numbering between seventy and eighty, it is only necessary to quote the admission (page vi.), that "some of them are evidently of modern date," while others "are so similar to some of our old European 'fairy tales' . . . as to lead to the impression that they are really one and the same." Such frankness disarms criticism, though, from an ethnological point of view, it is the severest comment that can be made upon the stories. As such we accept it.

In conclusion, it gives us pleasure to call attention to the amount and value of Dr. Rand's work in other lines of research. He seems to have been a natural linguist, and during the forty years—from 1846 to 1886—that he labored as a missionary among these people, he acquired not only the Micmac, Maliseet (*sic*), and Mohawk languages, but he also familiarized himself with Latin, Greek, Hebrew, French, German, etc., etc. Of all these tongues, Micmac was his favorite, as well from its "marvellous construction" as from its regularity and fulness. Into it he translated almost the entire Bible, besides numerous prayers, hymns, etc. He also prepared, and, with the aid of a small subvention from the Government, published, a dictionary of this language under circumstances that must have tested his sincerity to the utmost. Bearing upon this point, it is worthy of note that for the twenty-two years of his life, subsequent to 1864, he received no salary, but "lived by faith in God." With touching simplicity he adds: "The good Lord has always supplied my wants—not always in the way I looked for it, but in His own way."

La Diplomatie Française et la Ligue des Neutres de 1780 (1776-1783). Par Paul Fauchille. Ouvrage couronné par l'Institut de France (Académie des sciences morales et politiques, Prix Doniol, 1892). Paris: Pedone-Lauriel. 1893. Pp. xi., 619.

The intense and widespread interest which republican France manifests in the First Empire is not due to any social or political unrest. There are still many reactionaries in France, both royalist and imperialist, but, since the Boulanger fiasco, they no longer agitate under those names. Moreover, for the moment at least, their agitation is insignificant, and the overwhelming mass of the nation seems heartily, thoroughly republican. The consummation so ardently desired by moderate conservative republicans wherein there shall be two great constitutional parties, conservative and radical, but both republican, seems to have been reached since the last elections, or, if not quite attained, to be within sight. It is therefore from no longing for a new *imperator* that the French historians and French writers in general are so absorbed in Napoleon I. It is because of the great Franco-Russian alliance of to-day as foreshadowed by the league made at Tilsit between Napoleon and Alexander. Everything which relates to coöperation, either partial or complete, successful or the reverse, between France and Russia has an intense interest for the reading public in the former country. To this we owe many recent historical studies like those of M. Albert Vandal ('Napoléon et Alexandre I.') and that of M. Paul Fauchille. It was not unnatural for a people shorn of their glories and their lands to recur for consolation to the period of their greatest glory, and for fifteen years past there have appeared numerous works concerned directly with Napoleon; but the Russian alliance focussed the feeling, and is the cause of the present enthusiasm for all that concerns combined action between the two nations.

The armed neutrality of 1780 could not escape notice in the search for subjects related to the general theme. The aim of the volume before us is to prove that a league epochal in international law as well as in international relations was due, in its organization, to the initiative of France, while realized by the vigorous coöperation of Catherine II. For the special student of neutral rights in time of war this book has a high scientific value, its matter being drawn almost exclusively from contemporary documents in the archives of Paris, Moscow, and Stockholm which are not easily accessible. The author's style is clear and concise, his treatment of the subject comprehensive and philosophical. The historical method is highly technical and scientific, so that the work is a fine example of the new product, wrought out by laborious, painstaking study, which has almost entirely displaced in France the old brilliant but inaccurate literature which so long passed in that country for history. Its interest, therefore, is general, both from the nature of the subject and the character of the work; at once revealing the attitude of serious Frenchmen towards Russia, and displaying the capacity of young France for solid attainment by correct scientific methods. The student of American history will find in the volume little that is new except in matters of detail regarding both the inception and negotiation of the League. The author frankly admits the disproportion between effort and result, inasmuch as England, though mitigating the severity of her dealing with neutrals, never formally admitted the principles of the neutrality, while neither Denmark nor Sweden sustained it with energy. Russia herself used it for little but her own advantage in closing the Baltic to privateers; and when Catherine's main object was attained by the peace of Versailles, the project for a complete code of maritime neutrality was allowed to drop. The outcome of French and Russian coöperation was indeed slender, but the author does not consider that fact ominous for the present, since the principles outlined by Vergennes were seventy-six years later formulated and accepted by the Congress of Paris.

A Text-book of the Physiological Chemistry of the Animal Body. By Arthur Gamgee, M.D., F.R.S. Vol. II.: The Physiological Chemistry of Digestion. Macmillan. 1893.

After an interval of thirteen years since the appearance of the first volume, the author resumes the publication of his valuable text book of physiological chemistry. This period has been fruitful in the production of important papers on the various subjects treated of in the present volume, and the author has shown the same skill and conscientiousness which characterized his earlier work in bringing together the conclusions reached by other investigators, and has enriched the whole by the results of his own extensive experience in original research. The volume now before us covers the subject of the physiological chemistry of digestion, and treats it with a fulness that leaves little to be desired. As a particularly interesting and important feature may be mentioned that portion of the work devoted to the chemical changes produced by microörganisms in the alimentary canal. Owing to the difficulty of distinguishing in all cases between the chemical changes occurring in digestion and those taking place during absorption, it would have been more satisfactory to have these two processes described in connection with each other; but the latter subject is left for a subsequent volume, the publication of which must even be postponed, as the author tells us in his preface, until a second edition of the first volume brings the treatment of the subjects there discussed to a point representing the present position of physiological science.

It is to be hoped that the author will find himself in a position to complete without undue delay the survey of his chosen subject, for, though the work will not replace in the hands of medical students the recently published smaller manuals of Hammarsten and of Haliburton, yet, as a treatise on physiological chemistry fully representing our present knowledge of the subject, it will be invaluable to all advanced students of medical science, and to all who desire by original investigations to extend the bounds of our knowledge in directions

in which research is likely to lead to most valuable results for the welfare of the human race.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, W. F. Selected Letters of Mendelssohn. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. 90 cents.
Benson, E. F. A Double Overture. Chicago: C. H. Sergel Co. 50 cents.
Benton, R. C. The Vermont Settlers and the New York Land Speculators. Minneapolis, Minn.: Housekeeper Press.
Billings, Dr. J. S., and Hurd, Dr. H. M. Hospitals, Dispensaries and Nursing. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press.
Biological Lectures Delivered at the Marine Biological Laboratory of Wood's Holl. 1893. Boston: Ginn & Co. $2.15.
Black, W. Donald Ross of Heimra. Harpers. 80 cents.
Bonney, Prof. T. G. The Story of Our Planet. Cassell. $5.
Brown, H. F. Life on the Lagoons. 2d ed., revised. Macmillan. $1.75.
Cassell's Complete Pocket Guide to Europe. 1894. Cassell. $1.50.
Chopin, Kate. Bayou Folk. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Clark, C. H. Practical Methods in Microscopy. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.60.
Clifford, Mrs. W. K. Love Letters of a Worldly Woman. F. T. Neely. 50 cents
Cobban, J. M. A Soldier and a Gentleman. Lovell, Coryell & Co. $1.
Coolidge, L. A., and Reynolds, J. B. The Show at Washington. Washington: Washington Publishing Co.
Conybeare, F. C. The Apology and Acts of Apollonius, and Other Monuments of Early Christianity. London: Sonnenschein: New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
Crawford, F. M. Katharine Lauderdale. 2 vols. Macmillan. $2.
Creighton, Rev. M. A History of the Papacy During the Period of the Reformation. Vol. V. The German Revolt. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
Crocker, F. B., and Wheeler, S. S. The Practical Management of Dynamos and Motors. 2d ed. D. Van Nostrand Co. $1.
Crockett, S. R. The Raiders. Macmillan. $1.50.
Croquet, C. P. du. Le Français par la Conversation. W. R. Jenkins. $1.
Dana, Mrs. W. S. According to Season: Talks about the Flowers in the Order of their Appearance. Scribners. 75 cents.
Dana, Mrs. W. S., and Satterlee, Marion. A Selection of Fifty Plates from 'How to Know the Wild Flowers.' Scribners. $1.
Davidson, John. Plays. London: Mathews & Lane; Chicago: Stone & Kimball. $2.
Deering, Prof. R. W. Schiller's Wilhelm Tell. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 65 cents.
Douglass, Miss Amanda M. In the King's Country. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Edwards, Rev. Charles. The Rejected Symbol. J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Farjeon, B. L. A Fair Jewess. Cassell. $1.
Favre, Edouard. Eudes, Comte de Paris et Roi de France (882—898). Paris: Emile Bouillon.
Fowler, Frank. Portrait and Figure Painting. Cassell. $2.
Goilancz, Israel. Shakspere's Tempest. London: J. M. Dent & Co; New York: Macmillan. 45 cents.
Griffis, W. E. Brave Little Holland, and What She has Taught Us. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Guimps, Baron Roger de. Pestalozzi, his Aim and Work. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 50 cents.
Hardy, Thomas. Life's Little Ironies. Harpers. $1.25.
Hare, A. J. C. The Story of Two Noble Lives: Being Memorials of Charlotte, Countess Canning, and Louisa, Marchioness of Waterford. 3 vols. Randolph. $8.
Hickey, B. H. Euthanasia. *Truth Seeker* Co.
Hoffmann, Prof. Puzzles Old and New. F. Warne & Co. $1.50.
Holland, Rev. H. S. God's City and the Coming of the Kingdom. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Holt, Ben. Good Style, Small Expense. Baker & Taylor Co. 50 cents.
James, W. P. Romantic Professions, and Other Papers. London; Mathews & Lane; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Jessopp, Rev. Augustus. Random Roaming, and Other Papers. Putnams. $1.75.
Lane-Poole, Stanley. The Life of Sir Harry Parkes. 2 vols. Macmillan. $8.
Larrabee, William. The Railroad Question. Chicago: Schulte Publishing Co.
Lee Mary H. Margaret Salisbury. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Life and Later Speeches of Chauncey M. Depew. Cassell. $2.50.
Lowell, J. R. The Vision of Sir Launfal. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 12 cents.
Maclean, Rev. A. J. East Syrian Daily Offices. London: Rivington, Percival & Co.
Macleod, H. D. The Theory of Credit. 2d ed. Vol. I. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.50.
Maskelyne, J. N. Sharps and Flats: A Complete Revelation of the Secrets of Cheating at Games of Chance and Skill. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
McCarthy, Eugene. The Leaping Ouananiche. *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co.
Melon, Paul. L'Enseignement Supérieur et l'Enseignement Technique en France. 2d ed. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Middleton, G. A. T. Surveying and Surveying Instruments. London: Whittaker; New York: Macmillan.
Miller, Olive Thorne. A Bird Lover in the West. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Ormond, Prof. A. T. Basal Concepts in Philosophy. cribners. $1.50.
Our Gold Mine at Hollyhurst. Boston: American Humane Education Society.
Paine, A. B., and White, W. A. Rhymes by Two Friends. Fort Scott, Kan.: M. L. Izor & Son.
Parkyn, E. A. Darwin, his Work and Influence. London: Methuen & Co.
Perry, George. A Sheaf of Poems. Putnams. $1.50.
Peters, Mrs. B. Looking for the King: A Sunday-school Drama. Brooklyn: W. C. Bryant & Co.
Phin, John. Common Sense Currency. Industrial Publication Co.
Reed, Rev. J. S. The Bishop's Blue Book. James Pott & Co.
Revill, Alfred. American Plumbing Excelsior Publishing House.
Rosewater, Frank. '96: a Romance of Utopia. Omaha: Utopia Co. 50 cents.
Santayana, George. Sonnets, and Other Verses. Chicago: Stone & Kimball. $1.25.
Savage, R. H. The Anarchist. F. T. Neely. 50 cents.
Scheler, Mélanie. Aimer, Souffrir et Croire. Brussels: Parent & Cie; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.
Schultze, Rev. Augustus Grammar and Vocabulary of the Eskimo Language of Northwestern Alaska. Bethlehem, Pa.: Moravian Publication Office.
Scott, Sir W. Redgauntlet. [Dryburgh Edition.] Macmillan.
Sen pers, F. W. Injurious Insects and the Use of Insecticides. Philadelphia: W. A. Burpee & Co.
Shea, George. Memoir concerning the Seabury Commemoration. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Sibborne, Capt. William. The Waterloo Campaign. 4th ed. Birmingham, Eng.: Edward Arber; New York: Scribners. $2.50.
Sinclair, Rev. B. D. The Crowning Sin of the Age: The Perversion of Marriage. Boston: H. L. Hastings.
Skeat, Prof. W. W. The Complete Works of Geoffrey Chaucer. Vol. I. Romaunt of the Rose. Minor Poems. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Smith, Goldwin. Oxford and her Colleges. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Swift, F. D. The Life and Times of James the First of Aragon. Oxford: Clarendon Press: New York: Macmillan.
Tregarthen, Greville. The Story of Australia. Putnams. $1.50.
Vines, Prof. S. H. A Student's Text-Book of Botany. London: Sonnenschein: New York: Macmillan. $2.
Warren, Walter. Columbus the Discoverer: A Drama. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Weizsäcker, Prof. Carl von. The Apostolic Age of the Christian Church. Vol. I. London: Williams & Norgate; New York: Putnams. $3.50.
Whittaker's Anatomical Model. Thomas Whittaker. 75 cents.
Wixon, Susan H. Woman: Four Centuries of Progress. *Truth Seeker* Co. 10 cents.

APRIL

EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

ARTICLES.—Spirit and Ideals of Harvard, by Geo. Santayana; Dr. J. G. Fitch (with Portrait), by Francis Storr; The South and its Problems, by Lawton B. Evans; A Bit of Psychology Applied, by H. W. Compton; Educational Problems in Europe, by Nicholas Murray Butler; Report of the Committee of Ten, by John E. Bradley and John S. Clark.
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Premiums on Marine Risks from 1st January, 1893, to 31st December, 1893.	$3,193,868 16
Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1893	1,403,200 31
Total Marine Premiums	$4,597,068 47
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1893, to 31st December, 1893	$3,490,552 70
Losses paid during the same period	$1,892,970 00
Returns of Premiums and Expenses	$711,138 89

The Company has the following assets, viz.:

United States and City of New York Stock: City Banks and other Stocks	$7,993,455 00
Loans secured by Stocks and otherwise	1,652,000 00
Real Estate and Claims due the Company, estimated at	1,086,828 74
Premium Notes and Bills Receivable	1,117,174 29
Cash in Bank	205,600 46
Amount	$12,055,058 49

Six per cent. interest on the outstanding certificates of profit will be paid to the holders thereof or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the sixth of February next.

The outstanding certificates of the issue of 1889 will be redeemed and paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the sixth of February next, from which date all interest thereon will cease. The certificates to be produced at the time of payment, and cancelled.

A dividend of FORTY PER CENT. is declared on the net earned premiums of the Company for the year ending 31st December, 1893, for which certificates will be issued on and after Tuesday, the first of May next.

By order of the Board,
J. H. CHAPMAN, Secretary.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 5, 1894.

The Week.

THE Senate is ready now to go into general debate on the tariff bill. The time already lost cannot be regained. The bad effect of delay is twofold: it prolongs the uncertainty and stagnation of business, and it gives the country the impression that the Democratic party does not know its own mind. The contrast between the business-like activity of the House and the floundering movements of the Senate is very striking. This difference is what might be expected when we look at the chiefs of the finance committees of the two houses—Mr. Wilson, a young man of education and of action, a thinker, with not the smallest trace of the demagogue in his composition, and on the other hand Dan Voorhees, a spoils politician of the ante-war period, who, although he has been in public life more than thirty years, has never identified himself with any public question whatever, least of all with any question of finance. The contrast between these two men is exactly typical of the proceedings in the two houses. If the Democratic party goes to defeat this fall, that result will be due more to the ineptitude of the persons who have charge of the tariff bill in the Senate than to any other cause. The bill ought to have been passed by this time, or, if not passed, the onus of further delay ought to be distinctly on the Republicans.

Speaker Crisp's decision to decline the Senatorship offered him by the Governor of Georgia is clearly in the interest of his party and the public service. The personal sacrifice involved is very likely only temporary, while the avoidance of a reorganization of the House at this time is of the highest importance. Mr. Crisp is nearer to being a leader of his party in the House than anybody else, and could not be spared at present. No such emergency is likely to arise in the near future, as no party is likely to have a majority of 100, with a wild and irresponsible element all the while threatening to make trouble. Whatever else next fall's elections may result in, they will certainly cut down a goodly proportion of the fungous growths that have been ornamenting the congressional dunghill for the past two sessions. Their present propensity to mischief is doubtless due to the consciousness that it is their last chance, as the places that now know them shall speedily know them no more.

The true inwardness of the interest manifested by the Home Market Club people in the Alabama campaign is exposed in the statement that Kolb, while nominally running for the Governorship, is really aiming at the United States Senatorship which will fall vacant next March. In other words, the high-tariff men of New England are raising money "as quietly as possible" to secure a Southern Legislature which will give them another vote for McKinleyism in the upper branch of Congress. It is purely a matter of business.

Never was there an administration which threw away so many chances to get glory at bargain prices. The opportunity to tweak John Bull's nose in Brazil was simply enough to make a Jingo's mouth water, and no end of able newspaper correspondents and jurists were quick to point it out; but the old fellow got off without a single insult. Then there was a noble chance for genuine American diplomacy in the Bluefields incident; and by loud protests that they were "ready" and "vigilant," and by sending off a ship or two before they knew what had actually occurred, the authorities at Washington could have enrolled themselves among the number of true patriots. So, too, in the matter of the Bering Sea regulations, it would have been so easy to let it be known that we would stand no nonsense, and to have brought England to her knees in the newspapers. But, alas! the State Department seems hopelessly given over to humdrum. It waits for advices before going to war, and actually takes it for granted that there is such a thing as good faith on the part of the English Government and such a thing on ours as dignity without bluster. It must be admitted that our foreign relations move on peaceably and prosperously under such spiritless methods, but the wasted opportunities are enough to make the earth lie heavy on certain physically and politically defunct statesmen.

The decision of Judge Edwards of the Supreme Court, in the contempt proceedings against the Hill-Maynard Board of State Canvassers of 1891, puts the final mark of fraud upon them for aiding Hill in his theft of the Senate. The judge declares that they are guilty of contempt because they canvassed the Mylod return in disregard of the decision of the Court of Appeals. If they had not canvassed that return, they would not have enabled the Hill-Maynard conspirators to consummate their theft. Maynard, it will be remembered, was present when the contempt was committed, and sat in silence when a word from him as to the whereabouts of the missing and legal return would have made the false and illegal canvass impossible. The members of the Board of Canvassers will have to pay the penalty fixed by the law, at least $250 fine, but they ought to compel Hill and Maynard to recoup them, for these two are the real culprits. What a shame it would have been to the State had this decision found Maynard occupying a seat upon the bench of its highest court! For the final verdict, placing upon the records the right interpretation of Maynard's and Hill's conduct, the people are indebted to the pertinacity and intelligent zeal of Mr. John Brooks Leavitt, who instituted the contempt proceedings, and to Mr. Alfred R. Conkling, who paid all the expenses of them.

The fate of the libel bill asked for by the newspapers has been sealed by a vote of 71 to 16. The Ainsworth bill has passed the Assembly, leaving the question of malice, where it now is and always has been, to the jury. No newspaper has ever suffered in the smallest degree from the *law* of libel since the Shipley case in 1783, when the power of passing on both the law and the facts was finally lodged in the hands of the jury. Ever since then the jury has always decided whether the libel was a libel, whether it was malicious, and what damage, if any, it had done. The judge may charge what he pleases, but as long as publication is not disproved, the defendant remains in the hands of the jury. The late newspaper libel bill was in reality an attempt to get out of the hands of the jury by making the plaintiff prove the unprovable—namely, malice. Had it succeeded, every man in the community would be at the mercy of the editors, for they would only have to deny malice to throw the plaintiff out of court. If malice cannot be inferred from a man's acts or words, he is master of the situation. What the press needs is to overcome in some manner the prejudices of jurymen, which are now all against it, and this would necessitate a very great change in the standards and management of most of our newspapers. The publishers are now the only class, not openly criminal, who deny all moral responsibility to the community for the manner in which they conduct their business, and openly proclaim that whatever they can sell they are at liberty to produce. This position, no doubt, has great pecuniary advantages, but it rouses and keeps alive a great deal of popular hostility.

"Paddy" Divver, after several months of absence from the city, resumed his duties as police justice on Sunday. He ought to devote all his energies in the immediate future to prosecuting the

World for libel. Even he ought to be able to see that he cannot remain on the bench in silence under such an array of charges as the *World* brought against him on Monday. Either he has ground, in those charges, for swingeing damages, or his presence upon the police bench is, more than has ever been suspected, both a scandal and a public menace. If what the *World* says is true, or if half of it is true, Divver's Tammany organization in the Second Assembly District is the most formidable association of criminals, thugs, and social outcasts that was ever found in a civilized community. No one can read the list of his friends and political agents which the *World* gives, with specific biographical information in each case, without a shudder, for if the leader and organizer of this gang is sitting on the bench as a dispenser of justice, what kind of a government are the people of New York living under? Eighteen of his political workers have been sent to prison, or have been fined, or have fled from justice because of crimes committed under his leadership in the election of last November. The *World* reproduces this list, and supplements it with another which is far more appalling. There are nearly forty names in it, all belonging, says the *World*, to Divver's "friends and lieutenants," who are "among the most disreputable men in the city of New York." In a third list the *World* gives the names of forty-five of Divver's followers who are on the city pay-rolls, through the grace of Divver's "pull" with Tammany Hall.

The Swiss referendum appears to be having a "boom" in this country just now. In the Legislatures of New York and New Jersey as well as Massachusetts bills are pending looking towards its incorporation in the State Constitutions, though their authors confess that there is little hope of success at present, except in the last-mentioned State. In so far as this movement springs from a sense of our low estate politically, and from a conviction that something must be done to elevate it, no one can quarrel with it. But in so far as it places the hope of political salvation in this or any other kind of political machinery, it is to be condemned as tending to distract attention from the real seat of trouble. The politicians can never be circumvented by mere machinery. It is precisely as expert machinists that they succeed, and they could speedily master the cogs and pulleys of the referendum or initiative, or any other contrivance.

Mr. Anson Phelps Stokes has a currency plan called "joint metallism," by which "gold and silver together at ratios always based on their relative market values may be made the metallic basis of currency." The reason why Mr. Stokes proposes this plan is, he says, that the general demonetization of silver, and the great reduction in its purchasing power, "have caused a general decline in values, and an insufficient metallic basis of currency, making manufacture and trade both uncertain and dangerous." Now, this fundamental proposition of Mr. Stokes's is totally denied by the monometallists, and that is why they will never consider his plan. They say, with one of the British delegates to the Monetary Conference, that the whole silver movement is simply a preposterous attempt to keep prices up when science, art, invention, discovery are knocking them down; that the fall in silver has had no more to do with the decline in prices than the fall in wheat, and that nobody has complained or is complaining of any actual scarcity in the supply of gold. It has not shown itself anywhere. Many dozens of gentlemen in various parts of the world keep telling us that it is going to show itself by and by, and that they are lying awake at night thinking anxiously about it. But there is no sign of it. The supply of gold is increasing rapidly in answer to the increased demand for it, and we believe it may be said with safety, that nobody in any country has ever yet maintained that he was unable to get gold when he had something to exchange for it or good security to borrow it on. In fact, nothing is ever heard of the scarcity of gold in business circles. All we know about it we get from bimetallic pamphlets and speeches. The great demand for some other and cheaper kind of currency comes from gentlemen with debts to pay, but if we begin tinkering the currency in order to accommodate these gentlemen, the tinkering will last for ever.

Apropos of this, it may be said to the Boston brethren who are sounding the trumpet of alarm over silver, that it is absurd of them to stay in the bimetallic camp. Their proposition, that governments, by laying their heads together, can keep two commodities at equal value in spite of difference in quantity, in cost of production, and in market price, applies, though they do not seem to see it, to other commodities than gold and silver. It would apply just as well to copper and gold or copper and leather as to silver and gold, and is ample support for the greenback theory. There is no reason in the world, on this theory, why the governments should not discard metallic money altogether, and agree that certain stamped paper should in their dominions have a certain value in exchange. In old times, when a government adulterated the coinage—that is, ordered it to pass at a fictitious value—it acknowledged it was cheating, and locked up anybody who said anything about it. The curious feature of the bimetallic and silver craze is, that its victims want the civilized governments to do this cheating in unison, by common consent, and in the light of day. The prospect opened to the modern world by this confession of ordinarily sensible and educated men that the Government has this power over currency, it is no exaggeration to call appalling. It is ammunition of the most deadly kind for the socialist, communist, populist, and anarchist, and has the promise and potency of such monetary confusion as has never been seen in any age.

The neo-bimetallists of Boston are laying great stress on the importance to international trade of "a par of exchange" between silver and gold. For want of this par of exchange they tell us that "no matter how well the manufacturer makes his goods, no matter how judiciously the merchant disposes of them, a fall in the gold price of silver may destroy the entire profit of the transaction; may even involve the parties in loss and possible ruin." This point was urged so strongly before the British Gold and Silver Commission in 1887 that they took a good deal of pains to ascertain the facts as regarded English trade with India. They found that the evil was mostly imaginary, because, when an English merchant was about to make a sale of cotton goods, for example, to India, he settled the rate of exchange by telegraph at once, after which the fluctuations did not concern him at all. They might concern the Indian purchaser, who must wait till the goods arrived. In other words, the evils of a fluctuating exchange fell on the silver-using country. It was exactly so when we were on a paper basis from 1862 to 1879. The evils of a fluctuating exchange were visited upon us, not on Great Britain, France, and Germany. It is the same way in Italy, which is now under a suspension of specie payments. It is not the Englishman who suffers in his trade with Italy by reason of a fluctuating exchange. He calls for payment in gold, and he gets it, just as he got it from us when we were in the like predicament. How absurd, then, is it to say, as some of them do, that David A. Wells, Edward Atkinson, and others should be the last persons to oppose the bimetallic view since they were bemoaning the lack of "a normal par of exchange" so many years while we were on the paper basis. Of course they bemoaned it, but they bemoaned it for our own sake, not for the sake of England; just as they might bemoan it now if they were Mexicans instead of Americans.

The census report on farm ownership and cultivation recently published shows a noteworthy increase in the number of farms and decrease in their average size throughout the South. In the

South Atlantic States the average number of acres to a farm decreased from 157 to 134 between 1880 and 1890. In the same States the number of farms increased 16 per cent., and the number of owners 12 per cent. Of farm tenants 44 per cent. more paid their rent in money in 1890 than 1880. All of these tendencies are in the right direction, and they show that the outlook for agriculture in the South is steadily improving.

Dr. Johnson objected to a certain critic that he had an unconquerable disposition to say something when there was nothing to be said. What other excuse can there be for those solemn moralists who are telling the public what to think of the unsavory suit for damages now pending in Washington? It is bad enough to have the filthy testimony printed broadcast, despite the appeals of the presiding judge. He is able to keep prurient spectators out of court, but he cannot keep the reporters out, or the newspapers from printing the disgusting mess. This practically lets the whole country into the court-room, and is a clear breach of public morality. Still, those who do not wish to read the stuff need not, and they and their families might escape were it not for the inevitable commentators, who take it for granted that everybody has read it and wishes to hear moralizings about it. From the indecent press this is to be expected; but the religious press, or some portion of it, has now gone into the business, and we read of several ministers who have taken it up even in the pulpit. Now all such comment is either pure platitude or outright pruriency. No man needs to be told what to think on such subjects. For a public teacher to do anything but maintain silence about them is to show that he has itching ears himself and supposes everybody else has, and to aid in the dissemination of moral poison throughout the community. Especially should the more resonant of the clergy remember that there are still some things, as there were in the time of the Apostle Paul, which are not even to be named publicly.

The editors of the Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science have taken the trouble to translate an article on "Justice in Political Economy," by the learned Gustav Schmoller, the head of the historical school in Germany, who had previously published it in his own *Jahrbuch für Gesetzgebung, Verwaltung und Volkswirthschaft*. We have read it twice over, the first time with the view of getting some notion of what "justice in political economy" is, and the second time with the view of getting some notion of what Herr Schmoller thinks it is, but have failed in both cases. Never has a knotty, if not unanswerable, question been surrounded with such a cloud of vain words. His main question is: "How does it happen that economic transactions and social phenomena so often bring forth a favorable or adverse criticism which asserts that this is just and that is unjust?" He says that when he gets a correct answer to this, the rest will be easy. The correct answer to this, at all events the only possible one, would be found in the other question—"Why is nearly every man dissatisfied with his lot in life?" The criticisms of an existing economic condition, or of any economic condition, will never cease until everybody is content; and when the historical school talks of "justice," it really means content. What these men are trying for is really some means of contenting the human race. The notion that "the State" can do this, in a reading democracy, is one of the most curious of their vagaries. Says Herr Schmoller: "The State is and must be the leading intelligence, the responsible centre of public sentiment, the acme of existing moral and intellectual power." This might have been true of the State under Frederick the Great or Joseph the Second. That it will ever be true of the modern democratic state, within any period worth thinking about, is a proposition which can only make people who know something about the democratic state smile. The State with us must and will for an indefinite period represent something rather below the average popular intelligence. Congress and the legislatures of to-day fairly represent it. This for two reasons: one is that, as a rule, the men who will try to become "the State," will not be the foremost men in the community. The other is that the masses in a democracy do not like to put "superior people" (Schmollers and the like) in power, because they do not like to be looked down on by their rulers. They are best pleased with men of their own type, and through them will try their own experiments in political economy.

The anarchist bombs seem likely to have the effect in France of producing peace and quiet among nearly all people of a conservative turn. The remarkable avowal by one of the ministers, M. Spuller, the other day that the Government had given up its petty warfare against the Church, and that he personally was sorry for the part he had taken in it, shows a growing conviction that there are far more dangerous enemies to the State than "le cléricalisme." The occasion which called out the confession was a prohibition by the Mayor of St. Denis against putting a cross at the head of a grave in the cemetery. The law forbids the display of religious emblems at funerals or other processions in the streets. The mayor construed it as applying to the graves also, and in this he has been overruled. But he might have been overruled without this declaration from the ministry. The hâtred of the clergy and the Church is, however, largely a Parisian emotion. In the provinces it takes the form of indifference. The village curé is not hated; he is simply not listened to by the men, but they always want him for funerals and weddings.

The sudden zeal of the French Government for the creation of a separate Ministry for the Colonies, going so far as to make it a cabinet question in the Senate, set many to wondering if there might not be more in it than appeared on the surface. There was fresh talk of serious complications with England over French claims in Indo-China, and much mysterious wagging of heads by wiseacres. But the step seems easy to account for. It was taken, doubtless, mainly as a wise administrative measure looking to the more rapid and consistent despatch of colonial business than was possible under a mere bureau of the Foreign Affairs Department. Mixed with this was probably a lurking devotion to the great principle, "The Republic, it is offices," and a willingness to make places for a few more political followers. No little fun has been poked at the new minister, M. Boulanger. He has been Senator for the department of the Meuse, not exactly a colonial department, and is president of an omnibus company, not precisely a maritime enterprise. But he has a good record as an executive with a head for details, and there was need of such a man for organizing the new ministry. Its creation testifies to the growing burdens and responsibilities which the colonial enterprises of France have brought in their train.

Bastiat's dispute between Fooltown and Boytown continues—the disputants in this case being France and Italy. Since they began to enact hostile tariffs against each other the trade between them has declined 564,000,000 francs. This is an enormous loss, but, instead of taking steps to repair it, they are trying to see which one has lost most and which one ought to feel worst. The usual way to settle such questions will probably be adopted by the high-tariff statisticians—by considering all that is exported a gain and all that is imported a loss. Thus, if it should turn out that the French exports to Italy had declined only 100,000,000 francs, while its imports from that country had declined 150,000,000, the figures being exactly reversed on the other side, it would be evident that Italy was getting the worst of it, and that the hostile tariffs ought to be kept up in the interest of France, or perhaps made more hostile than ever. It will be strange, however, if they cannot do some good figuring on the other side of the line. Fooltown was always able to cope with Boytown in that way.

THE SEIGNIORAGE VETO.

THE message of the President giving his reasons for vetoing the Bland seigniorage bill has been received with some little disappointment in financial circles, by reason of two short paragraphs at the conclusion of it. These seem to have been pinned on after the sound and really profound argument against the bill had been made. That the bill would be vetoed there was no longer any doubt. Nor was there any doubt about the grounds on which the veto would be based. The bill was an attempt to reverse the policy agreed upon and enacted at the extra session by a large majority of both houses of Congress after an almost unexampled contest. It was an attempt to infuse more silver into the circulation without adequate provision for its redemption in gold, which the law plainly intends and requires. These were sufficient reasons for vetoing the bill. The President could not have done otherwise unless he had gone crazy since last November.

The two paragraphs which are incongruous with the rest of the message are these:

> "I am not insensible to the arguments in favor of coining the bullion seigniorage now in the Treasury, and I believe it could be done safely and with advantage if the Secretary of the Treasury had the power to issue bonds at a low rate of interest under authority in substitution of that now existing, and better suited to the protection of the Treasury.
>
> "I hope a way will present itself in the near future for the adjustment of our monetary affairs in such a comprehensive and conservative manner as will accord to silver its proper place in our currency; but in the meantime I am extremely solicitous that whatever action we take on this subject may be such as to prevent loss and discouragement to our people at home, and the destruction of confidence in our financial management abroad."

That these paragraphs are of no practical importance we shall presently show. At the same time they are not destitute of importance in their effect upon the imaginations of men. The friends of sound finance will be apt to think that the President is not quite so sound as they had taken him to be, while the silverites of all degrees will be encouraged to renewed efforts by the apparent concession to their views. The extent of this purely intellectual influence in either direction can be determined only by time.

It is hardly necessary to recapitulate the President's objections to the bill. They strike us as making this one of the best of Mr. Cleveland's state papers and one of the best in the Government's files. They are transfused with the thought that the gold standard must be preserved, that the faith and credit of the Government are so pledged, and that all business interests are conditioned upon it. Whatever tends to countervail this must be opposed, resisted, prevented. This idea is found even in the paragraph to which exception is taken, and which contains the suggestion that the coining of the seigniorage would be admissible if there were ample means provided for the redemption of the resulting coin or currency in gold. The President here says: "Give me the means to keep the gold reserve good and you may have this batch of 55,000,000 nondescripts." He had previously referred to the heterogeneous nature of our currency and deprecated the addition of a new variety to it. Now he says that this is a measurable and not a large quantity, and that he will not object to it if he is provided with ample powers to keep it at par with gold.

We have said that this is of little practical importance. There is no probability that the silver-men will consent to any issues of bonds whatever, least of all any issues which have for their avowed object the gold redemption of silver. In their view any such thing is an indignity to silver and a degradation of it. They hold that silver is as good as gold if you only think so. At heart they want to have the dollar scaled down to forty-nine cents or some other low figure. Any step which thwarts this intention will be opposed by them, as the Sherman repeal bill was, to the last extremity. Therefore, if the President's suggestion is to be taken as an offered compromise, it will fail for want of acceptance on the other side. If it should be accepted, it would not result in any addition to the silver burdens of the Government. It would only be like a bank receiving authority to put out a new lot of notes on condition of making adequate provision for their redemption.

The President's other suggestion, that he hopes for such an adjustment of our monetary affairs as will accord to silver its proper place in our currency, must refer to international action. No interpretation but this will harmonize with the other parts of the message. The legal place of silver in our currency is that of a subsidiary coinage. This has been its place *de facto* ever since 1834, and *de jure* ever since 1873. None of the subsequent legislation has changed its place. The badge of a subsidiary coinage was put upon it in the Bland-Allison act of 1878 and in the Sherman act of 1890. The place which it now holds is, in our judgment, its proper place, and we do not expect to see it changed.

THE SOUTH CAROLINA WAR.

THE outbreak in South Carolina over the enforcement of the liquor law is treated so sensationally by many of the newspapers, both in their news and editorial columns, that the average reader must be puzzled as to what has really happened and as to the merits of the controversy. To most people the affair comes with all the suddenness of an entirely unexpected outbreak, but those who have kept close track of developments in the State for two or three years were quite prepared for it.

Before the civil war South Carolina was ruled by a small element of the population—the landed aristocracy in the shape of the slaveholders, and the classes naturally allied with them. After the governmental debauch of Northern carpet-baggers, freedmen, and local rascals in the reconstruction era, power returned to the old hands when Hampton secured the Governorship in 1877. For a dozen years things went on much as before the war, the negroes being intimidated so that they did not dare to vote, or cheated out of their rights if they went to the polls. But there gradually grew up a strong opposition among the whites to the dominant and really respectable element, and towards the end of the eighties it became plain that a revolt was imminent.

The political upheaval throughout the country in 1890 naturally furnished the occasion for an overthrow of the old dynasty in South Carolina. The leader in the movement was Benjamin R. Tillman, who had already become prominent as a leader of the farmers, and his supporters gained control of the Democratic organization, so that he was easily nominated for Governor. An independent Democratic ticket was put in the field, headed by a representative of the old régime, but Tillman was elected by a vote of more than four to one, and he was easily reëlected at the end of his first term.

Tillmanism thus became supreme in the State. It was really only Populism under another name. It represented an organized protest against almost everything in the former government, not only in methods, but in personnel. Tillman is a demagogue, who perceived that there was a prejudice among the masses of the whites against what was vaguely called the "aristocracy," and that it would be easy to play upon this prejudice by assuming the rôle of a representative of the "people." The farmers seem to have had some ground for complaint against the management of the railroads, and of course Tillman was shrewd enough to utilize this feeling. There was some jealousy of Charleston and the other cities among the rural districts, and Tillman made this, too, serve his purpose. The unsettled condition of things which had prevailed during much of the time since 1860 had weakened the hold of conservatism, and the people were more ready to accept novelties than ever before since the Revolution.

The result of all these causes was that Tillman became almost supreme, the Legislature only recording his will. He enjoyed his possession of power as much as any man ever did, and he constantly sought new ways of signalizing his dominance. One of these was the passage by his Legislature of what is known as the dispensary liquor law, by which in July, 1893, the State assumed entire control of the liquor traffic, sales

being forbidden except at the dispensaries. A State board of control buys and tests the liquors, and appoints county boards, which in turn appoint local dispensers, who can sell liquor only in bottles, not to be drunk on the premises. A local-option section enables any town by a vote of its citizens to prevent the opening of any dispensary within its limits.

So novel an experiment would probably have aroused more or less opposition in any State under normal circumstances. In South Carolina, under the conditions which then prevailed, its enforcement by such a man as Tillman was certain to provoke disorder. Ever since last summer there have been difficulties of one sort and another, and the opposition finally culminated last week in an assault by a mob upon a force of State constables and informers in Darlington, with loss of life on both sides. The Governor thereupon called out the troops, and some companies refused to obey his orders. The hostility between Tillman and the "old families" is so bitter that even military organizations in which the influence of the latter is supreme are ready to disband rather than help him enforce the laws. But some of the rural companies are true to him, and he seems at last to have obtained all the military force he needs.

Tillman has been characteristically offensive in his attitude during this controversy, and has committed some acts of a highly questionable nature, like his attempt to prevent the Western Union Telegraph Company from sending any despatches except those which he approved. But he represents the authority of the State, and he is trying to enforce a State law which was legally enacted—a law, too, which, though novel, is an experiment that ought to be fairly tried. The sober second thought of South Carolina can hardly fail in the end to sustain his position.

The situation is aggravated by the spirit of lawlessness which makes people in South Carolina careless of statutes and reckless of human life. The force and fraud which were employed to reinstate the whites in power during the reconstruction era have left a legacy of unsound ideas which will not be easily displaced. The whites began by shooting and cheating the blacks; they end by using the same sort of tactics upon each other. The cure of the evil will doubtless be slow and hard.

PAYING FOR "PEACE."

Mr. Wheeler H. Peckham, in an address before a Good Government Club last week, made some extremely interesting statements concerning the inside working of Tammany government. In the old days, he said, the fate of city legislation was decided by the lobby at Albany, and the process of obtaining what one wanted was usually described in Mr. Tilden's phrase as "sending up the stuff." At present, according to Mr. Peckham—

> "Tammany Hall takes the place of the lobby. At its head is a man who handles a large amount of money yearly and is accountable to no one. He says whether a bill shall pass or not. They are all afraid of Tammany. Many corporations pay large amounts for peace, as they put it. The Metropolitan Telephone Company pays, I understand, $50,000 a year for peace. I know of one corporation which pays a similar amount. I tell you that every day of their lives these Tammany men are bribed and bribe others. Of course there is sometimes a cry of investigation. This time they can't find a lawyer. What's the reason? I know, for myself, it is because they wouldn't give me the power, without which I wouldn't act, and because they wouldn't allow me to direct the prosecution whither I wished."

This is a specific statement of what is a matter of general knowledge in this community. It has been stated many times that during the last session of the Legislature, when Tammany was in control of both houses, there was, for the first time in many years, a total absence of measures affecting the interests of various corporations in this city. None of the regulation "strikes" appeared among the bills. None of the railway, insurance, and other corporations found it necessary to send counsel to Albany to oppose hostile measures or advocate friendly ones. It was pretty generally known that all such matters were "arranged" here, and that somebody acting for Tammany Hall collected the "price of peace" from all corporations and institutions and persons that were at the mercy of the law-makers. Mr. Peckham cites two instances in which the price was $50,000, a figure sufficiently handsome to explain in large measure the sudden wealth which fell upon Mr. Croker and other Tammany magnates.

But Tammany is not in control, at least outwardly, of the two houses of the present Legislature. If the two corporations which Mr. Peckham cites are still paying $50,000 each for peace, to whom are they paying it? Is Tammany still acting as collector, and, if so, what arrangement has been made with Platt, who is supposed to control the Republican majorities of the two houses? Is it possible that the cause of the trouble which Platt has in controlling those majorities is due to a Tammany arrangement for a division of profits with individual members? Are some of the profits being used to prevent investigations as well as to block anti-Tammany legislation? Mr. Peckham says the reason why he would not act as counsel for the Senate investigating committee was "because they wouldn't give me the power, without which I wouldn't act, and because they wouldn't allow me to direct the prosecution whither I would." This is merely direct evidence in support of what has been very plainly established by circumstantial evidence. Platt has not allowed Tammany to be investigated, the Legislature has not allowed any anti-Tammany measures to pass, all measures to which Tammany is opposed are either "hung up" or are treated with a benumbing indifference.

Then, too, Platt is spending a great deal of time and money upon the organization of a Republican machine of his own in this city which has no excuse for existence save as a Tammany annex. Whence comes the money, as well as the motive, for this organization? The *Tribune*, which is lending all its aid to the new machine, has been at the same time giving no aid or support worth anything to such important city measures as the Chamber of Commerce rapid-transit bill, the bill to cut down Tammany's income from the sheriff's office, or the bill to make the overthrow of Tammany possible by giving the next mayor power to remove heads of departments. What do all these remarkable instances of tenderness towards Tammany on the part of its ostensible political enemies, mean? Why is it that, when Tammany is so demoralized by exposures and internal dissensions that it is fairly tottering to a fall—is so shaky on its foundations that a determined push would overturn it—a Republican Legislature, the Republican boss, and the chief Republican organ not only refuse to give the push, but unite in protecting it against assault from other quarters? There is a great mystery here which needs elucidation, and we can see no light from any direction save that which Mr. Peckham's statements indicate. Platt and the *Tribune* are openly clamoring for a division with Tammany of the spoils and abuses of the Police Department. They cannot, therefore, complain if people suspect them of sharing in other divisions secretly, especially when they combine to oppose all inquiry and legislation which would interfere with Tammany's profits and make a division impossible.

GOOD WORK FOR "GOOD AMERICANS."

We think there can be no doubt that any hope of reform in the consular service which may have sprung up in the public mind has been all but killed by the promptness with which Mr. Cleveland allowed Mr. Quincy to make "a clean sweep." We do not recall any other occasion on which the work was done so promptly after the accession to office of a new President, or any occasion when a gentleman was called into the service for that special purpose, and was allowed to resign as soon as he had done it. Nor do we recall any other occasion in which the officer most responsible for the condition of the consular service—namely, the secretary of state—was allowed to wash his hands of the whole business of filling it, and substantially repudiate all connection with it,

The tariff-reformers, when working for Mr. Cleveland's election, and ridiculing the reciprocity arrangements of the McKinley bill, always maintained that an increased foreign trade would be the result of reduced duties on imports, and especially on raw materials. But they also maintained that this increased foreign trade would hardly be possible without an improved consular service. That Mr. Cleveland would improve the consular service was therefore nearly as prominent an expectation of the reformers as that he would press for a reduction in the tariff. This expectation, too, was heightened by the warning he gave at the Villard dinner, that there was to be no "revelling in spoils," which, if it meant anything, meant that under his administration appointments to office would be made, in a fair degree at least, for the good of the service. The astonishment of the public was great, therefore, when a young man, with no knowledge of the consular service, was allowed to make a sweeping change in its officers with less inquiry and greater haste than had ever been displayed under any previous administration.

Fresh attention has been called to the subject by an article in the April number of the *North American Review*, from the pen of Mr. Wharton, who was Mr. Josiah Quincy's predecessor in the office of assistant secretary of state. Here is his account of the kind of persons who get consulships: "Politicians in the narrowest sense of the term"; "broken-down and unsuccessful professional or business men"; "invalids"; "men of moderate means" who wish to educate their children abroad, and wish for some occupation as a "pastime"; and "worthless" fellows who have "worn out the patience and endurance of their friends" at home. This unhappy crew are paid very much according to their deserts. Fourteen of them get $5,000 and over; seven get $4,000; seven $3,500; thirty-one $3,000; fifty-one $2,000, and ninety-five $1,500 or $1,000. Out of this they have to pay their own passage to and from the most distant posts. The holders of the smaller posts naturally run badly into debt, and, when their heads are cut off by a new administration, leave their debts unpaid, and literally beg their way home, or "beat" it, as the tramps say. The name of American consuls at many ports is a name of odium and disrepute, and the relief of destitute ex-consuls creates a serious demand on the purses of American bankers or well-to-do Americans living or travelling abroad.

Why this terrible national disgrace does not make more impression on "good Americans" and American Jingoes, we have never been able to understand. These two classes of persons have a passionate desire for a large navy, with the usual accompaniments of coaling stations, Gibraltars, Maltas, Adens, and Capes of Good Hope. The navy is intended to impress foreigners with our greatness as a nation. Lieut. Staunton, who is the latest popular writer about it, foreshadowed its disregard of foreign customs regulations, by making it take an American vessel seized for a violation of them in a foreign port, out of the hands of the local authorities by force, and described our Government as supporting this act of brigandage by a bloody war. Now a navy is a very imperfect means of impressing foreigners. It will be a long time before we have any navy which will not seem insignificant to the English, or French, or Russians, or even Italians. It will, moreover, cost an enormous sum before we get it, and but few foreigners will ever see it. It may visit a few ports, but if it behaves as Lieut. Staunton intimates that it may, civilized men will dread its appearance off their coasts as the French and the Saxons of the eighth century used to dread the approach of the Northmen. In the meantime there is a cheap and ready mode of spreading our fame as a great republic through the foreign world and winning a respect of the best kind for the American name, and that is by filling our consulships with good and well-paid men. In most foreign towns the American consul is supposed, as the consuls of other nations are, to represent fairly well the morals and manners of the best class of his countrymen. What a dreadful impression, then, he gives of us if he is dirty, if he is a drunkard, if he lives in a poor quarter, if he pays neither his landlord nor his grocer nor his butcher; if he is an ignoramus or an imbecile, and speaks no language but his own and that badly. Why will not the "good Americans" and the Jingoes take up this great reform, and, pending the creation of a big navy, fill our consulships with men who will fairly represent our culture and morality? Would it not be far better to work on the imagination of foreigners in this way than by presenting them, as Lieut. Staunton proposes, with the spectacle of "a hell of death and destruction" wrought by one of our battle-ships?

AN HISTORICAL STUDENT IN GREECE.

NAPLES, February, 1894.

As the steamer approached the eastern shore of the Adriatic, a young gentleman asked in perfect seriousness: "How far are we above the sea level here?" The question seemed natural: surely no other sea or ocean connected with the strait before us, narrowing between the bleak and snow-capped coast of Epirus and the golden islands which are the northernmost reach of Greek territory. In a land where so little water runs down hill, might not some run up hill? Yet it was to correct in my own mind the tendency to look upon Greece as a political Atlantis, a region now existent only in song and story, that I was come thither. I wished to see for myself what could be learned on the ground by matter-of-fact students of sober history, unversed in Greek archæology or literature; and especially to see how far physical conditions might seem to have affected Greek federal or centralized unions. If in the four weeks available it has not proved feasible to learn much, at least many strongly held preconceptions have been removed.

The first of those preconceptions was that the journey would be long and wearying. By timing one's departure to catch the weekly steamer from Brindisi, it is possible to leave Naples at noon, and to be in Athens, after a very comfortable trip, at four in the afternoon of the second day. Internal travel in Greece is difficult and often exhausting; fortunately most of the places which the tourist is likely to visit can be reached, or nearly approached, by the vertebral railway line from Patras to Athens, with its branches to Laurion, Nauplia, Tripolitza, Olympia, and Agrinion. The Corinth Canal, which ought to be so convenient to through travellers to Athens, is not yet used by any of the large lines and seems likely to be a commercial failure; the local steamers, to judge by that which carried us from the Piræus to Itea through the canal, have all the discomforts described by the guide-books, but are full of picturesque people and bring the traveller into intimate relations with Greek scenery. Yet the waters of both the Corinthian and Saronic gulfs and of the open seas are surprisingly lonely: in a whole day one sees only a few fishing craft where the navies of the ancient world abounded. Off the highways of iron or salt-water, travel is tedious. Few wheels roll on the excellent new chausées, zigzagging up the mountains to the hill villages. Horses abound, but only once did we see a fiery little animal, with short perpendicular neck and delicate head, such as curvet in the Parthenon friezes. It is picturesque to see the peasant men and women sitting sidewise in the big packsaddles, but it is fatiguing to the Occidental; while the mule tracks have the characteristics of a Kentucky dirt road—steep hills, a stony path, muddy bottoms, and no bridges. Hotels outside of Athens and Patras are notoriously defective, and the traveller who sees anything but the most frequented parts of Greece must make up his mind to spend much time and nervous energy and not a little money.

Yet even in the most conventional journey one is rewarded by strange and beautiful scenery. The sea is like no other sea: blue shades into darker blue, and thence into unusual greens. The mountains are both less and more beautiful than one expects. During almost the whole year the lower ranges are brown, arid, and desolate, especially Hymettos and Pentelikon, the background to Athens. On the other hand, they take on in the afternoon a wonderful violet haze. Most surprising are the great stretches of magnificent winter snow mountains, both in the Peloponnesus and north of the Gulf of Corinth. Parnon and Erymanthos and lofty Kyllene, Kiona, Helikon, and Parnassos carry wide smooth snow-fields, which gleam like Monte Rosa. Especially from Delphi is one impressed by the height, variety, and grandeur of the surrounding mountains. Nowhere, away from Naples or Amalfi, are to be found such combinations of sky, sea, and mountain—blue ranges seen across blue waters against a blue horizon, or the golden sky enclosing the faint green outline of distant islands.

Perhaps the modern Greeks would exchange some of this beauty for fertile plains and wooded mountains. Greece seems in most

parts a very barren and poor country, much inferior in natural advantages to Italy. Doubtless ancient forests and irrigating canals have disappeared, but it is hard to believe that the country could ever have had great wealth, except through commerce. At present there is a pitiful lack of the evidences of civilization. Piers and harbors are almost wanting; except in Athens and Patras there is hardly a modern building in the country higher than two stories. In a country renowned for its masonry there are very few cut stones; the ancient ruins have been broken to fragments, and broken again, till the usual walls are of sun-dried brick; and I saw not a few wretched thatched huts which appeared to be permanent dwellings. Even the castles, both ancient and mediæval, have with few exceptions wholly disappeared, and those which one sees were nearly all built by the Turks, as at Nauplia, or to keep out the Turks, as at Corfu. Nothing strikes one more in Greece than the poor and dirty villages which have taken the place of the ancient cities. Occasionally a town, as in the case of Itea, has the broad, straggling streets and two-storied verandas of a North Carolina village; oftener, like Arachova, they are collections of rude and dirty stone and mud buildings, huddled along a disgusting lane. Elsewhere in western Europe the churches have an historical and architectural interest. But while the Italians were making the mosaics of St. Mark's, the encrusted chapels of Palermo, and the Lombard sculpture, the Greeks could do no better than to assemble fragments of ancient buildings and heap them in confused fashion into pitiful little Byzantine chapels. When one sees how little there is in Greece later than the fall of the Roman Empire and earlier than the present century, one begins to understand why Greek history is of so little account between 500 and 1800 A. D. The few relics of the War of Liberation from the Turks (1820-29) light up that magnificent episode; but from the present Government of Greece one learns only that the United States is not the only country in which the national legislature seems incapable of putting measures through.

Passing from the land to the people who inhabit it, the lack of continuity from ancient times is startling. "The Greeks," said an ingenuous writer of a college-examination book, "were the first people who invented intelligence." In many respects the modern Greeks keep up the character of a shrewd, energetic, and gainful race, busy and productive. They have also a strong national feeling, to which the country owes most of its handsome public buildings; for the Academy, Library, and Museum at Athens, the Museum at Olympia, and many like structures, are the gifts of wealthy individuals. When one first lands at Corfu, he seems to recognize in the handsome men and the beautiful peasant women the classic Greek type. On the mainland, however, doubt begins to arise whether there are any Greeks. In the group of thirty or more people gathered on the little steamer bound to Itea were a well-dressed and well-bred lady, an officer in dark uniform, a coquettish person in a white cloud, a shepherd in a shaggy cloak and tight knee-breeches, a Turk cross-legged, near his wife in a yashmak rolled up in a rug, with two voiceless children, and a gentleman in round red cap, fustinella (white kilts), smoke-colored gaiters, and a black overcoat. Of this typical assemblage, not one had Greek features. Indeed, I have seen but three or four men and not one woman who looked like contemporaries of Pericles; one would see more Greek types in Rhode Island or Alabama. Outside of the agreeable and well-featured upper classes, there is, on the contrary, a rudeness of features more suitable for Tartary than for Hellas, where are the descendants of the "well-greaved Achaians."

It is difficult to resist the conviction that modern Greece, as Kipling says of Russia, is "the most Western of Eastern nations." The scenery is Oriental, the towns are Oriental. From the windows of the old mosque in Nauplia, the prisoners look down and draw up clean linen by a cord, as they might at Smyrna; in Old Corinth the fountain bears a Turkish inscription, as it might in Adrianople; a line of dirty and ill-natured camels, tied head to tail, brings loads of olives from Salona to the oil mills at Itea; an Eastern wail issued from the lips of the priests who walked in a funeral procession at Aigion. The Turkish occupation has left an ineffaceable stamp on the country.

Out of the mixture of races springs one of the pleasures of a visit to Greece. Everywhere are to be seen most picturesque costumes, recalling the ancient dress of the people. A loose blue tunic, belted to the waist, comes straight down from the monuments. Apparently the elaborately plaited fustinella, or kilt, is a latter-day adaptation of the same garment. The women very commonly wear a narrow white skirt not unlike those of the Caryatides of the Erechtheum; and the embroideries of their sleeves and skirts are like the embroideries sold by the Phœnicians. Besides these costumes others are common: gray rough-hooded cloaks, with knee-breeches and stockings; white cloaks and breeches; blue Turkish bags; and the remarkable Montenegrin costume of dirty brown, the seams all turned over in black. Unfortunately these costumes are now rapidly disappearing; already the trouser has conquered half the men, and in a few years the picturesque fustinella will become, like its kindred garment the Scotch kilt, nothing but an historical anachronism.

What is there for an historical student in a country so poor, so altered in race and character, so denuded by the ice-sheet of Turkish domination? At least "every schoolboy knows"—or rues it if he has forgotten—that the peculiarities of ancient Greek history and life were due in great part to the physical conditions of the country. Are not the small States and the intense city life and the individuality of the Greeks accounted for by the separation of the region into isolated valleys among the mountains? It does not require very keen observation to see that this influence has been exaggerated. The Alps and the Pyrenees are not to be compared with the Greek mountains, seamed with easy passes, which were often crossed by hostile armies, and were usually open to internal trade and travel. A visit to Argos and the Akrokorinthos brings home the importance which the ancients attached to a citadel site not too near the sea; and it is easy to see that the well-harbored coasts of Greece, thrust as they were across the great trade routes of antiquity, gave to Athens and Corinth and other commercial cities a position not unlike that of Venice a thousand years later. But the geology of Greece does not explain its history. The physical conditions of national life and union were better than those of the Roman state, and yet Greece missed the opportunity of founding an empire.

To the ruins of Greece, therefore, we must look for the secret of the marvellous life of the Greeks. Here, except in the matchless remains at Athens, I must own to some disappointment. The battle-fields even of Salamis and Marathon can only suggest; they have retained nothing. It is the sanctuaries, temples, cities, palaces, and roads from which one must expect most, and the Greek ruins are few and mournful. To be sure, there are few superincumbent strata of later historical settlements to obscure them. A few buildings of the Roman period bear testimony to the boastful use of unnecessary mass which characterizes Roman architecture as well as Roman civilization; but usually what is left is unmixed Greek work. Yet everything is so shattered and despoiled that it is hard to reconstruct. At Eleusis there is little but a splendid platform; at Olympia not one column was found standing; at Delphi the giants plainly got the better of the gods, and destroyed their sanctuaries by rolling great masses of rock down upon them from the mountain side, so that the very temple floors are crushed and upheaved. Of Chalkis and Aigion and Argos, there is hardly a trace. In many places the very walls seem to have crumbled into dust, and to have been blown to the four winds of heaven. From the sites rather than from the ruins one must seek inspiration.

Four of the most famous sites, Olympia, the Isthmus, Delphi, and Athens, have a special interest to the historical student because they were centres of Greek national life. Of these Olympia had fewest qualifications to be a political focus. The plain in which it lies is brown and unattractive, it was never defensible, and was conveniently situated only to the Peloponnesus and the western Greek colonies. The Isthmus, where Alexander was hailed as head of Greece, had a proper site for a national capital; but the political prestige of the situation went to Corinth, which was never a commonwealth-builder. Delphi is one of the notable spots of the world, not simply because of its wonderful scenery and its famous shrine, but because in it are still visible the foundations of a building in which assembled the only permanent council of the Greek race. It could not have been chance that on either of the two ancient roads to Delphi the traveller caught no view of the sacred precincts till he was almost upon them. Here, if anywhere in Greece, one can put one's self into the place of the ancient Greek, for here is still unchanged that which awed him—the stern cliffs, the great chasm from which issues the Castalian spring, the gorge below, and the rock wall opposite. Just now the French School is industriously at work upon the excavation, and although there is faint hope of finding any valuable sculptures, the wealth of inscriptions promises to shed new light on the history of the Amphictyonic Council. Of Athens, and especially of the Acropolis, one can only say that there is nothing more beautiful than the most beautiful; and that the historical student shares the delight of the archæologist and the artist. Here also is brought home to the mind the position of Athens as a world city, far too great for Attica, and almost mighty enough to make itself the master of a united Greece.

In Athens is now established a centre of intellectual life which is likely to be important for the study of Greek history. The National University, Academy, Library, and Museums must aid the Greeks to understand and study their own history; and the four foreign schools offer a πού στῶ to the investigator from over seas. Already centres of archæological and philological learning, they are likely to serve also the student of history. Each has its house, its corps of students, its library, its lecturers; and an admirable spirit of cooperation opens to the stu-

dents of each the advantages of all the others. Here is one place in the world where Frenchmen can work with Germans, and English and Americans agree without a treaty of arbitration. No one who has listened to Dr. Dörpfeld's cogent exposition of his grounds for believing that he has discovered the aqueduct of Peisistratus can fail to see how much the archæologists can teach the historians about covering the ground thoroughly, and patiently tracing every thread of evidence to its end. In this admirable and growing work the American School bears so honorable a part that a wish springs up for a similar school in Rome.

I could not leave Greece without making special visits to the sites of the two best organized Greek federations, Ætolia and Achaia. As a reader of Freeman, I felt well acquainted with the rude and mountainous country inhabited by the robber Ætolians. A very brief visit led to the belief that the country, if not the people, had been misrepresented. The centre of the Ætolian League was a broad, lake-studded region, bordering on one of the largest rivers in Greece, and within easy reach of the western and southern seas. Unfortunately, I was not able to reach the ruins of Thermon, the capital, and to explore the radiating valleys.

The Achaian League lay on what now, as in ancient times, is the main highway in Greece, and it was not difficult to visit the site of the capital, Aigion, and of several other cities. It was necessary first to dispel an impression that the country had been only a narrow shelf between inaccessible mountains and the Gulf of Corinth. In reality, the narrow gorges open inward, and communication by land from city to city was not very difficult. In size and character it is not unlike the strip between the Hudson and the Berkshire Hills. Such a land was favorable to the establishment of federal government, for it abounded in strongholds, had communication by sea and land, had a defensible frontier, and included much fruitful soil. Still more, the component cities lay where they were all exposed to four powerful enemies—Macedon, Sparta, the Ætolian League, and Rome. Yet why should the idea of an elaborate federation have come to those people rather than to the cities of eastern Greece. Why should it have later disappeared from the mind not only of Greece but of the world? Neither the soil nor the mountains nor the painfully scanty ruins of the cities answer the question.

As we passed out of the Corfu Straits and headed again for Italy, there swept past us a quick succession of craft. An English seventy-four asked for news of Buonaparte's Egyptian fleet; a Turkish pirate hovered inshore; a Venetian merchantman asked for a new supply of Greek fire; a Byzantine imperial vessel announced the death of Justinian, and a Roman galley the victory of Actium; an Athenian trireme bade us keep hands off the Corcyrean allies of Athens; and the shallop of King Alcinous bore toward Ithaca the "stranger, handsome and tall." Was all this only a red-sailed fishing-boat? Are Greek mythology and history only what we now see in Greece? The historical student brings back a keener appreciation of the unfavorable conditions over which the ancient Greeks triumphed, a greater admiration for the few great works that are left, and an imagination quickened by the sight of the background of Greek history.

ALBERT BUSHNELL HART.

PASQUIER'S NAPOLEONIC MEMOIRS.—VII.

PARIS, March 23, 1894.

DURING the Hundred Days, Napoleon made a reform in the imperial institutions. The "Acte Additionel aux Constitutions de l'Empire" was a liberal effort, something like the ministry of Émile Ollivier at the end of the Second Empire. The "Acte Additionel" guaranteed the liberty of the subject. Pasquier, instead of leaving Paris, remained there by the advice of Fouché. "The Emperor," said Fouché to him, "will be obliged to leave for the army before the end of the month. Once he is gone, we shall be masters of the ground. If he gain one or two battles, he will lose the third."

"This perfidy of Fouché, Napoleon's minister," says Pasquier, "is one of the most singular incidents of this epoch. What is still more astonishing is that the Emperor, who could not be completely ignorant of it, left him his portfolio, which he kept in a position where he had so many ways of being dangerous. Did he not dare to dismiss him? Did he think him more dangerous outside of the cabinet than in the cabinet? Or was M. Fouché protected by his well-known habit of deceiving everybody?"

Fleury de Chaboulon, one of Napoleon's secretaries, has given an account, in his Memoirs, of a secret negotiation which took place at this period between Fouché and Prince Metternich, its object being the return of Marie Louise and the young King of Rome to France. If we may believe Fleury de Chaboulon, Metternich did not feel bound to defend the rights of the Bourbons; he was thinking of the Duke of Orleans as King of France, or as Regent for the young King of Rome. Talleyrand was not wholly unaware of Metternich's sentiments, as is seen in a letter which he wrote on April 23 to Louis XVIII., who was then at Ghent. He says, however, in this letter, that Marie Louise absolutely refused to return to France, and that there would be no question of her regency. He also notified Louis XVIII. that the Emperor Alexander was thinking of the Duke of Orleans, not as Regent for Napoleon's son, but as King. These are the words which he places in the mouth of Alexander, in a conversation which the Emperor of Russia had with Lord Clancarty:

"'The Duke of Orleans is French, he is a Bourbon, he is the husband of a Bourbon; he has sons; he served, in his youth, the constitutional cause; he has worn the tricolor cockade, which, I often said in Paris, ought never to have been abandoned; he could unite all parties. Do you not think so, my Lord? and what would be the opinion of England on this point?' Lord Clancarty replied that it seemed very doubtful to him that England would ever abandon the principle of legitimacy."

Talleyrand had a great talent for reproducing long conversations very exactly in his despatches. He evidently wished to warn Louis XVIII. against the indifference or the hesitation of the great Powers; at the same moment, he was in direct correspondence with the Duke of Orleans, who had left France at the same time as Louis XVIII. but had not followed him to Ghent. On leaving the King, Louis-Philippe wrote to him to separate his cause entirely from that of the great Powers. Louis XVIII. replied vaguely, and asked him to join him at Ghent. Louis-Philippe remained, however, quietly at Twickenham. As for Talleyrand, who had also been summoned to Ghent, he contrived to arrive there only after Waterloo.

Pasquier, notwithstanding the advice of Fouché, retired for a time to the Château du Marais, which belonged to Mme. de la Briche, the mother-in-law of M. Molé. He found there M. Molé and M. de Barante, who had also retired to Auvergne. They had not to wait long; the campaign of 1815 ended almost immediately in the disaster of Waterloo. Immediately after the battle, Mme. Pasquier, who had remained in Paris, sent a messenger to her husband, informing him that Napoleon had come back to Paris a few hours after the news of the defeat had arrived. As soon as the Emperor found himself at the Tuileries he announced his intention to continue the war and to ask new sacrifices from the country. He was disposed at times to negotiate with the Chambers, at times to act without them. The Deputies, on motion of Lafayette, declared themselves in permanent session, and resolved that "any attempt to dissolve the Chamber would be a crime of high treason." They invited all the ministers to come at once to the Chamber.

Fouché thought himself master of the Chamber of Deputies. Napoleon soon became convinced that he had nothing to do but to abdicate. Lafayette was determined, if he did not abdicate, to propose to the Chamber the *déchéance* of the Bonapartist dynasty. Queen Hortense, Mme. Mère (the mother of Napoleon), his brothers, all pressed him to sign his abdication and to seek safety in America. Fouché brought to the Deputies the act of abdication, in which Napoleon said: "I offer myself a sacrifice to the hatred of the enemies of France. May they be sincere in their declarations that they have no other object of enmity than my person. My political life is ended, and I proclaim my son Emperor of the French, under the title of Napoleon II."

What was to be done with the Emperor? He still remained in the Élysée. All round the little palace and its gardens were crowds of people screaming, "Vive l'Empereur!" Napoleon thought himself obliged to come to the window or on to the terrace, and thank them. Pasquier had returned to Paris:

"I saw him one day," he says, "on the terrace. I had not seen him since my last conversation with him in 1814, the day before his departure for the campaign in France, and I could not but feel the deepest emotion on seeing him now reduced to come out and acknowledge by repeated bows the acclamations of the rabble. . . . His physiognomy, naturally grave, had become sombre; he sometimes tried to smile, but the expression of his eyes was full of sadness."

As soon as he found himself in Paris, Pasquier saw M. de Vitrolles, who had been kept some time in prison by Fouché and afterwards set free by him. There was still a fear that Napoleon would join the remainder of the French army, which was marching towards the Loire. He left the Élysée for the Malmaison, and his person was guarded by General Beker, who was known to be very inimical to him. Nobody knew at first what were the dispositions of Marshal Soult and Marshal Grouchy, who had still 80,000 men under their orders. Vitrolles soon ascertained that they had no desire to continue the war, and placed themselves at the disposal of the Bourbons. Napoleon was losing time at the Malmaison. More than once he thought of going to America, where he would, he said, consecrate his leisure to the study of science. He offered to accompany Arago. Orders were sent to Havre to have two frigates in readiness for him; he asked the foreign plenipotentiaries for safe-conducts, but they had not been sent; the allies were advancing, and it was soon too late for him to go to Havre. He left on June 29 for Rochefort, with General Beker. When he heard that the Prussians had

crossed the Seine, all his hesitation was at an end; he gave himself up as a prisoner to the English Government.

Pasquier judges thus the conduct of Napoleon after his return from Elba:

"From the moment of his arrival at Golfe-Jouan up to his arrival in Paris, he was admirable in his resolution and in his resources of execution; his proclamations during this epoch have a character of pride and greatness which moves the imagination and the heart. . . . After this brilliant début, he did not recover the same accents; he did not find himself on his accustomed ground; he could not dominate either men or events. He thought it necessary to make an appeal to the sentiments of liberty and independence; he could not evince his secret desire of reassuming his despotic habits, which he was obliged to renounce."

Pasquier criticises Napoleon for not having immediately after the return from Elba occupied Belgium with 25,000 men. "After the battle of Ligny, he lost time and did not follow up the Prussians closely enough. He did not keep sufficiently under his hand the corps of Marshal Grouchy. During the battle of Waterloo, he directed the movements from too great a distance; a cavalry charge which might have been decisive, was made too early and compromised his last resource." Is it true that Bonaparte, during the three months which have sometimes been called the "Century of the Hundred Days," was not quite himself, and that his genius, like his physical forces, was declining? Who can answer such a question exactly? We shall soon have the volume which M. Henry Houssaye is preparing on this very period, and we hope to find in it some new documents.

The anxiety at Ghent had been very great during the battle of Waterloo; for a moment it was thought that the English army had been beaten, and Louis XVIII. was preparing to take flight. It was fortunate for the Bourbons that Wellington's victory gave to him and to England a preponderating influence, for at Vienna the deliberations of the Congress had shown that Louis XVIII. had no better friends than the English. The Emperor Alexander had been estranged from him since the first days of the restoration in 1814; he discovered that Talleyrand had concluded during the Congress a secret treaty against Russia. The first information of it had been given by the Duke of Vicenza to a secretary of the Russian Embassy. A copy of the treaty was subsequently found on M. Reinhard, minister of France to Frankfort, who had been arrested by some Prussian soldiers on the high road between Frankfort and the French frontier. The Emperor Alexander was very indignant at this discovery, but he would not complain, and he forbade M. Pozzo di Borgo, whom he had accredited to Louis XVIII. at Ghent, to say anything about it. "They are low enough now," he said, "and it is not the time to make them feel the extent of their wrongs."

Wellington did not lose any time; he advised Louis XVIII. to come at once and establish himself in French territory. Louis XVIII. went first to Mons; he was joined there by Talleyrand, who advised him not to enter France till the war was ended. Louis XVIII. resisted this advice, and Talleyrand left him for a few days, joining him again on the advice of Wellington, and they entered Cambrai together. Talleyrand had yielded to the King on one point, he triumphed over him on another; he obtained the dismissal of M. de Blacas, who was considered the right-hand man of Monsieur and the princes, who were adverse to constitutional institutions.

The Prussians arrived on the heights of Meudon, and, in order to avoid unnecessary bloodshed, Marshal Davout signed a capitulation with them at Saint-Cloud. The French troops retired towards the Loire, and the National Guard was charged with the mission of preserving order in Paris. After the departure of the troops, the royalists began to prepare for the return of Louis XVIII. The King was approaching. Pasquier went as far as Arnouville to meet him. He found there a number of carriages and of visitors. The King, hearing of his arrival, at once sent for him, and received him in the midst of his council. By Pasquier's advice the King decided to start for the capital, but not till the next day, as there was still some agitation in Paris, and the National Guard still wore the tricolor cockade. After the council he was informed by Talleyrand that the King offered him a post in the cabinet—that of Justice or the Interior. Pasquier chose the ministry of justice. Talleyrand informed him also that Fouché was minister of police.

"Seeing the profound astonishment which I felt, he said: '*Que voulez-vous?* everybody has been imposed upon by him. The Duke of Wellington, who has had his head turned by him, has declared that Fouché is the only man who can guarantee the security of the capital, and consequently of France; he came in person to beg the King to admit him to his councils. We are just now under such obligations to the Duke of Wellington that there is no possibility of resisting his demands. Moreover, the Faubourg St.-Germain swears only by M. Fouché; all the letters and emissaries that have reached the King and the princes during the past fortnight have spoken only of him.'"

And so Fouché, the terrorist, the regicide, the minister of police of Napoleon during the Hundred Days, became the minister of police under Louis XVIII.

Correspondence.

THE DUTY ON COAL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the article on Senate amendments to the tariff bill (issue of March 15) I read: "The duty on coal is of much less consequence, as it affects only a corner of New England," etc. That other interests of some importance are affected will, I think, appear from the following facts:

California produces no coal, and, the coals of Oregon and Washington being unfit for many purposes, a large part of the consumption in the State is necessarily from foreign sources. For the ten years ending January 1, 1894, the total importation of coal for California has been 11,620,000 tons, of which 6,814,000 tons, or more than 60 per cent., paid the duty. During this time, therefore, this small and not overprosperous community has been taxed over $5,100,000 in order that the "small corner of New England" may have its coal from Pennsylvania or Virginia instead of from its natural source of supply.

Besides this direct tax, and its effect on manufacturing, there results an indirect evil from the fact that the staple wheat crop is carried away in foreign sailing ships, whose cargoes here are mainly coal, there being little else for them to bring under the other beneficent provisions of our law. Any check to our use of coal means, therefore, larger outward freights for wheat and smaller prices for the farmer. A. H. P.

San Mateo, Cal., March 23, 1894.

JUVENAL MISQUOTED.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I thank your correspondent "Y." for calling attention, in your issue of March 22, to my misquotation in the Latin words concluding my communication in the "Bishops' Symposium" of the *Independent* of March 8. I wrote hastily. The hexameter measure of the words as I penned them satisfied my ear. I did not stop to note the unsatisfactoriness of the sense. I am mortified to have seemed to put into the mouth of the vigorous and incisive Juvenal the flat and unprofitable meaning which my error of utterance conveys.

Daniel S. Tuttle,
Bishop of Missouri.

St. Louis, Mo., March 26, 1894.

THE DIRECTOR OF THE NATIONAL GALLERY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In No. 1497 of the *Nation* there is a note on the succession to the post of Director of the National Gallery in London, which impresses me, an old reader and collaborator of that generally most just and judicious paper, very painfully. I do not know what good the intervention of the *Nation* in the matter could do to the chances of Mr. Colvin, but it seems to me that the evident animus of the information as to his relative merits is more likely to do him harm than good, should it come to the eye of Lord Rosebery. Judgments vary very much as to how "remarkably well Mr. Sidney Colvin has already acquitted himself in somewhat similar [?] posts," but people who have any sound knowledge of art generally consider him as quite the very most unfit candidate for the succession to Burton of all those in the field. He has a literary reputation merely, and in the course of his literary career he has never expressed an opinion on matters of art which showed his capacity for individual judgment. He is understood to have the support of Sir Frederic Leighton for the appointment, but I have not heard of any other qualified person who endorses his claims; but as the nominee of Sir Frederic he is far more likely to run into that abyss of subservience to the Academy of which you seem to have such a horror, than Mr. Poynter would be. He is neither painter nor connoisseur, while Poynter is both, and there are other candidates whose qualifications are superior to those of either of the named, if knowledge of pictures is the chief requisite. For fear of repeating the blunder the *Nation* has committed to the disadvantage of another candidate, I do not canvass them.—Yours truly, X.

Italy, March 20, 1894.

[Our approval of Mr. Colvin was by no means unqualified.—Ed. Nation.]

EARLY LATIN POETRY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the April number of the *Atlantic Monthly*, Prof. Tyrrell has an article on "Early Latin Poetry." On page 508, speaking of Accius, he says:

"We have already heard his confident answer to the aged Pacuvius, and we are told by Valerius Maximus that when Cæsar entered the Collegium Poetarum, a kind of ancient analogue of the French Academy, Attius did not rise. He acknowledged the superior rank of Cæsar, but added, 'Here the question is, not who has most ancestors, but who has most works to point to.'"

Can it be that Prof. Tyrrell is ignorant of the fact that not the dictator but C. Julius Cæsar Strabo, the writer of tragedies, is meant? Certainly no one reading the quotation would suppose that the allusion was to any but the great Cæsar.

On page 507, Prof. Tyrrell says: "He [Pacuvius] learned the bitterness of being eclipsed by a younger rival, Attius." There seems to be no authority for such a view. Cicero and Varro distinctly assign the palm of tragedy to Pacuvius; the poets of after years speak of the two with practically the same degree of commendation, and the story of the relations of the two told by Aulus Gellius gives an impression of anything but bitterness.

Respectfully, SAMUEL BALL PLATNER.

MARCH 28, 1894.

SYLLABICATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of October 26, 1893, page 311, a correspondent, quoting Suetonius as to Augustus Cæsar's avoidance of syllabication, and his disposal of letters at the end of lines in writing, translates *circumducit* "draws a line round them." Why not "draws them around," *i. e.*, bends the line of writing at the end, as many do now? Otherwise, how could he avoid dividing the word? Would not drawing a line around the last letters be equivalent to dividing the word? N.

[We have referred this query to our correspondent, who replies as follows.—ED. NATION.]

"We would gladly adopt 'N.'s' translation of *circumducit* by *bends*, did not that English word require *flectit* in Latin, and were not our version on p. 311 in keeping with Facciolati's interpretation of *circumducit* as 'lineâ ductâ circumscribere,' and with Freund's definition—with reference to the custom of Augustus—'to place letters remaining at the end of a line below it, and draw circular marks around them to indicate that they belong above.' To the same purpose is the rendering of John Clarke of Hull as printed in 1732, namely: 'Augustus never divides his words so as to carry the letters that cannot be got in at the end of the line to the next, but puts them below the other enclosed within a semicircle.' It may be that the Emperor in fact bent a word downward on approaching the end of a line, but the word *circumduco* does not so declare. If, however, he did break off some letters from a word, his defence would be that he did so not in deference to any school of syllabicators, but yielding to the narrowness of paper."

"MEND OR END."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Westminster Budget* of the 16th instant, Mr. John Morley apparently gets the credit of having devised this combination. There must be many, however, who do not require to be told that Carlyle has, in the eighth of his *Latter-day Pamphlets:*

"It behoves thee to be in nameless remorse, till thy life either *mend or end*."

Carlyle, in turn, I have more than once seen spoken of as having first jingled *end* with *mend*. Yet he was long anticipated in so doing:

"I had the charity to interpret, that most part of My subjects fought against My supposed errours, not My person, and intended to *mend* Me, not to *end* Me."—Anon., *Eikōn Basilikē* (1649), p. 138 (ed. 1824).

Unless my memory misleads me, this is one of the passages which Hallam brings forward in his argument against attributing the *Eikōn Basilikē* to Charles I. Those passages, if I recollect his words aright, are such as he thinks the king would have disdained to write.

To what extent *mend* and *end* were formerly balanced against each other, I am unable to say; but at least one author of the seventeenth century was rather fond of them, to express the ideas of amelioration and extinction:

"I had rather we should *mend* than *End*." Rev. Edmund Hickeringill (about 1680), *Works* (ed. 1716), vol. i., p. 21.

"He looks on, and will either *end* our sufferings, or *mend* us by suffering." *Id.* (1662), *ibid.*, vol. i., p. 279.

"The worst I wish them is to '*mend*, not *end*, them." *Id.* (1682), *ibid.*, vol. ii., p. 50.

Bishop Andrewes, in a sermon preached at Christmas, 1614, allowed himself to be seduced, by the appellative *Immanuel*, into speaking, paronomastically, of *Immanu-hell* and *Immanu-all*. Nothing strange is it, then, that his clerical contemporaries are found to have paltered with *end* and *amend:*

"Death . . . would *end* and *amend* all, wert thou prepared for death." Rev. Dr. Robert Harris, *Samuels Funerall* (1614), p. 6 (ed. 1618).

"Vntill Christ either *amend* or *end* all disorders." Rev. Dr. William Hull, *Mirrovr of Maiestie* (1615), p. 14.

With instances of *mend* and *end*, *amend* and *end*, as metrical rimes, I do not here concern myself. F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, February 17, 1894.

N. B.—To my letter in No. 1487 I wish to add a little, by way of supplement.

The quotation there given, from Fielding's *Tom Jones*, for *pretty considerable*, is in Book ix., ch. vii. The expression is seen again in Book xviii., ch. iii. And the date of *Tom Jones* is 1749, not 1750, which I named.

The quotation for *pretty considerable* from Smollett's *Sir Launcelot Greaves* is in chap. iv., near the end. But modern editions, such as I have been able to consult, omit *pretty* from it. In Smollett's *Works* (ed. 1806), vol. vi., p. 187, occurs my quotation from *Humphry Clinker*.

And here are two kindred quotations, not before adduced:

"From a *pretty considerable* distance." Oliver Goldsmith (died 1774), *A Survey of Experimental Philosophy* (1776), vol. i., p. 43.

"The chapel was . . . at a *pretty considerable* distance from my chamber." Anon., Trans. of *The Invisible Man* (1800), vol. ii., p. 140.

With respect to *realize*, Abp. Whately, having used the word, comments on it as follows:

"I mean, in the English, not in the American, sense of the word 'realize.' To 'realize' a scheme, &c., means, with us, to make it 'real,' 'to carry it into effect'; with the Americans, it means to 'form a strong and vivid conception of it.' I acknowledge the want, in our language, of a single word adequately expressing this; but circumlocution is better than ambiguity." *Additions to the Seventh Edition of Elements of Rhetoric* (1846), p. 7, foot-note.

As I have already shown, *realize*, so far as at present appears, was, in the latest sense imposed on it, used originally in England, and was only first popularized by Americans. Nor have Englishmen felt that its alleged ambiguity outweighed its utility, as is evidenced by the acceptance which they have accorded it. What is further observable, beginning as hardly better than pietistic slang, it has come to be thoroughly liberalized and secularized. The Archbishop's exemplification of the manner in which we, like most Englishmen, often employ *realize*, is not, by the way, felicitous. F. H.

Notes.

A WORK dealing with Christianity and Socialism, called 'Vox Clamantium,' is to be published by A. D. Innes & Co., London. Hall Caine, S. R. Crockett, Richard Le Gallienne, Lewis Morris, Alfred Russel Wallace, Tom Mann, and Dean Stubbs are among the contributors.

Another coöperative work is 'A Policy of Free Exchange,' announced by the Appletons, with Thomas Mackay for editor, and Wm. Maitland, St. Loe Strachey, W. M. Acworth, Bernard Mallet, and the Hon. Alfred Lyttelton among the chapter writers.

A new 'Harmony of the Gospels' is about to be issued by Silver, Burdett & Co., Boston.

Siborne's 'Waterloo Campaign' has been issued in a new edition in England, in the "War Library" (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons). The book itself is the standard English authority for the campaign of 1815, and the new edition is an excellent example of cheapening without spoiling the form of the publication. The paper is good, the type is clear, the maps and illustrations really help the reader; so that one gets in the stout 16mo of eight hundred pages everything that was essential in the atlas and two volumes 8vo of the earlier editions, while the price is reduced to a mere fraction.

The tenth volume of Mr. G. H. Wilson's 'Musical Year-Book of the United States' (season of 1892-1893) is late in making its appearance, but by way of compensation it contains almost twice as much matter as any of its predecessors. The main title is not sufficiently comprehensive, for the musical records of the Canadian cities are also included in these pages. Mr. Wilson has found the task of collecting and editing all this material too great for one man, and has therefore invoked the assistance of Messrs. Cady, Krehbiel, and Hale to superintend the Chicago, New York, and Boston sections, while Mr. Wilson took care of the Columbian Exposition music, of which a full record is given. More than a hundred cities are included in the alphabetical list, and it is surprising to find how many of them had orchestral and choral concerts. Indeed, Mr. Cady calls attention to the fact that in some places the ambition displayed is altogether too great. Among players every one wants to be a soloist, and the young choral societies are not satisfied with anything but the biggest and most difficult works. Mr. Hale, in his review of the Boston season, is unjust to Mr. Nikisch, and writes entirely in a cynical tone which will do little to help along an exotic art in need of tender nursing to grow among us. To musicians, and conductors in particular, nothing could be more valuable for study and comparison than the full programmes here given of all the Seidl, Damrosch, Nikisch, and Thomas concerts of the last season. A comparison of the composers shows that Wagner usually leads, Beethoven coming second. As regards our oldest and leading orchestral society, the Philharmonic, Mr. Krehbiel notes that financially the last season was the most successful one in its history, the sum paid to each active member of this coöperative society for twelve concerts having been $246, which was $21 more than he ever received before. The 'Year-Book' is published by Clayton F. Lummy, Chicago.

Mr. Winfrid A. Stearns of the Atlanta University has gathered in pamphlet form the articles on bird-life in Labrador which appear-

ed serially in the *American Field* of Chicago. The mechanical work has been done almost entirely by nearly seventy-five colored persons of both sexes, and the brochure shows what good printing this class can be taught to produce.

A handsome "monthly review of current scientific investigation" has just been launched by the Scientific Press, No. 428 Strand, W. C., London, under the title of *Science Progress*. An editorial committee, well distributed among the specialties, coöperates with Messrs. Henry C. Burdett and J. Bretland Farmer, the conductors. One of the number, Prof. G. B. Howes, has a brief but effective paper on "The Present Outlook of Vertebrate Morphology," which he regards as good in virtue of a reaction against excessive devotion to the idea "that ontogeny is generally recapitulatory of phylogeny." Another very interesting review, by W. B. Hemsley of Kew, is on "Insular Floras."

Bibliographica is the title of a quarterly magazine modelled remotely on M. Octave Uzanne's *Le Livre*, with an appointed life of only three years. It is to be published by Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co. in London, and by Charles Scribner's Sons here. The list of contributors is exclusively British, except that contributions are expected from M. Octave Uzanne and M. Henri Beraldi; no American name appears in the announcement. Among the contributors are Austin Dobson, Andrew Lang, Richard Garnett, William Morris, A. W. Pollard, and Miss Prideaux. Among the topics to be treated are manuscripts, early printed books, libraries, book sales, illustrations, book-plates, and bindings. The "Bibliography of Early Printed Music" is a promising paper, and so is the "Vicissitudes of Manuscripts."

The *Mémorial Diplomatique*, whose unique value for publicists and journalists as a record of the text of diplomatic documents has been long established, will branch out somewhat in the new (32d) volume upon which it is just entering. It has secured the collaboration of distinguished writers who will still further enhance its value and readability. For the sake of extending its circulation it offers a trial subscription for one month for the mere postage—fifty centimes.

The *Revue Blanche*, in its March number, adds to the store of Stendhaliana by the publication of two documents not hitherto known. One is a little paper of useful hints upon Italian travel, entitled 'Avis aux têtes légères,' which Beyle drew up for the use of his two sisters, who, in the autumn of 1824, were setting out upon a southern journey. It is of no great value, save that it incidentally throws a little light upon the state of the soul of the writer. The other document is both interesting and curious. It is a record of the impressions of a juror at the trial of one Berthet, an ex-seminarian, who shot a certain Mme. Michoud while she was in church assisting at mass. This story is really a key to Stendhal's 'Le Rouge et le Noir.' Berthet is Julien Sorel, whose history furnishes the groundwork and main lines of the novel; and hints of some other of its personages, like Mme. de Rénal and even Mathilde de la Môle, appear.

The most interesting article in *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for February is an account of southeastern Borneo by G. Schneiders, a mining engineer. The mineral resources of the island consist of gold, platinum, diamonds, coal, lead, copper, antimony, and other minerals of less importance. Two obstacles have hitherto prevented their full development, the want of means of conveyance between most of the mineral districts and the coast, and the restrictive policy of the Government, which will grant concessions of land for mining or agricultural undertakings only to the native-born Dutch or to foreigners who have for a long time been residents in the Dutch colonies. There is also great difficulty in obtaining labor. The Chinese are the best workmen, but the Government for some years has not permitted any of this industrious race to enter Borneo, apparently from motives of self-preservation. Herr Schneiders formed a very favorable impression of the Dyaks, the so-called head-hunters of the interior, who proved themselves useful as guides and hunters. Their religion he describes as a debased fetishism, though the ruins of ancient temples, and antique vases filled with gold and silver which are objects of special reverence, are memorials of a once-prevalent Buddhism. An admirable map after the most recent Government surveys accompanies the paper. This is followed by a physical description of Montenegro by Dr. K. Hassert, who discusses the cause of the present treeless condition of the high plateau, and calls attention to the great progress made in the cultivation of the fertile district bordering upon the Lake of Scutari. It is illustrated by a map colored so as to show the character of the soil and its products in all parts of the principality.

The committee having in charge the Sixth International Geographical Congress, which is to be held in London in 1895—the last was held in Berne in 1891—have issued a circular indicating in general terms the programme on which they desire the Congress to be conducted. The most interesting feature is the announcement that "geographical problems connected with colonization will probably be dealt with in some detail, and therefore those interested in or connected with the colonies of all European countries are especially invited to attend." Communications may be made in French, German, Italian, or English. There will be a Geographical Exhibition in connection with the Congress.

The departure of the pioneer company of Freeland colonists for British East Africa, and the announcement that a second expedition is to follow next month, the precursors of thou sands of colonists from every part of Europe, has excited much comment. Mr. Stanley and other writers have pointed to the grave complications which may arise from the fact that an Austrian association is about to occupy territory within the British sphere of influence. Then, it is asked, who is to guarantee that the rights of the natives will be respected by this irresponsible community of whites? The statement has been made that the colony was to be planted on certain unoccupied but fertile highlands to the east of Mt. Kenia. It seems very doubtful, however, if any land fit for European colonization is uninhabited. The fact that the pioneer expedition is heavily armed (the question of taking machine-guns was discussed) would seem to indicate that the leaders expected to be obliged to use force in taking possession of their allotted territory, or to defend themselves afterwards. This lends a grimly comical incongruity to the latest attempt to solve the social problem and to secure to each man the right to the profit from his own labor.

In a letter to the London *Times* Mr. Fred G. Jackson announces that the funds have been provided to enable him to carry out his long-contemplated polar expedition. It will consist of a sledging party of six men and a few Samoyeds, and the base of operations will be the southern shore of Franz Josef Land. Here substantial winter quarters will be established, and, in the spring, depots at intervals of thirty or forty miles will be made as far as possible to the north. Light canvas collapsible boats are to be carried for use in case there should be any open water. In this way, Mr. Jackson, who has had considerable arctic experience, hopes to reach the Pole. He expects to start this summer and to be absent three years.

Dr. E. Knipping, formerly meteorologist of the Imperial Japanese Weather Service at Tokyo, and now of the Deutsche Seewarte at Hamburg, publishes in the *Archiv* of that institution for 1893 a useful paper on the tropical typhoons of the South Sea, between the Paumotu Archipelago and the Australian continent. The research is based upon all the storms observed during a century and more just passed, the sources of information are given, and the frequency of the hurricanes and their paths are plotted. About 90 per cent. of the 125 hurricanes discussed took place in our winter season, December to March, nearly a tenth in April and November, with a few scattering ones in May, September, and October. Regular increase in the number of storms from December to March obtains near the Fiji Islands, while in the vicinity of the Samoan Islands and New Caledonia the epoch of greatest frequency falls in the month of January. The prevalent direction of these dangerous cyclones is southeasterly, and Dr. Knipping's long sea service, together with his high meteorological attainments, qualify him excellently for the preparation of such sailing directions as he has incorporated in his paper for the use of ships caught within the range of these destructive typhoons.

A curious incident, which is not without a certain scientific interest, has lately happened at the menagerie of the museum at Paris. Some time last year Baron Walter Rothschild gave an apterix to the museum. This bird is rare in New Zealand, which is the only place where it is known to exist, and of the very greatest rarity in Europe, since it is of so delicate a habit that almost all the specimens that have been sent have died on the voyage. The managers of the museum, therefore, as was natural, treated their prize with lavish care. A special cage was made for him, the temperature of which was watched anxiously, and his food, which consisted of meat only, was carefully chosen and prepared. But before very long, nobody knew how, he suddenly disappeared, and nothing was heard of him till the night of March 8, when he was discovered by a night watchman and brought back. The tender exotic had been living, as it appears, in the cellars of some new houses that are building in the Rue Buffon, and had been for the last five months exposed to the rigors of a cold climate, getting his food when and how he could. He comes out of this difficult experience in the best of health and of condition.

From a brief obituary notice of the late Mr. George William Childs which appears in the *Revue Encyclopédique* of March 15 we transcribe the following bit of literary news: "Childs a publié sous son nom un recueil d'anciennes ballades."

A gentleman in Cambridge writes to us as follows: "Passing Gore Hall the other day, I was forcibly reminded that in library administration the balance between the power to buy books and the capacity for storing can be rudely disturbed. They are carting away for storage 15,000 of the least used—not unused—books in Harvard College Library to make

room for new purchases. In a year's time another thinning out will be necessary, and then the library of a great university will be put in the ridiculous position of the library of Congress, piling its books as if they were cords of wood."

The formation is announced in England of a Brontë Society, the object of which is to acquire literary, artistic, and family memorials of the Brontës; photographs of persons and places identified with them and their works in Yorkshire, Ireland, Cornwall, Essex, Brussels, etc.; copies of all books and fugitive articles illustrating the novels and the districts in which the Brontës resided—to place these acquisitions at Haworth, or some other appropriate locality, for the free inspection of members of the Society, and to offer them for public exhibition. The annual fee for membership of this Society is a half crown, due January 1, and for this an annual report will be sent post free in the following December; the fee will also cover free admission to the Museum when established. Life membership may be secured by payment of two guineas. Membership fees may be sent to Mr. F. C. Galloway, West Bowling, Bradford, Yorkshire. Mme. Emma C. Cortazzo, 330 Dartmouth Street, Boston, will be glad to furnish information on this subject, unofficially, to those interested.

—The *Century* for April is freakishly made up at the beginning by means of a story without words, as we may call it—"From the Old World to the New," a series of not extraordinary designs by André Castaigne, showing the transformation of an immigrant into an American. This number adds to Lincoln literature an article by Mr. John G. Nicolay on Lincoln's Literary Experiments, with specimens in the form of verses, fragmentary notes for lectures, and a lecture, all hitherto unpublished. The verses were written in 1844, when a political campaign had taken Lincoln back to that part of Indiana where his boyhood was passed, and are full of the pathos of those early associations. The lecture on "Discoveries, Inventions, and Improvements" was delivered as late as 1860 in Springfield, Ill. It is evidently a mere skeleton which the ready speaker filled out to suit the occasion, but is characteristically humorous. Neither verses nor prose specimens are of value in themselves; but as phases of the development that produced the Gettysburg oration, they are interesting. An always timely subject is discussed by Col. George E. Waring, jr., in his paper on methods of sewage disposal, or, as he otherwise entitles it, "Out of Sight, Out of Mind." In "Hunting an Abandoned Farm in Connecticut," Mr. William Henry Bishop sets forth entertainingly a melancholy situation, though he gives good reasons for considering it less bad than has been reported. "Topics of the Time" discusses the Myers ballot-machine, a contrivance for insuring an honest vote by eliminating as far as possible the human element from it. The "Open Letter" on forestry legislation in Europe gives valuable data on this subject.

—In *Harper's* Mr. George W. Smalley discourses on the House of Lords, or "English Senate." He ranges the opponents of the House of Lords into three classes: those who, like John Morley, would abolish it altogether; those who would abolish it if some more efficient and popular substitute could be provided; and those who would reform the existing House. To this last category belong those of the Lords themselves who are sufficiently abreast of the times to realize that a change must come and to dare to espouse it. Among these is the present premier, Lord Rosebery, who twice—in 1884 and in 1888—proposed to his colleagues to reform themselves. His propositions were of course defeated, the second by a vote of 97 to 50. An article on Yale University, by Prof. Arthur T. Hadley, describes the evolution from the embryo of 1700 that was afraid to call itself a college, to the flourishing institution of to-day. Prof. Hadley lays stress on the importance to the recent progress of the university of the incorporation of the Sheffield Scientific School as a coördinate department in 1886, and the liberalizing of the academic courses which President Dwight has brought about. The professional schools and the post-graduate courses have also been weighty elements in the change, introducing as they have done a large body of advanced students whose presence is an example and a helpful stimulus to the undergraduates. The article closes with a sympathetic defence of athletics, in the course of which the rather specious remark is made that the "high-stand" man works for himself, whereas the athlete works for the college—as if the adulation the successful athlete receives were not the most personal of incentives.

—Readers of the *Atlantic* will find an opportune article in A. Lawrence Lowell's "The Referendum in Switzerland and America." Those who object to any further extension of this institution in the United States will not overlook the recent examples in Switzerland of its enabling ignorance to hinder, and prejudice to compel, legislation. For example, by means of the referendum, compulsory vaccination has been abolished on the one hand, and on the other a persecuting measure against the Jews has been embodied in the Constitution, in defiance of the advice of the highest legislative body. It is, moreover, an expensive piece of governmental machinery, as the author demonstrates. He emphasizes the fact that Switzerland is a small country, with comparatively little legislation, whereas in any one of our States the amount of such legislation would make a similar use of the referendum impracticable, not to say impossible, on physical grounds alone, and costly in the extreme. In the other political paper of the month, William R. Thayer considers some causes of the Italian crisis. The two literary essays are on "Nature in Old English Poetry," and "Early Latin Poetry," by Richard Burton and Prof. R. Y. Tyrrell respectively.

—*Scribner's Magazine* devotes, as usual, a good deal of its space to art. The frontispiece, a *genre* picture by Frank Bramley, A.R.A., gives Mr. Hamerton the opportunity for a brief sketch of the Newlyn school, of which this artist is a prominent member, and incidentally of Newlyn itself, a quaint little fishing village near Penzance, England, where the twenty or more painters composing the school have formed a colony. There is an elaborate article on "French Caricature of To-day," by Arsène Alexandre; and William A. Coffin has a "Word about Painting," in which he warns the American school against the sensationalism and affectation that threaten to pervade it. The literary article of the month is from the pen of Austin Dobson, who writes in his pleasant style of Mr. Robert Dodsley and his book-shop "At Tully's Head," in Pall Mall. Like Rousseau, Dodsley served an apprenticeship as lackey, but he had the ability to raise himself from his menial position, and to become both a literary success himself and a patron of greater writers. Mr. Bunner's "The Bowery and Bohemia" is disappointing and inadequate; each topic—the quarter, and the tribe of poor artists and writers supposed to haunt it—being made the excuse for bringing in the other, without anything in particular being said about either.

—Mr. Lester F. Ward, who has done yeoman's service before in the cause of fair play for women, has an article in the *Monist* for April, in which he holds up to ridicule the argument by which Ferrero would show that women ought not to engage in productive labor. The theory that women are to "sit on a cushion and sew up a seam," is part and parcel of the theory that they exist only for the pleasure of men—a theory little congenial to the hardy Anglo-Saxon race, though it is the warp and woof of the views concerning the relation of the sexes which prevail in Italy and France. In Max Nordau's new book, 'Degeneration'—the technical name of that form of mental disease which the author shows to be the characteristic of the writers "de tout à-l'heure" in France, and of which erotomania is the most constant symptom—it is pointed out that nothing is more futile than to address argument to persons in that condition, and it is not any more likely that Prof. Ward's argument will be effective in the quarter against which it is directed. But for one who enjoys an admirable presentation of a subject, supported by wide-reaching biological and sociological considerations, his article will prove most interesting reading. In one passage, however, there seems to be a curious error on the part of the proof-reader. It stands thus:

> "The whole upper part of the animal series may be regarded as anomalous; and the anomaly is a radical one, since it represents a change from normal female superiority to abnormal male superiority—a change brought about by the females themselves through sexual selection, whereby they have surrendered their sceptre and bartered their empire for an æsthetic gratification. To some this may seem a degeneracy, but few would wish wholly to restore the Amazonian régime."

The writer doubtless intended to say "few *men* would wish," etc. There would seem to be no reason why women should look with disfavor upon a return to nature in the shape of a restoration of female supremacy, any more than men find the abnormal régime which prevails at present peculiarly distasteful to them.

—A subject of the greatest difficulty and delicacy is brought up by the proposal of the Belgian Government to authorize children born out of wedlock to investigate their paternity by legal measures. The *Réforme Sociale*, in commenting upon this proposal, calls attention to the fact that the French code explicitly prohibits any such proceeding. It is evident that this proposal goes much further than one giving the mother a right of action against the father, which to a certain extent is known to our statute law, and which is covered partly by the legal fiction of loss of service to the parents. Whether any good result will be attained by allowing illegitimate offspring, when they reach the age of twenty-one years, to bring actions to establish their parentage, is very doubtful. Should the experiment be tried in Belgium, as seems probable, the result will be everywhere watched with a lively interest. We observe, by the way, that Mr. Robert T. Swan, the Massachusetts Commissioner of Public Records, in his current (sixth) report, returning to his useful theme of the overworked town clerk, states

that "some clerks record as the father of an illegitimate child the person named by the mother, and such a record has been used in court; others have awaited the decision of the court in bastardy proceedings before inserting the name of a father, while as a rule, either 'Unknown' is entered or a blank space is left to puzzle searchers of the records hereafter."

—Mr. Swan's exposure of the excessive, unreasonable, indefinite, and ineffective requirements of town clerks in Massachusetts deserves careful study by legislators and legal reformers. Entries on the records are enjoined of matters concerning which the clerk has no official knowledge, while those who have have no right to meddle with his records. For instance, "he must send to the Board of Prison Commissioners the name of the chief of police, and is under penalty if he neglects it, although he has no official knowledge of the appointment, and it is a question, moreover, whether such an officer exists under the statutes." Again, "bonds of certain town officers are to be filed 'with the town.' The clerk is custodian of the files, and consequently is custodian of his bond for dog-license money, and, if also treasurer or collector, of his bond as such. In one town a defaulting clerk and collector destroyed his bond." From all this results the greatest want of uniformity in keeping the records, the most slovenly care of them. The more faithfully and fully they are preserved, the greater the problem how to store them securely, and this is the problem with which the commissioner is principally concerned. He recommends, on the one hand, a law providing for the destruction of rubbish at certain intervals, and, on the other, a law making the elective town clerk's term at least three years, and the county clerk's five, "and politics should be ignored." The good effect of the statute creating the commissioner has been, by rendering vaults and safes necessary for the preservation of the records, to lead to the erection of town halls, library or memorial buildings, "built wholly or in part by individuals," with provision in them for town offices. In the smaller towns Mr. Swan recommends that vaults or safes be provided at the charge of the Commonwealth. He illustrates his report with photographic copies of mutilated early records, two of them from the town of Natick, the scene of Eliot's labors, exemplifying "probably the only town records in that [Indian] language in the State." Finally, he proposes an act to establish a State standard record ink. As we have had occasion to say before, these reports have a universal interest, and it appears that Rhode Island has lately taken notice of them, and is doing something to rescue its records from dispersion and decay.

—In the almost entire absence of local government in Ireland, the position of magistrate (with appended initials, J. P., "Justice of the Peace") carries with it perhaps more weight than in Great Britain. J. P.'s, in conjunction with stipendiary magistrates, dispense justice in the local courts. They grant or refuse spirit licenses. They outnumber on the poor-law boards the elected guardians. It has always been the policy of both British parties to reward adherents in Ireland and strengthen their own position by appointments to the bench. A recent Parliamentary return (No. 463, session 1893), giving the occupations and religious persuasions of Irish magistrates, is therefore particularly interesting. We learn that 3,821 are Protestants and 1,403 Catholics—the relative percentage of Protestants and Catholics in the population being 25 per cent. and 75 per cent. respectively. In some counties, as in Wicklow, where the Catholics form 79 per cent. of the population, the proportion of Catholic magistrates is but 11 per cent. of the whole number. Strange to say, in Belfast there is the nearest approach to an equilibrium —20 per cent. of the magistrates and 26 per cent. of the population being Catholics. Upon the whole, considering the measures formerly taken to depress the Catholics, and the fact that their appointment to the bench began only in 1829, the proportionate number to which they have attained takes us somewhat by surprise. Of the total 5,224, 3,182 belong distinctly to the ascendancy class, while 1,439 are more of the people—merchants, traders, farmers, or physicians—leaving a balance of 603 whose sympathies it may be difficult to surmise.

A NEW EDITION OF THE MORTE DARTHUR.

The Birth, Life, and Acts of King Arthur, of his Noble Knights of the Round Table, their marvellous Enquests and Adventures, the Achieving of the San Greal, and in the end Le Morte Darthur, with the Dolourous Death and Departing out of this World of them all. The text as written by Sir Thomas Malory and imprinted by William Caxton at Westminster in the year MCCCCLXXXV and now spelled in modern style. With an Introduction by Professor Rhŷs and embellished with many original Designs by Aubrey Beardsley. Volume I. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. 1893.

Sir Thomas Malory has no reason to complain of the "iniquity of oblivion." To be sure, he has been pretty well obscured in person—for the editors and critics have not made up their minds whether he was an Englishman or a Welshman, sir knight or sir priest—but his book has had a vogue that he little dreamed of. The causes of this popularity it would be interesting to investigate. So far as they coincide with merits in the book itself, they have been often set forth; but there are other causes which one must suspect have been no less potent though less talked about. In the first place, the 'Morte Darthur' "met a demand," "filled a long-felt want." Caxton tells us that he was urged by many noble gentlemen to publish some account of King Arthur, and that, when his scruples as to the historical reality of that "King and Emperor" had been in some sort removed by the citation of Gawain's skull and Cradock's mantle, and the tomb at Glastonbury, and other pieces of extant testimony, he consented. How much of this entertaining preface is mere publisher's flourish, it is hard to say, but one thing is certain: the 'Morte Darthur' met with immediate success. It was very convenient for all kinds of readers to have a body of the scattered Arthur romances at hand in a single volume and in the vernacular, and the work became at once for Englishmen the orthodox version of the whole "matter of Britain." Few inquiries were made as to the taste with which Sir Thomas had selected his materials, or the fidelity with which he had reproduced his French originals. An interested and uncritical public was waiting for some such compilation, and a welcome was ready for it in advance.

In the pseudo-classical period Malory's renown suffered eclipse. His subject was too "romantic" for the classicists, and his language and sentiments were too "rude." But even the pseudo-classical influences have contributed indirectly to his subsequent fame. They made the whole Arthurian matter seem so remote that, when the dawn of the Romantic revival appeared, few Englishmen were tempted to search beyond Malory for older forms of these stories. The 'Morte Darthur' emerged again into the light of popularity, and regained without an effort its position as the orthodox version. Even to-day, when the Old French romances have lost something of their remoteness, Malory's compilation, whether immediately or through the adaptations of Tennyson and others, is the main source of our ideas about the Round Table and consequently of many of our literary conventions about the middle ages.

The language in which the book is written is no doubt another cause of its popularity. Archaic enough to be attractive, and not too archaic to be readily intelligible to cursory readers, Malory's diction has flattered many excellent persons into the belief that they were masters of Old English—and that has been no small recommendation for it. This is not a dignified ground for admiring a piece of literature, but it has none the less had its part in calling forth the somewhat extravagant praise which the 'Morte Darthur' has met with. Apart from its antique flavor, Malory's style has no doubt a charm of its own; but this charm, we suspect, would not have prompted such epithets as "incomparable" and "unapproachable" but for the titillation of the reader's vanity just refered to. However, we have no wish to run a tilt at the highly decorative figure of the old knight that modern critics have done their best to keep in the lists. The 'Morte Darthur' is indisputably a classic, and we should be sorry to see it despised. It may be hoped, notwithstanding, that tract of time will bring about a somewhat more discriminating regard.

The scholar has many quarrels with Sir Thomas Malory—but those are private affairs to be fought out at a distance from newspaper publicity. The lover of literature has his quarrel, too, and that of a more serious nature and not to be compounded without great argument. Malory is perhaps to be credited with having kept the Arthur stories alive in the knowledge of modern English writers; but his deserts in this direction, however considerable, are almost counterbalanced by a very special demerit. Selecting his materials (and perhaps forced to select them) without much discrimination, he has reproduced and made almost exclusively current various late and bad versions of excellent old stories, and—what is worse—various scandalous misrepresentations of heroic personages. The vogue of the 'Morte Darthur' has been so great that the moderns have too seldom gone beyond it for literary material, and, as a result, the book has impoverished our literature only less than it has enriched it. The most flagrant offence of this kind is the case of Sir Gawain.

In the earlier romances of the Arthur cycle Gawain is a most amiable and charming person. He is invincible in the field and in the lists, but he is even more remarkable for his courtesy. This courtesy is of the true ring; it is not hollow, it is not acquired, it is a part of the man's nature, and finds expression in every word he says and every deed he does. His faith is unblemished; his generosity and the nobility of his heart are unwavering. This is the Gawain of the old French verse romances —the Chevalier au Lion, the Perceval, and the rest—and this is the Gawain of the fourteenth-century romances in English. He is seen at his best in the beautiful 'Gawain and the

Green Knight,' by an unknown contemporary* of Chaucer.

This, however, is not the Gawain to whom Malory introduces us. Following late French prose romances which had systematically debased Gawain to exalt Lancelot, he has represented the paragon of the Round Table as a pitiful, treacherous creature—a blusterer and a bully. Tennyson follows Sir Thomas, and so we have the flower of Arthurian chivalry maligned in such verses as these:

"Light was Gawain in life, and light in death
Is Gawain, for the ghost is as the man."

"The hall long silent till Sir Gawain—nay,
Brother, I need not tell thee—foolish words—
A reckless and irreverent knight was he."

"To this the courteous prince
Accorded with his wonted courtesy—
Courtesy with a touch of traitor in it!"

And hence, too, we have the unforgivable libel of 'Pelleas and Etarre.' We cannot help thinking that this degradation of Gawain, which has robbed modern literature of a figure that it very much needs—an Arthurian hero with no nonsense about him—is a heavy charge on the soul of Sir Thomas Malory.

But, whatever our grudges against Malory, and however much we may feel inclined to protest against the superlatives so often applied to him, we must extend a cordial welcome to the present edition. It is, of course, not meant for specialists, whose needs have been competently met by the elaborate volumes of Dr. Sommer. It is not intended to be studied, but to be read—for it is beautifully printed in large type and with commendably black ink—and to be looked at, for it is a rather sumptuous book and has an abundance of pictures. The text is Southey's, with some corrections. The spelling and punctuation have been judiciously modernized, but the grammar and phraseology have not been interfered with. There are glosses—rather scanty, it must be admitted, and not always exact—at the foot of the page. There is an interesting preface by Prof. Rhŷs, which occupies itself chiefly with Arthur in Welsh literature, but, of course, settles nothing. The volume before us contains nine books of the 'Morte Darthur'; a second volume will complete the work.

The designs with which Mr. Aubrey Beardsley has embellished this volume are frankly decorative rather than illustrative. The ladies are very lank and often snaky-haired, the knights are seldom athletic in appearance, and there is a vast deal of posing. But on the whole the full-page pictures assist one to enjoy the book, and the headpieces of the chapters, as well as the borders which adorn the first page of each of the larger divisions, are almost uniformly successful. At three things, notwithstanding, we must enter a protest: the hideous caricature labelled "Merlin," which should be relegated to the forest of Broceliande as soon as possible; the ugliness of some of the ladies' faces, which makes the sense ache at them; and the Ethiopian cast of countenance given to Morgan le Fay and La Beale Isoude.

*Mr. Gollancz's conjecture that this was Ralph Strode, the philosopher, can hardly be taken seriously.

TWO ENGLISHWOMEN.—I.

The Story of Two Noble Lives, being Memorials of Charlotte, Countess Canning, and Louisa, Marchioness of Waterford. By Augustus J. C. Hare. 3 vols. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 1894.

It is to be regretted that the editor of these volumes should have added to the interesting materials placed in his hands so much that is irrelevant. There is also a good deal of repetition, and, besides inserting a number of letters from Lady Waterford to himself, scarcely one of which contains matter of general interest, the editor has introduced long extracts from his own letters and diaries which might well have been abridged if not altogether omitted. He would have done wisely had he confined his work to two volumes.

Charlotte Stuart, Countess Canning, and Louisa Stuart, Marchioness of Waterford, were the only children of Sir Charles Stuart, afterwards Lord Stuart de Rothesay, and Lady Elizabeth Stuart, daughter of the Earl of Hardwicke. Sir Charles Stuart was appointed British Ambassador in Paris on the conclusion of the peace in 1815, and remained there for many years, residing in the house purchased for the British Embassy from Pauline Borghese, the favorite sister of Napoleon Bonaparte. Here Charlotte, named after her godmother Queen Charlotte, was born in 1817, and Louisa in the following year. Their grandmother, the Countess of Hardwicke, who was a very shrewd old lady, wrote in 1820 a curiously accurate description of the characters of the two children:

"Charlotte is almost beautiful, and quite fascinating, which is more than beauty. She will be one, I think, who will chain men to her while she hangs on them for support. Louisa will need no man's help, but will be mainly able to give it in mind and body. Charlotte will have her reign early, but Louisa will establish hers, though late, permanently."

Both sisters were beautiful. Charlotte was lovely from a child, with one of the most expressive countenances ever seen; Miss Berry used to say of her, "One cannot speak of Char [her name in her own family] in sober terms of praise." Louisa's beauty, which was far more striking, developed later. Charlotte, when seventeen, became attached to Charles Canning, the only surviving son of the great statesman. He was a young man of the utmost promise, having taken a first-class in classics and a second in mathematics at Oxford; but Lord Stuart de Rothesay (who, whatever were his talents as Ambassador, seems to have been most trying in his own family) vehemently opposed the marriage, solely on account of his political animosity to Charles Canning's father, who had then been dead for some years. Charlotte was forbidden to speak to her lover, but she used to watch him through the railings of the parapet as he rode past her father's house. Old Lady Hardwicke was most indulgent to her grandchildren, although until her death at the age of ninety-five she ruled her daughters, one of whom was then seventy-six, with a rod of iron. She at length induced Lord Stuart to consent to the marriage, and it took place in 1835. In 1837 Charles Canning succeeded to the peerage created in favor of his mother, and became Viscount Canning. Lady Canning was appointed lady in waiting to Queen Victoria, and never were sovereign and subject more devoted to each other. Like her sister, Lady Waterford, she could never bear to be idle. In 1854 she was active in selecting nurses to send out to the Crimea. She saw numbers of volunteers and had to reject many, but finally she sent out a party of really good nurses, under the command of Miss Nightingale. The Canning Nurses' Home in Calcutta, which has done excellent work, was thought to be the fittest memorial of her life in India. In 1855 Lord Canning was appointed to succeed Lord Dalhousie as Governor-General of India. Lady Canning had no wish to go, but her words were, "I will not take any part in the decision, only be ready to follow like a dog." India was indeed an exile to her. Those were not the days in which powers of organization like those of Lady Dufferin could have sway: the wife of the Governor-General was a mere figurehead, and led a life of complete isolation and of trying emptiness. This to Lady Canning was peculiarly galling, as may be gathered from scattered remarks in her letters.

The one pleasure of her life in India was the improvement of the gardens at Barrackpore, the country-house of the Governor-General, within a drive of Calcutta. Here she made terraces, planted shrubs, opened out views, and constructed a broad walk along the bank above the Ganges. She writes with delight of the banyan-tree under which she could sit, and of her double hedge—one side of poinsettia like a scarlet wall, the other of dark blue ipomæa. She began careful drawings of the beautiful flowers and shrubs, hundreds of which drawings are still preserved.

Serious difficulties had occurred in Oude before Lord Dalhousie was relieved by Lord Canning, and in 1857 the Indian mutiny broke out, almost unexpectedly. None of the authorities at first realized its extent, or the vast difficulties presented by any attempt to suppress it. It was a period of unexampled trial, danger, and responsibility for the Governor-General. During that terrible time Lady Canning never left her husband, bearing the trying heat of Calcutta, the monotony of the same ride or drive every day, the absence of all companionship, the constant arrival of bad or anxious news, the sad deaths of general after general sent to the front, and supporting Lord Canning through a period of strain the extent of which has never yet been fully grasped. Lord Canning could not even enjoy the refreshment of a drive to Barrackpore, for he dared not leave his post for an hour. Lady Canning wrote that he had hardly time for any rest or exercise, for "literally very few hours pass that there is not some matter of life and death to be decided." She continued her series of beautiful drawings of flowers from nature, finding that the occupation soothed her, for "the hands could go on and keep the head from working."

Neither Lord nor Lady Canning had the least apprehension of personal danger, although, after the European body-guard was established in Government House at night, Lady Canning acknowledged that it was right. The misrepresentations in the newspapers greatly troubled Lady Canning. In her letters home she once more contradicts the story of the greased cartridges said to have been forced upon the native troops in order, by depriving them of caste, to compel their conversion to Christianity. She absolutely contradicts the reports of mutilation of European ladies during the mutiny. Many indeed were killed, but without torture or delay. But Lady Canning was especially distressed by the spirit of revenge and the bloodthirsty feeling of Europeans in India. She gloried in the name of Clemency Canning, given to Lord Canning first as a nickname of contempt and reproach, but afterwards fully recognized as his best title of honor. She wrote home:

"It would charm the English-Indian public to hang and blow from guns any number of people, and I believe Canning is terribly unpopular because he is *just* and firm too. There is a positive thirst for blood: a spirit of revenge which is dreadful. I always say, 'Let us be severe and punish, but not unjustly, and, above all, let us be unlike these monsters, and not copy them.' But the things people say they would like to do are quite as bad as the acts of the Nana." "The burthen of all abuse in newspapers is always the same—leniency to natives! And that means an accusation for which

they consider that recall in irons would be a faint punishment."

Lady Canning considered that the cry for vengeance in the English papers was nothing to the savage tone in Calcutta. "People here," she writes, "would like every Sepoy to be hanged at least—whether for his deeds or his thoughts. If one mildly observes that the men at Barrackpore, who have never been out of our sight, did not share in the massacres five or six hundred miles off, people say, Oh, but in their hearts they approved and would like to do the same by us." Lady Canning busied herself with preparations for the numbers of destitute widows and children who came down to Calcutta, most of whom were absolutely in rags and without shoes. After the relief of Lucknow a procession four miles in length was sent off, entirely composed of wounded officers, ladies, and children. Lady Canning gave up her own clothes to these ladies, and procured supplies of necessaries for them from her friends in England. It was her wish to have the marble figure of the Angel of the Resurrection holding the martyr's palm placed over the well at Cawnpore into which the Nana had thrown above two hundred English ladies and children.

When it was seen to be necessary that Lord Canning should remain in India for an additional year, Lady Canning, though writing of the bitter disappointment it was to give up counting the months till she should be at home, added that she would not grumble, as it was only fair that the heavy task of putting so much into working order should be done by an experienced Governor-General instead of a new one. Lord Clyde's message to her was that he felt Lord Canning would choose "to complete his bit of history." Lady Canning rejoiced in her husband's appointment as first Viceroy of India, as showing that his great services were at length appreciated, and she had, as Sir Bartle Frere wrote, "the unalloyed happiness of seeing justice gradually done to Lord Canning by his countrymen, while the natives look on him as their truest friend and benefactor." She delighted in his determination not to remain in India one day after the six years of exile were completed; and in her last letters she wrote, "I can think of nothing but the joy of getting home. . . . The hard trial of India is almost over." In August, 1861, Sir Hugh Rose, afterwards Lord Strathnairn, was invested with the order of the Star of India, and on that occasion Lady Canning, cheered by the thought of her return home, seemed to regain much of the "beauté merveilleuse" for which she had been celebrated. Those who saw her in her white dress and diamond coronet, with a spray of real ivy twisted in her beautiful hair, little thought that on that evening she was seen in public for the last time. A month later Lady Canning paid her long-wished-for visit to Darjeeling, taking advantage of Lord Canning's absence at Allahabad, where he invested with the Star of India the Begum of Bhopal, of whom he said: "She is not entitled to it by beauty; but for pluck, loyalty, and cleverness, she is a ruler in a thousand." Lady Canning thoroughly enjoyed Darjeeling, and "the wonderful view in which you see at a glance 27,000 feet out of a mountain 28,000 feet high." On her journey back she stopped to sketch in a marshy plain, and arrived at Calcutta on the 8th of November suffering from jungle-fever. She wrote one letter home, in which she spoke of Lord Canning's expected return as her best restorative. When he arrived on the 10th, she exerted herself to show him her Darjeeling sketches, but she never rallied, though she could always be aroused by his voice and would smile at him till extreme weakness ended in unconsciousness. On the 18th of November Lady Canning died in her husband's arms, spared, as her sister wrote, "from pain and from the agony of feeling what this news would cost us all." In the early morning of November 19 Lady Canning was buried in a spot chosen by Lord Canning in the private garden at Barrackpore, "close to the Ganges, shaded by great trees and the flowering shrubs she was so fond of, and looking upon the beautiful reach of the river she so often drew, and upon many of her own alterations and improvements."

Lord Canning never recovered from his great sorrow. On the first of March, 1862, that day so ardently wished for by Lady Canning, he left India, but he returned only to die. He could not bear to speak of his loss, and he never smiled. But when, shortly before the end of his illness, his sister said, "You are going to Char," his "whole countenance brightened up." Lord Canning was only forty-nine at the time of his death, Lady Canning, whom he survived seven months, only forty-five. It may truly be said that both laid down their lives in the service of their country.

DIPLOMATICS.

Manuel de Diplomatique: Diplomes et Chartes. Chronologie technique, Éléments critiques et Parties constitutives de la Teneur des Chartes. Les Chancelleries. Les Actes privés. Par A. Giry. 8vo, pp. xvi., 944. Paris: Hachette & Cie. 1894.

In the flood of sciolistic books of which the press is so prolific, it affords the critic no little satisfaction to meet with one like the present which is the outcome of abundant and accurate knowledge and of long and patient labor. Although it has the aspect of being intended only for the comparatively limited class of investigators who have to deal with charters and other original documents, such a work is indispensable to all students of history who seek for knowledge at its sources. It is a reproach to the English historical school that it has not yet fairly naturalized in the language the comprehensive term diplomatics, which may be found, it is true, in the dictionaries, but is still an exotic, unfamiliar to the vernacular, though for a couple of centuries it has been in common use among Continental scholars. No one who seeks to thread his way among chronicles and records but requires to have within reach some work of this kind with which to fix a date, to determine the accuracy of a narrative, to weigh the comparative probabilities of conflicting statements, or to test the genuineness of a document.

The questions which are thus continually arising are of the most varied character, and their solution involves the application of tests, many of them purely technical and all of them to be gathered only by patient scholarship from a vast variety of sources in which they lie hidden. Successive generations of scholars have labored at their accumulation since the time of Du Cange and the Benedictines of St. Maur. A glance at the table of contents of the nine hundred pages of this portly volume will show how wide a range of knowledge is required for the task—technical chronology, numismatics, palæography, sphragistics, philology, the nomenclature of individuals and of officials, the routine of the chanceries of the different nations, and the legal formalities customary at various times and places. Of these chronology alone occupies more than three hundred pages of closely digested matter. Few things are more puzzling to the novice than the variations in the computation of the new year, the changes in the calendar, the habit of dating by church festivals, fixed and movable, and saints' days, and the regnal years of obscure potentates and prelates; and even the expert continually requires tables and calendars for reference. It was not without reason that the Benedictines entitled their huge digest of history 'L'Art de vérifier les dates,' for the verification of dates often necessitates the most minute historical knowledge.

If the ability to determine the exact significance of genuine documents is thus of prime importance, none the less so is the capacity to discriminate between the genuine and the spurious. The forger has been busy in all ages, and the evidences of his industry are to be found in nearly all archives and cartularies. The popes, for instance, were constantly fulminating the direst threats against the manufacture and falsification of papal letters, and were as constantly unable to suppress the factories of such documents which flourished in Rome and other cities. There seems to have been nowhere the slightest hesitation in procuring and exploiting such fraudulent papers; and if they occur to the student most frequently among the muniments of abbeys and bishoprics, this was probably because the clergy were more versed than the laity in such mysteries, and were more careful in the preservation of their archives. M. Giry, indeed, tells us that a list of those who resorted to such devices would include all the ancient abbeys, but the secular clergy and the laity were equally eager thus to substantiate claims well or ill founded. The concluding chapters of his volume, in which he gives a rapid sketch of some of the more notable developments of this industry, are full of interest, although, somewhat strangely, he omits all reference to one of the most remarkable of all, the 'Plomos del Sacro Monte' and the 'Cronicones,' originating at the close of the sixteenth century, and, after condemnation by the Holy See, revived in the second half of the eighteenth by a factory of forged documents in Granada, which extended its operations until it furnished to all purchasers fraudulent wills, letters patent, titles of nobility, etc., etc.

To churches and abbeys forged charters were useful in establishing claims to lands and feudal rights and to immunities and privileges of every kind. In the case of laymen they might minister simply to the gratification of vanity in proving antiquity of lineage, or to more substantial pretensions of succession to inheritances and even to kingdoms. One famous in diplomatic annals is that by which the descendants of a certain Eudes le Maire claimed that in the eleventh century he performed a pilgrimage to Jerusalem, in vicarious performance of a rash vow made by Philippe I. of France, and was rewarded by an exemption from imposts for his posterity in both the male and female lines. In 1336 they succeeded in obtaining from the royal chancery a confirmation of the pretended grant; the race naturally multiplied all over France, for its daughters were most desirable matches, until there were thousands who in virtue of the privilege enjoyed immunity from all public burdens, and it was not until 1752 that it was definitely pronounced fraudulent. More generally known are the exploits of François de Rostres, Archdeacon of Toul, who supported the claims of the Guises to the crown of France by interpolations in their genealogy

showing their descent from the Carolingians. Father André de Saint-Nicholas, Carmelite prior of Moulins, was a more accomplished forger, who produced charters showing the Carolingian descent of the house of Bourbon—charters which, although condemned as forgeries by Mabillon and Baluze, have been accepted and used by the authors of the 'Art de vérifier les dates,' the 'Gallia Christiana,' and the 'Recueil des historiens de la France.' Even Mabillon and Ruinart were deceived by a still more skilful fabricator, Jean-Pierre de Bar, who furnished Baluze with documents for his 'Histoire généalogique de la maison d'Auvergne,' showing that the Dukes of Bouillon were descended from the ancient Dukes of Guienne, and were thus on a level with the Bourbons. Baluze was more than suspected of complicity in the fraud, and suffered disgrace in consequence. Still more insidious is the document known as the 'Charte d'Alaon,' manufactured to support the pretensions of the Spanish Hapsburgs to the throne of France by proving the descent of the Kings of Aragon from the ancient kings and dukes of Aquitaine. This ingenious fraud, which purports to be a confirmation by Charles the Bold, in 845, of gifts to the monastery of Alaon in Urgel, with nine confirmations at various times up to 1041, has furnished a crowd of fictitious names and dates and facts to French history, where some of them still remain.

These few examples will show the exceeding caution with which the historian must scrutinize the documents before him. The difficulty increases ten-fold when frauds have been accepted by writers of authority and have passed into current books of reference, for then even the most carefully conscientious may be led astray. It is easy thus to understand how indispensable to the student is such information as M. Giry has here gathered together and presented clearly and methodically. In the chronological portion we could have wished that he had not omitted the Hijra from the tables, and that in place of the calendars borrowed from the Benedictines he had given us a series of almanacs similar to those in Augustus De Morgan's 'Book of Almanacs,' issued in 1851, which we have found much more convenient for daily reference. The 'Glossary of Dates' and the list of saints' days are fuller and more satisfactory than any we have hitherto met with, yet such compilations can never be wholly complete. *Vendredi de Crois aourée*, as a synonym of Good Friday, might save an inquirer some trouble. The reader of Spanish Chronicles might like to be told that *Nuestra Señora de la O* or *de Alaon* is the same as *Expectatio B. Mariæ*, December 18. Under St. Martin might be inserted *S. Martinus calidus* and *Saint-Martin bouillant* as synonymous with *St.-Martin d'été*. *Onze mille vierges* should find a place, with a reference to *Ursule* and *Virgines*. St. Peter Martyr, whose feast is April 29, is omitted. But these are trifling deficiencies which can readily be supplied in the future editions that must undoubtedly be called for of a work so convenient and so useful to all serious students of history.

BOOKS ABOUT THE STAGE.

Charles Lamb's Specimens of English Dramatic Poets who lived about the time of Shakespeare, including extracts from the Garrick Plays. Now first edited anew by Israel Gollancz, M.A. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan & Co. 2 vols.

Plays and Dramatic Essays. By Charles Lamb. With an Introduction by Rudolf Dircks. London: Walter Scott; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Theatrical 'World' for 1893. By William Archer. London: Walter Scott; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

Entre les Frises et la Rampe: Petites études de la vie théâtrale. Par Alphonse Daudet. Paris: Dentu; New York: F. W. Christern.

Écuyers et Ecuyères. Par le Baron de Vaux. Paris: J. Rothschild; New York: F. W. Christern.

HAS due meed of praise ever yet been paid to Lamb for his rediscovery of Shakspere's contemporaries in the drama? A rediscovery his publication of 'Specimens of English Dramatic Poets' assuredly was, and it was Lamb who pointed out the path to be followed by Gifford and Dyce, by Mr. Bullen and the other editors, on the one hand, while on the other he made the way straight for Hazlitt and Whipple, for Lowell and Mr. Swinburne. And all these critics, with scarce an exception, have said ditto to Lamb in considering Shakspere's predecessors and contemporaries and successors primarily as poets. But to consider Marlowe and Ben Jonson, Beaumont and Fletcher, Massinger and Ford as poets only, as writers of beautiful verse fit to be quoted in a volume of extracts, is to take a very narrow view of the most glorious period of English literature. That Lamb did not take a broader view than this is obvious enough; indeed, he confesses it in a letter to Hone, saying, "Poetry is all I know." These volumes, which Mr. Gollancz has most admirably edited, are proof enough that Lamb did know poetry. But they are proof also, were any needed, that Lamb seemed not to care for the vital action which in a play should underlie the merely literary clothing. Lamb rarely picks out the really dramatic passages, the actable parts, the dialogues lending themselves to the highest histrionic treatment. In his hands, and in the hands of his followers, Hazlitt and Lowell and Mr. Swinburne, the dramatic value of the works of these poets of the stage has received only cursory consideration. Taine and the late Mr. Symonds are almost the only writers on this period of English literature who remember that Marlowe's "Faustus" and Massinger's "New Way to Pay Old Debts" and Webster's "Duchess of Malfy" were written primarily to be acted, and only secondarily to be read.

In the present volumes Mr. Gollancz reveals himself almost equal to Canon Ainger as a loving editor of Lamb. He has taken infinite trouble in incorporating the "Garrick Extracts" with the "Specimens," and in arranging them chronologically, as far as our present information will permit—for there is still an immense field of labor open to the future historian of the Elizabethan theatre. Mr. Gollancz has further corrected erroneous statements as to the authorship of the plays from which Lamb quoted, besides amending the text, in which there were countless faults. The introduction is a model of knowledge and sympathy and tact, and the two volumes exhibit throughout a welcome union of exact scholarship with an appreciation of what is best in literature.

Not worthy of comparison with Mr. Gollancz's masterly editing is the volume of selections edited by Mr. Rudolf Dircks, in the preparation of which he seems to have followed very closely a collection of 'Charles Lamb's Dramatic Essays' which an American author published two or three years ago; especially does Mr. Dircks's preface, both in what it contains and in what it omits, resemble the introductory essay of the American editor. Mr. Dircks's differs from the American collection chiefly in that it includes also Lamb's four plays. It contains the notes on the Elizabethan dramatists; and it omits the minor dramatic criticisms which the diligence of Lamb's later editors has disinterred.

Almost the only student of the acted drama who has called attention to Lamb's attitude toward the dramatic poets he loved is Mr. William Archer, who had a paper on "Webster, Lamb, and Shakspere" in the *New Review* of January, 1893, elicited by a special performance of the "Duchess of Malfy." We regret to find that this paper is not included in the volume of current theatrical criticism which Mr. Archer has now sent forth, and which we hope will be the first of an annual series. That the modern stage is awakening has long been evident to careful observers. There are men in England and in Germany (as well as in France and Scandinavia) who have something to say in the theatre, and who know how to say it as it must be said in the theatre. Although even now the material on which the dramatic critic must work is not as abundant in London as in Paris, it is far more so than it was a score of years ago, immensely more than it was in Lamb's day, for example. In Paris M. Sarcey still refuses to reprint his weekly articles in the *Temps*, but M. Jules Lemaitre reprints his, and so do men of less importance—the late Auguste Vitu, for example. Mr. Archer is easily the equal of M. Lemaitre as a critic of the acted drama; if he lacks a little of the brilliancy of the Frenchman, he has a keener insight into the conditions of the theatre, and a more cosmopolitan outlook. Mr. Archer is indeed the best dramatic critic of Great Britain since George Henry Lewes, and he is superior to Lewes in his devotion to the drama, which was only one of Lewes's many interests in life. Especially worthy of study is Mr. Archer's analysis of "The Second Mrs. Tanqueray," and especially notable is his overwhelming retort to the doubtfully honest accusation that Mr. Pinero had plagiarized from Herr Lindau. In a letter of pleasant reminiscence joined with a discussion of the obvious improvement of the British drama of late years, Mr. Archer inscribes his book to Mr. Robert W. Lowe, the editor of Cibber's 'Apology' and of Doran's 'Annals.'

Into a volume of the pretty "Petite Collection Guillaume," M. Alphonse Daudet has gathered half a score of old newspaper articles of his, more or less connected with the theatre. They are slight and graceful and empty; the little book can be read in half an hour, and it will be forgotten in one-quarter of an hour. Two of the articles are reviews, one of M. Legouvé's 'Soixante ans de Souvenirs,' and the other of Fanny Kemble's 'Records of a Girlhood.' Perhaps the best of all is the first essay, flimsy as it is, "Le Comédien travaille," in which the method of study of leading French actors is considered.

Just how fairly a volume about circus riders may be called a book about the stage, need not be discussed here and now. The Baron de Vaux's 'Ecuyers et Écuyères' is a higgledy-piggledy, helter-skelter conglomeration. There is a "preface" by M. Henri Meilhac, which is not a preface at all, but a delightfully clever letter of a would be bare-back rider's mother, with the response of the ex-rider to whom it is addressed. There is an "introduction" by M.

Victor Franconi, surviving representative of the famous circus family, and a "study" of scientific riding by M. Maxime Gaussen. Then in the book itself are biographies by the Baron of some fifty celebrities of the circus, male and female, chiefly the latter, with accounts of various circuses in France and elsewhere, chiefly the former. Scattered through the text are about two hundred and fifty illustrations, portraits of modern riders, facsimiles of old engravings, sketches of difficult feats. The point of view is all but exclusively Parisian; one chapter does contain outline portraits of Barnum and Renz and Hengler. Yet the book will be precious to the future historian of the circus, who shall some day set before a waiting world the connected history of horsemanship and of the feats which delighted our ancestors as they delight us.

Historic Green Bay. 1634–1840. By Ella Hoes Neville, Sarah Greene Martin, and Deborah Beaumont Martin. Green Bay, Wis.: Published by the Authors. 1893.

"On the map drawn by Hennepin, dedicated by him to William III. of England, and published in 1697, the name Green Bay first appears. In tolerably correct form the Baye des Puans is traced, while the whole of the peninsula extending from the mouth of Fox River to Porte de Mort [*sic* for Butte des Mortes] is included under the general name of Baye Verte."

Such is the language of our authors (p. 178). The truth is, that on the map above mentioned neither of the names Green Bay and Baye Verte is to be found at all. The legend there is simply *Baye des Puans*. Nor yet is the name Green Bay discoverable on any other map till more than three-score years afterward. The earliest map known to us where it occurs is Carver's, published in 1778. The name Baye Verte appears, if at all, at a still later period. It is mentioned in this history as used by Judge Reaume, and we have traced it in various documents some years before his appointment, which was not till 1803. It was evidently a translation from the English Green Bay, and, therefore, later than that name. Baye Verte appears in Brodhead's 'New York Colonial History' (vii., p. 658) as early as 1764. But *that* Baye Verte is in Nova Scotia, though cited by some who have just enough of learning to misquote, as in Wisconsin.

The first writer who speaks of the name Green Bay seems to be Carver, who was there in 1766, and says: "Sept. 18, arrived at Ft. La Bay on a bay in Lake Michigan termed by the French the Bay of Puants, but which since the English have possession [1761] is called by them the Green Bay." He adds that they so called it because, when a voyager left Mackinaw before vegetation started, he would find all things already *green* at the Bay. It will be noticed that Carver calls the settlement on the bay Ft. La Bay, and not Green Bay. One of the earliest mentions of the town by the latter name was in 1804, when, according to Morse's Gazetteer, "Green Bay on Lake Michigan contains 50 souls."

We doubt whether the name Langlade should have the prefix De. It has none in his commission from the King, which our authors give in facsimile (p. 106). It is never used by Parkman. It is wanting in letters from Gov. Carleton, etc. Hence it has a pretentious look, being a *signe de noblesse*. Ticonderoga is said to stand at the *head* of Lake George (p. 104), the French dauphin to have died in the *tower* (p. 224), and reference is made to a hitherto unknown work of Parkman, 'A Half-Century of Dishonor' (p. 85). But the most surprising statement is, that "the savage horde came upon Braddock's army when encamped for dinner—that the camp was at once placed in an attitude of defence," etc., etc. (p. 100). Contrast this with a sentence in Parkman: "The advance had just passed a ravine, and the main column was on the point of entering it, when the savages yelled the war-whoop," etc. ('Wolfe and Montcalm,' i., 214).

Enough of fault-finding. 'Historic Green Bay' is an excellent book well indexed. The oldest real town in Wisconsin has such a story as no other town in the State can boast, and her daughters have told the story well. The peccadilloes to which allusion has been made are, as Horace would say, only freckles on a fair face. Nor would we be at pains to correct them did we not view the volume as worthy of more than one edition, and sure to have it. Life in Green Bay has been many-colored. The first pioneer adventured thither in quest of Chinese celestials. The next comer raised aboriginal aspirations to a celestial empire not of earth. The next brought firewater and firearms, taking furs more needed elsewhere. The town was a thoroughfare, the gate of the far South and the far West, whether men were traders, explorers, or warriors. Hence it was in touch with Jeff Davis, President Taylor, John Jacob Astor, and even a lost Bourbon prince visited there by Prince de Joinville (p. 225). In the silver ostensorium presented to the mission there in 1686 and still in perfect preservation, being now owned and treasured by the State Historical Society, it has a relic far older than anything extant west of the Alleghanies, and seldom surpassed anywhere in point of religious interest. Its art is worthy of its material, and its inscription more precious than either. In all these aspects and many others—especially as the oldest garrison town in the commonwealth—the authors have described their unique home. They have written a book which few can lay down till the last page has been read. That page sets forth to the life a maple-sugar camp—a "sugaring-off." If some things by the way have seemed bitter, here is a finale that will leave a sweet taste in all mouths.

An Introduction to the Study of Political Economy. By Luigi Cossa, Professor in the Royal University of Pavia. Translated by Louis Dyer, M.A., Balliol College. Macmillan. 1893. Pp. x, 587.

Students of political economy who design to devote themselves to a prolonged and comprehensive study of the subject have been placed under a great obligation to Prof. Dyer, in virtue of his painstaking translation of Prof. Cossa's unique work. Following the hint contained in a brief notice of the Italian original in No. 1447 of the *Nation*, the translator has added a subject-index, thereby very greatly enhancing the value of the work. For the benefit of those who think of buying the 'Introduction,' it seems proper to point out that its title is hardly calculated to convey a just idea of its scope and purpose. One naturally thinks of an "introduction" to a subject as a book for beginners, but nothing, in our judgment, could be less desirable than for a person innocent of political economy to start in with reading Cossa. The book is divided into two parts, a "Theoretical Part" of about one hundred pages, and an "Historical Part" of about four hundred and forty pages. The theoretical part discusses the scope and method of political economy, stating, in general with clearness, both the author's own views and the views of the most prominent writers on this head, and making running commentaries on the latter. Even this part, then, is not a systematic exposition of the logical and methodological aspect of political economy, expounded and illustrated for the benefit of beginners, but is largely historical and critical. As to the historical part, the mass of literature discussed in it is so enormous that analyses of even the most important works and characterizations of even the most important theories are necessarily too condensed to be illuminating to students who are not equipped in advance with a sound knowledge of the chief theories of the science.

Not a word of this is said, however, by way of depreciation; on the contrary, the book furnishes far more than any one could expect from its modest title: it really constitutes an extraordinarily comprehensive and in the main very acute critical and historical survey of political economy. The value of such a survey to the professed student of economics, both as a book to be read and as a book to be referred to, is evident. To be able to obtain, in the compass of a single volume, some characterization of the work of any one of the 2,000 writers on economics cited is in itself no small help. Fortunately, too, the enormous learning of the author is coupled with a shrewdness and common sense which frequently manifest themselves in more or less epigrammatic judgments calculated to exercise a very salutary influence upon the young economist. Thus, throughout the work, there abound expressions of the author's opinion that the departures from classical theories are, as a rule, rather matter of form than of substance. *E. g.*, on p. 65: "Mediocrity, conscious that it can make no useful discovery, will always make what noise it can over mere questions of form." Again, on p. 395, after bestowing the very highest praise upon Charles Gide, Cossa goes on to say that he is really "far nearer the company of the classical school than he would readily believe." Some of our author's remarks on the historical school may likewise be instanced; as where he speaks (p. 85) of their proposing "to shape economic legislation for to-day on an imperfect knowledge of yesterday's facts"; or where he says (p. 412) that, "in his most excellent monographs on value, on transportation, and in his masterpiece on money and credit, Knies seems to have forgotten all about his historical method." Finally, we may cite a passage (p. 361) in which Cossa defends the classical economists against certain German critics:

> "Where, then, are we to find the lineaments conventionally drawn in so many pictures of the Manchester School, drawn especially by our German fellow-workers? There is nothing of all this in Mill, nothing in Cairnes, and nothing whatever in Marshall; on what, then, is the picture based? Is it not drawn from the inner consciousness of those who must have something which will be easy to demolish by argument?"

It must not be inferred from these examples (to which many equally striking ones might be added) of rather sharp criticism of modern "schools," that Cossa is a champion of the classical political economy pure and simple. On the contrary, he finds much to praise in the work that has been done in almost every direction in the past quarter of a century. Himself a pupil and admirer of Roscher, he has the greatest sympathy with historical research as applied to economics; and as to other directions which economic investigation has taken, both in our own time and in preceding generations, he has, in our judgment, only too catho-

lic an appreciation of the merit of all well-meant work. All the more weighty, then, is his insistence on the cardinal and permanent importance of the work of the great English economists.

But, after all, the usefulness of the book resides less in the author's expressions of opinion than in the comprehensive survey he gives us of the history of the science. To those familiar only with its development since the last quarter of the eighteenth century, its earlier history as sketched by Cossa will be full of interest. Thus, to be told that the first clear recognition of the connection between increase of population and improvement in the yield of the soil is contained in a work by Bolero, published at Rome in 1588, or that Ricci (1787) was the first to base upon the principle of population scientific maxims of almsgiving, or that Copernicus wrote, about 1526, upon the invitation of King Sigismund of Poland, a pamphlet which "explains clearly the functions of money," condemns debasement and seigniorage, and anticipates "Gresham's Law"—information like this will be equally new and interesting to most readers. Still, so far as the prescientific history of political economy is concerned, the strongest impression that will be produced on the thoughtful reader must be the realization of the wilderness of drivel, of obscure and groundless economic controversy, from which the world has been saved since the time of Adam Smith; for, murky as are some of the controversies of to-day, they are as light itself in comparison with the misty disputes of a hundred and fifty or two hundred years ago.

In Memoriam John Larkin Lincoln. 1817–1891. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1894.

THE task of criticising a book published by a son in commemoration of a father is always ungracious; but it is hard to give praise to the memorials of Prof. John Larkin Lincoln put together by Mr. W. E. Lincoln. The book is large and showy, and includes two portraits of Prof. Lincoln, taken so nearly at the same age that one seems superfluous; but its contents are singularly disappointing. The biographical matter includes a memorial address by Prof. George P. Fisher; autobiographical notes, diaries, and letters, comprising detached passages of early and middle life; and, later on, an appendix, with various personal anecdotes and reminiscences of friends. There is no continuous and authoritative life, unless a portion of the copious index may be called so, in which, under Prof. Lincoln's name, the principal events of his career are noted, including some not otherwise mentioned, notably his marriage; the names of his wife and children are not given, nor is any special mention made of them anywhere. Even of this meagre allowance of biography much is occupied by details of foreign travels, mostly over beaten tracks and affording little that is novel, while the mass of college anecdotes is like any other such mass—stories which doubtless provoked hearty laughs when told for the twentieth time at a commencement dinner, but few of which show any individuality. The best parts of the biography, if it may be so called, are the "Notes of Life," the Diary at Columbian College, and the Reminiscences of Lincoln's instructors in Germany.

The bulk of the volume consists of a dozen or more essays or lectures by Prof. Lincoln, a few of a biographical, but mostly of a literary and philosophical character. The subjects are chiefly taken from classical literature, as might be expected from a Latin professor. They all show the same characteristics—thorough and extensive reading, keen appreciation of outward form and literary relations, considerable power in bringing the substance of the subject before those to whom it is not much more than a name; but with no very great penetration into the deeper problems of such authors as Goethe, Lucretius, Plato, and Tacitus. The writer is throughout conservative, both in the old and legitimate, as well as in the new, use of the word; he is content with old lines of thought and expression, and thoroughly dislikes anything adventurous. Perhaps the best piece of criticism in these essays—and, after all, Freeman did the same thing much better—is an acute exposure of Mr. Gladstone's wild deduction of Homer's Olympian theology from the fragments of Hebrew tradition. But the essays as a whole show little more than the skill of the old-fashioned teacher, who gives his pupils a fair but not exciting account of what the world's geniuses have done, to the end that they may rejoice and be thankful that they themselves are not among them. If Prof. Lincoln's hearers must be informed of inflammatory branches of learning, it was expedient to keep the fuel of their minds seasonably damp.

At Brown University, confined by its constitution within certain recognized lines of thought, Lincoln's restrained learning was thoroughly acceptable. He was admired, respected, and loved. One contributor to the anecdotes in this volume can speak with fervor of his taste and skill in translation, whereas the versions in this essay are notably dry and conventional. He was exactly the man for the place, where a freer and profounder scholarship would have been distrusted and disliked. His grateful pupils subscribed for the portrait by Herkomer, of which a photograph appears in this volume, and for a memorial fund, which will hand on his memory, we fear, much more lastingly than this filial tribute. The author, indeed, deprecates harsh criticism by a preface intimating that he has done his best; especially he regrets that, not possessing his father's fund of learning, he has not felt sure of various classical phrases and names. From some misprints, he tells us, he was saved by the intervention of a more scholarly friend. It is a pity that he overlooked *Herodotus* for *Heraclitus*, on page 434.

Les Origines de l'Ancienne France. Par Jacques Flach. X. et XI. siècles. II. Les Origines Communales; La Feodalité et la Chevalerie. Paris. 1893.

ONE lays down the second volume of Prof. Flach's great work with a renewed feeling of gratitude to the author, but also with a sense of disappointment which it is impossible to avoid. This is not because the volume does not continue to exhibit the merits which we noted in the first. There is the same exhaustive study of the field; the same full and systematic presentation of the evidence; the same abundance of new and suggestive interpretation. But the new views of the author upon some important points are so revolutionary and so diametrically opposed to the first appearance of the evidence that the feeling which they excite on the first reading is one of distrust and hostile criticism, rather than of confidence that here, at last, we may be getting hold of a thread which will lead us through the tangled evidence to correct conclusions. It is impossible also to avoid the impression that M. Flach is admitting to some extent into this volume that metaphysical and theoretical interpretation of history which was so great a temptation to earlier French historians, but from which the younger school is so remarkably free; nor can we entirely shake off the suspicion that there is, in one particular at least, a less cautious and critical treatment of the evidence than we have been accustomed to expect from him. The reasons for these doubts will be indicated as the plan of the work is presented.

The first volume, issued in 1886, contained M. Flach's description of the disorganization of society in consequence of the decline of the Roman state and of the German invasions—a result to be seen in incomplete and incompetent states, and finally in the general confusion of the age when the Carolingian empire fell to pieces. This period contained the beginnings of later institutions in the temporary expedients adopted to avoid the worst evils of the times, as in the case of the feudal system, but its essential characteristics were insecurity and anarchy. No better picture of the political disorder of those days has ever been made than that in the first volume of this work. With the second volume, the third book in his plan, the author begins the study of the effort of society to reconstruct itself, to find in the débris of earlier institutions and in the new expedients of the preceding age the material out of which a new organization could be constructed as a starting-point of general order and security. In other words, this volume begins the attempt to depict the formation of the more important institutions of the later middle ages as they arose out of the political chaos of the tenth century under the pressure of necessity—the necessity for some sort of orderly government. This brief statement of the general plan is enough to show the great importance of this study by a scholar of such proved insight and usually of such careful inductive methods as M. Flach. It is, notwithstanding the qualifications above expressed, one of the most remarkable books of this generation, and one which no student of mediæval institutions can afford to neglect.

The first steps towards the reorganization of society the author finds in various forms of local or private organization, formed to meet local or individual needs, but gradually taking on a public character. These are the rural commune, the urban commune, and the feudal system. In studying the origin of the rural commune M. Flach attacks with new arguments the supposition of Fustel de Coulanges that the village community did not exist among the Franks—a supposition already abundantly disproved by other investigators. It is interesting to notice that from his examination of the early evidence he arrives at a conclusion strikingly like that reached by Prof. Earle and stated in the Introduction to his 'Land Charters,' viz., that the *villa* and the community constitutions existed together. There is no indication of any knowledge of Mr. Earle's suggestion, and the evidence studied is entirely different, so that the similar conclusion is reached by an independent investigation. This theory in its general features—some points of detail being still in need of elaboration—is undoubtedly the most satisfactory yet proposed. In the opening chapters on the urban commune the condition of the cities during the earlier middle ages—in the transition period between the Roman municipalities and the communes proper—is examined, and a clear idea is given of the divided character of authority and of the great diversity of right and privilege in the cities at the beginning of the communal movement. These are both mat-

ters of great importance in relation to the later history of the cities, but they are usually omitted from the account.

Up to this point this volume is entirely in line with the first, and we can only be grateful to the author for the fresh treatment and the new material. It is when he begins to consider the origin of the communal constitution that serious doubts first arise, and they continue with each new subject to the end of the volume. He attacks, indeed, the reigning German theory of the development of municipal institutions out of market privileges with evidence that must be considered, at least for France; but he regards the special communal constitution as an outgrowth from a single one of the private corporations—merchant or trade guilds—which obtains a controlling influence in the city and so becomes a public corporation. This is not the old theory of the development of municipal institutions out of the guilds advocated by Wilda and his followers. It hardly seems so probable as that at first sight; and the essential difficulty, how the single guild obtains control and is transformed into a public corporation, is not clearly overcome. The history of the early stages of feudalism was one of the most valuable parts of the first volume. The later history of that institution in this volume contains the author's most revolutionary and most doubtful theory. He supposes that from the tenth to the thirteenth century the personal element, the vassal relation, remained the leading feature of the feudal system, as it had been in the preceding age, and that only later the land element, the fief, became important. This point M. Flach has certainly not proved, and his treatment of the evidence on the subject cannot be called impartial. One can hardly avoid the conclusion that he has been led, unconsciously in all probability, to this special theory regarding feudalism by the influence of his fundamental theory, that the private, and so later the public, organizations of this period are based upon the family, that they are an application of the family idea to organizations beginning in a time of otherwise entire disorganization. This theory seems to have influenced also his study of the commune, and it is certainly open to the charge of being metaphysical and à priori rather than the result of careful induction. The author considers very briefly a fourth form of organization, chivalry, and reserves for later treatment the King and the Church.

This volume is remarkable, like the first, for its full quotation of the sources, many of them never before printed. It brings into frequent use also a new body of evidence, the *chansons de geste*. These may certainly give us more light than they have hitherto been made to yield, if used with care, but it is open to question whether M. Flach has not in some cases taken as a trustworthy statement of a fact of the tenth century something which is in reality only the twelfth-century poet's idea of what the fact was or what it ought to have been.

It may be remarked in closing that the French are as great sinners as the Americans and English in the matter of wood paper—a fact which bids fair, in a couple of centuries, or even less, to make the present-day documents of these nations as rare as those of the tenth century, and their scholarship as difficult to prove.

Der Cicerone. Von Jacob Burckhardt. Sechste Auflage, bearbeitet von W. Bode. Leipzig: E. A. Seeman. 1893.

The 'Cicerone' appears this time in four volumes, the fourth containing nothing but the well-planned index of places. The 'Cicerone' is well known as the best companion the student can find for a leisure hour in Italy. As a connected account of Italian art, it is lucid, tactful, and suggestive; as criticism of individual artists or single works of art, it is appreciative, interpretative, and rarely fails to find "le mot juste." Burckhardt, as might be expected from the author of the 'Civilization of the Renaissance,' criticises without reference to the Catechism, and without pretence of being able to say precisely what colors an artist had on his palette while painting a given picture. His purpose is to connect the art of the Renaissance with the thought and feeling of the time, to show to what an extent the art is the product and expression of the civilization.

The merits of the 'Cicerone' were recognized long ago, and the section on painting was translated into English by Mrs. Arthur Hugh Clough. More recently a complete French translation has appeared. But many important discoveries have been made since the first appearance of the 'Cicerone,' and later editions have been edited by Dr. W. Bode, who has attempted to bring the work up to date. Unfortunately he has turned the sections on sculpture and painting into a happy hunting-ground for theories and attributions which have but slight chance of gaining acceptance. The volume on painting in the new edition has been considerably improved by the acceptance of many of Morelli's discoveries, but Dr. Bode has rarely taken the trouble to acknowledge his debt to Morelli, while he goes out of his way to let us know where he considers himself superior. Originality at any cost seems to be Dr. Bode's plan in editing, and this leads him in a work not intended for specialists interested in the controversy, but for the public, to turn around, now that all critics have agreed that the "Fornarina" of the Tribuna was painted by Sebastiano del Piombo, and ascribe this picture to Raphael.

Instances like this could be cited in great number, but a word must be said about the index, which the editor presents with a flourish of trumpets. Pretending to give it greater fulness, he has crammed it with a number of items snatched hastily from Crowe and Cavalcaselle, or from his own note-books, having no connection whatever with the text of the 'Cicerone.' In the Archbishop's Palace in Milan, for instance, there is no picture in the least resembling Lotto, and it would be hard to account for Dr. Bode's finding there a "Madonna and Two Saints" by this master, if we did not happen to know that Crowe and Cavalcaselle had mistaken a copy in this collection after a Previtale for a Lotto.

No notice seems to have been taken of the changes in location of works of art that have occurred since earlier editions, and the number of misdirections and mistakes is still great. The Niccolò Alunno of Deruta has now been in the Perugia gallery for many years. Most of the pictures of the Vicenza churches were placed in the communal gallery long ago. The student, it is true, is no longer directed to Massa Marittima instead of to Massa Fermana in pursuit of Crivelli, but the new index mixes up Castiglione Fiorentino near Arezzo with *Castel* Fiorentino, near Siena. This example, taken at random, must suffice, but very many others could easily be presented. The 'Cicerone' deserves much better editing than the director of the Berlin Gallery has been pleased to give it. A translation of the entire work into English, carefully revised in accordance with the present state of connoisseurship, and indexed properly, is an enterprise worth suggesting to an enlightened publisher.

Japan. By David Murray, Ph.D., LL.D. [Story of the Nations.] G. P. Putnam's Sons.

In appraising a new book on Japan—unless the author be a master of the language in both its archaic and modern forms—one has to look at the personality of the writer. If, to literary industry and skill in the arts of compilation, the author adds personal experiences that enable him in some degree to control and check his authorities, his work may be of peculiar value. In this instance the writer had good opportunities of studying the country and people, for he was during several years the honored and successful adviser of the Mikado's minister of education. There are here a firmness of touch and warmth of coloring which are lacking in the narratives of hasty tourists. There is especially that appreciation of perspective which is often exasperatingly absent from the sketches of those who give us "the real," or the æsthetic, or the religious or political Japan.

Holding closely to the idea of the *story*, Dr. Murray is unusually full in that part which deals with the times when clocks or almanacs were unknown in Japan. Not that he falls into the traps so nicely laid in the native literature, which is ridiculously full of the details of events alleged to have taken place a millennium before time was recorded, but which do so uphold the theocratic dynasty of the Mikados. On the contrary, being familiar with the work of Bramsen, Satow, Aston, and other puncturers of the bubbles of Queen Jingo, of Wani, the Korean teacher of the thousand-character classic, who in tradition made exposition of this document two centuries before it was composed, Dr. Murray refuses to find solid ground of history until the long-lived chiefs of the Yamato have had their day, and rulers of ordinary duration of life begin to reign. Yet, accepting the myths and legends as reflections of Japanese thought and representations in outline of history, he has selected with excellent taste and judgment the prettiest and most interesting portions of the narratives of the 'Kojiki' and other ancient compilations. In this respect Dr. Murray's book has peculiar value.

In telling the story of Japanese development during the middle ages, our author has the advantage which comes from utilization of the work of research done by the scholars who have filled that uniquely valuable treasury of the Transactions of the Asiatic Society of Japan. A good long chapter is devoted to Toyotomi Hidéyoshi. It may be that this man, a parvenu, was the greatest in Japanese history; and so it seems from Dr. Murray's story. Yet until the life of the unifier Iyéyasu is written with that fulness of research, in both Japanese and English, which, for obvious reasons, has been lavished on Hidéyoshi, we must continue to believe that Iyéyasu was Japan's greatest son. The Tokugawa régime, the episode of seventeenth-century Christianity, the story of feudalism and the advent of Commodore Perry, are all treated luminously and with proportion; but in writing of the restored empire the author's pen perceptibly warms to its work. With the makers of New Japan Dr. Murray wrought face to face.

Having a mathematical and chronological mind, he has given us a work exact in its notes of time. Hence, in the appendix, besides lists

of emperors and shōguns, we have the Japanese year, periods, and the laws of Shotoku Taishi, the lay-patron of Buddhism and promoter of education in the seventh century. In selecting illustrations, commendable care has been taken to avoid hackneyed material. There are several new pictures of decided interest, notably the portraits of Xavier, Perry, and the cabinet ministers in the seventies. As a rule, there is a creditable absence of slips of the pen and printer's mistakes. We note, however, the old spelling Saghalien, which is apt to put one syllable more than necessary in Saghalin; on p. 311, "Galowin," evidently a misprint for Golownin; and the repetition of the frontispiece picture of the great bell in Kiōto on p. 289. There are some statements which might have been more fully and clearly made had other interesting items been conjoined with those given. Yet the book, as a whole, reminds one rather of a well-turned casting for which there has been superabundance of metal, or of a gem from which much has been cut in making the facets, rather than of a work for which material has been lacking. Within the limits imposed by the series of which it is a part, this book stands as a good piece of honest workmanship, besides being thoroughly enjoyable.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Barlow, J. Bogland Studies. 2d ed., revised and enlarged. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Black, W. Stand Fast, Craig-Royston! Harpers.
Crockett, S. R. The Stickit Minister, and Some Common Men. Macmillan. $1.50.
Dartnell, G. E., and Goddard, Rev. E. H. A Glossary of Wiltshire Words. London: English Dialect Society; New York: Macmillan.
Elton, Oliver. The First Nine Books of the Danish History of Saxo Grammaticus. London: David Nutt.
Gosse, Edmund. The Letters of Thomas Lovell Beddoes. London; Mathews & Lane; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Howlett, E. Driving Lessons. R. H. Russell & Son.
Keltie, J. S. The Statesman's Year-Book for 1894. Macmillan. $3.
Kroeh, Prof. C. F. How to Think in German. Hoboken, N. J.: The Author.
Le Gallienne, Richard. English Poems. London: Mathews & Lane; Boston: Copeland & Day.
Leonard, Rev. W. A. The Witness of the American Church to Pure Christianity. James Pott & Co. $1.
Mellé, Miss Rosine. The Contemporary French Writers. Boston: Ginn & Co. 85 cents.
Norton, Prof. C. E. Orations and Addresses of George William Curtis. Vol. III. Harpers. $3.50.
Porto, Luigi da. Juliet and Romeo. Boston: Joseph Knight Co. $1.
Putnam, G. I. On the Offensive; An Army Story. Scribners. $1.25.
Schulenburg, A. C. Graf von der. Die Sprache der Zimshian-Indianer in Nordwest-America. Braunschweig: Richard Sattler; New York: G. E. Stechert. $15.
Springsteed, Anne F. The Expert Waitress. Harpers.
Stoddard, Rev. C. A. Beyond the Rockies. Scribners. $1.50.
Testa, T. G. del. L'Oro e l'Orpello. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 25 cents.
Thayer, Prof. J. B. Cases on Constitutional Law. Part I. Cambridge: C. W. Sever.
The *Critic*, July-December, 1893. The *Critic* Co.
The Gospel according to Peter: A Study. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Wilde, Oscar. Salomé. London: Mathews & Lane; Boston: Copeland & Day.
Williams, Dr. C. T. Aero-Therapeutics. Macmillan. $2.
Wilson, H. A. The Gelasian Sacramentary. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

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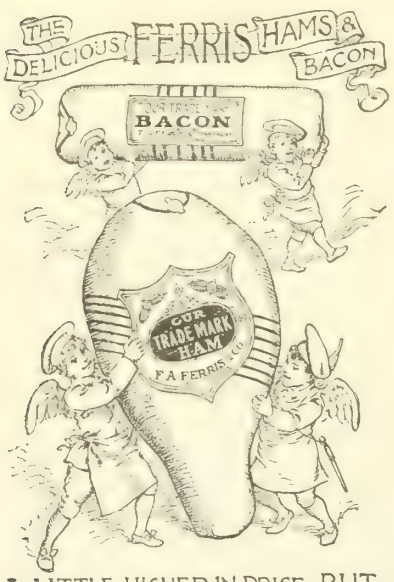

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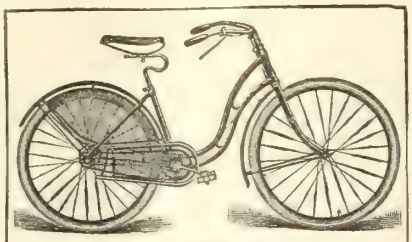

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 12, 1894.

The Week.

THE prompt passage by Congress of the bill to carry out the findings of the Paris arbitrators in regard to the protection of seals in Bering Sea, and the passage of a similar bill in the House of Commons, show, as Sir Richard Webster said, what a monument the arbitration was to "what could be done by fair argument toward settling dangerous international differences." Six years ago we had Mr. Phelps calling for a "resolute stand," and "earnestly recommending that the vessels that have been already seized be firmly held, and that measures be taken to capture and hold every one hereafter found concerned in it [sealing]." Four years ago we had Mr. Blaine rejecting Lord Salisbury's proposition to submit the questions in dispute to arbitration, and affirming that the United States would insist that their "rights within the Bering Sea and on the islands thereof" were "absolute." That meant that more English ships would be seized upon the high seas, and that meant war, as Lord Salisbury flatly told President Harrison it did; whereupon the latter concluded that he was in favor of arbitration after all. We may thank our stars he did, and when we see the absolute harmony of both parties and countries in agreeing now to do what Sir Julian Pauncefote vainly tried to get Mr. Blaine to do in 1890, we get some idea of how senseless the whole controversy was. The country never had any real interest in it, and never could be made to squeeze out a single tear over the sufferings of the gravid seals. Nor did it ever realize how near to a causeless and shocking war the Washington hot heads brought us in 1890, with their baseless contentions, so that it is not now in a position to appreciate properly the great victory for peaceful methods won by the Paris decision and the laws executory thereof now enacted.

What became of the dignity and deliberation of the Senate when this highly important Bering Sea bill was passed? It was introduced and ordered to a third reading on Monday, and passed without debate or division on Tuesday. Is not this dangerous haste for a revisory Senate? Could not Stewart have shown with ease that, if we had purchased more silver, we should not have purchased so many seal-skin sacques, and hence that the double standard is involved? If he had started in to do so, could he have been stopped? It begins to look as if it was less the rules of the Senate than the unruliness of the Senators that paralyzes Senatorial business. The Senate can pass a Bering Sea bill or a *Kearsarge*-rescue bill with lightning speed, but a tariff bill it must go on mulling for weary months.

The Treasury receipts are picking up. From internal revenue there was collected in March within $122 000 as much as in the same month a year ago. The income from customs continues to show a great falling off, but this is only what is to be expected and what must infallibly go on until the new tariff becomes operative. Then there will no doubt be a great rush of importations and a great swelling of the Treasury receipts. In anticipation of the passage of the McKinley law, importations increased at a tremendous rate, because that law put up the duties, and importers naturally wanted to stock up as fully as possible under the old rate of taxation. But the Wilson bill is to put duties down, and importers, just as naturally, are bringing in goods only from hand to mouth. All which shows that the interest of the Treasury, as well as every business interest, calls for the speediest possible passing of the tariff bill.

The increased internal-revenue receipts are a sure sign of reviving business. The best of it is that a similar increase is seen in the English revenue, which indicates that the international tide is rising. In fact, the unexpected turning of a deficit into a surplus in the British exchequer, together with the more cheerful tone of the Board of Trade, must cause great searchings of heart with our neo-bimetallist friends who are so anxiously watching for England to get down on her knees to them. Is there any "justice" in prosperity enjoyed by a country so hard-hearted in respect to silver? We submit this question to the ethical economists. Meanwhile, turning to our own improved fiscal outlook, we see good reason for believing that the deficit for the current year will not run much if any above the $50,000,000 realized by the recent loan. Another thing that the returns imply is, what has been so often shown in our financial history, the tendency of our public revenue to overtake growing expenditures. It is safe to say that, from the internal revenue and the customs duties, we could, within two years, get all the revenue needed without recourse to the vexatious income tax.

In the matter of bringing the tariff bill to a vote in the Senate, it is gratifying to see a disposition on the part of the Democrats to push things. It is also gratifying to see the Republicans begin filibustering against speedy action. This is gratifying because it shows how hollow is all their talk about being confident of beating the bill, and also because it will prove to the most thick-witted Democrat that if it is good Republican policy to go slow, it is good Democratic policy to go fast. Some heads are too dense to find out which way to go till they see the other fellows start, and then they know enough to go in the other direction. There is no need of another Democratic speech on the tariff bill. The party managers ought to leave all the talk to the Republicans from this day on, and press steadily for a vote. No vote will now be changed by anything that is said. The particular form of the bill as it passes the Senate is of no great consequence, as the final form will be determined in conference committee in any case; and the sooner it is sent there, the sooner will the country know what the law is going to be.

Senator Hill's speech on Monday changes nothing. Everybody knew before that his mind was filled with a consuming jealousy of Mr. Cleveland, and his exhibition of the same old sores was to have been expected. Everybody knew, also, that he would not dare to say explicitly that he would vote against the tariff bill to which he and his party are pledged, and he did not. His remarks on the income tax are mainly a compilation of the opinions of sound thinkers, and in so far they are sound. Where he got those charming flowers of rhetoric which he here and there hung upon some projecting corner of his speech—such as "the lovely cynosure of the nations" and "the sea-wall of our paradise"—we leave those to guess who know something of the history of others of his oratorical productions. The chief question raised by his speech is, Will it be possible to defeat the income tax in the Senate? We think it very unlikely. There are, to be sure, a considerable number of Democratic Senators who will vote against putting the tax in the bill—possibly as many as eight. But there are at least as many Republican Senators from the West who will vote for it. One of them, Senator Dubois, has been quoted as being ready to vote not only for the income tax, but also for the whole bill. The Populists will, of course, vote for it. Senator Cullom will vote for it if he has not changed his mind since 1870. In that year he favored an income tax with an exemption of $2,500, and defended it on precisely the same grounds as are now urged in support of an exemption of $4,000. That is to say, as Mr. Schenck, the Republican

chairman of the ways and means committee of that year, put it, an income tax with a high exemption cannot be "odious," "for the simple fact that people like a tax which somebody else pays." That was good Republican doctrine in 1870, and Senator Sherman then held it substantially.

The several "armies" that are marching over the country and converging upon Washington city are having a hard time of it. In several of the towns through which they have passed, the food and lodging provided were not to the liking of the troops, although there was an ardent and universal desire on the part of the inhabitants to offer them every inducement to move on. In Oakland, California, a subscription of $200 was raised to accelerate the steps of the recruits of Coxey's army, 600 in number, who had enlisted in San Francisco. The mayor of that city had generously sent them over to Oakland by boat at his own expense. The Oakland people were naturally indignant, but they clubbed together and hired a train of box cars to move them to Sacramento. When the army reached the station and found that they were not to ride in passenger cars, they refused to go, and marched back to the place where they had spent the night. Then the militia were called out, and, after a protracted negotiation, the army agreed to ride in box cars as far as Sacramento, where they expected that the Central and Union Pacific Railways would furnish them transportation to the East, and the towns along the road furnish rations. They are probably going to Washington to insist that "the Chinese must go." They are the ones who prevailed upon Congress to pass the Geary bill and other like measures. If they ever do reach their journey's end, it is to be hoped that they will insist on having comfortable quarters in the cloak-rooms and committee-rooms of the House and Senate, and free access to the restaurants, until the Chinese question is settled.

Another phalanx settled down at East St. Louis. This is Frye's army, or one wing of it, hailing from Texas and the Southern border. These "sojers" had the bad luck to receive an offer of $1.50 per day to work at digging trenches for the laying of pipe by the East St. Louis Water Board. They refused it, of course; but when the facts became known, the soft-hearted and soft-headed people who had been supplying them rations free, stopped doing so, in consequence of which the army has actually suffered from hunger. Besides this unfeeling conduct on the part of the inhabitants, the railroads have refused to carry them eastward; so they are left stranded on the verge of a cheerless summer.

Coxey is a horse-dealer when not marshalling his hosts. He left his forces some days ago, and travelled by rail to Chicago to attend a sale of his own horses. He arrived the day after the sale. The prices realized were very unsatisfactory. He had given an order to the auctioneer to sell without reserve, so he found that a horse which he valued at $1,000 had been sold for $145. He was very angry at this result, and blamed the Government for it. The trouble, he said, was the shortage of money. Horses that cost $1,000 would bring only one-tenth of their value, because there was so little money in circulation. "We have introduced a bill," he continued, "providing that the general Government shall issue $500,000,000 to be divided among the States pro rata, $20,000,000 a year till the whole is distributed." Coxey wants also "to abolish the usury system." By these two methods, viz., issuing money to the States and abolishing interest, he thinks that horses might bring a good price after the new system was fairly started. Other dealers say that the real trouble in the horse market is the multiplication of trolley and cable lines of street cars all over the country, which have thrown out of employment thousands of horses, and that the only cure for this is to breed fewer horses and more cattle, sheep, and swine. Coxey will never believe this. Meanwhile Col. Wm. G. Moore, the chief of police of Washington city, is getting his forces in readiness for Coxey, and proposes to arrest him as soon as he arrives within the jurisdiction. There is a law in force in the District of Columbia making it a penal offence to bring any person there, knowingly, who is likely to become a public charge. This is one of the oldest laws in the country, dating back to the early colonial period. It will fit Coxey's case nicely, and will give him leisure to perfect his financial plans before the next horse sale comes off.

The overthrow of the Populists in both Kansas and Colorado seems to be assured by the result of the municipal elections last week. Wherever party fights were made in Kansas, heavy Republican gains are reported, not a single case having occurred where the Populists held their ground. In Colorado the Populists carried only six towns, against twenty-two last year, and their majorities were reduced in these six. Although the Populists have been favorable to woman suffrage, the greater part of the women in each State voted against that party in these local elections, as was the case in the municipal contests in Kansas last year. Their attitude will doubtless be the same in the State election in Colorado next fall; and although that dreadful crank, David H. Waite, had nearly 7,000 plurality for Governor in 1892, it seems quite safe now to predict that the Populist party will be "snowed under" in November. The task will be still easier in Kansas, where, on a vote four times as large as Colorado's, Lewelling's plurality in 1892 was only about 5,500, with the Democrats generally supporting him heartily. An equally effective fusion is out of the question this year, and the swelling Republican tide would easily overwhelm it if the managers of the two parties could arrange a joint ticket.

We are glad to note in a Southern newspaper some views regarding the East and "the money power" by a public man which are calculated to inform the reader rather than to inflame an ignorant prejudice. "I want to lift up my voice," writes Judge W. R. Hammond to the Atlanta (Ga.) *Journal*, "and enter my protest against the clamor that is being raised, and the prejudice that is being engendered, by our public men and newspapers against what they are pleased to term the money power of the East." He says that this feeling pervades the South and West, and has already reached such a pass that "no public man can afford to show his head in the South unless he rushes forward with precipitate haste and declares his everlasting and undying opposition to the money power of the East." He proceeds to declare his conviction that "no more fatal mistake was ever made by a people, and that to persist in it will only bring disaster upon our own heads." Judge Hammond pronounces the prejudice of the Southern people against the East both unjustifiable and ill-advised. The East has the capital of the country, and the South needs this capital. The only reason Northern capital does not flow South more freely is a lack of confidence, and this will only be aggravated by the growing spirit of animosity. He proceeds:

> "It is not fair to call Eastern capitalists money sharks. Their dealings with the people of the South have not proven them to be such. They do not exact high rates of interest, but are satisfied with very low and reasonable returns. They want good security, and will not lend or invest without it if they know it. But their experience with certain classes of our people has taught them that they must not be too confiding, and when they keep their money at home we fall to abusing them and call them hard names."

The *Journal* endorses Judge Hammond's position, and declares its belief that "the demagogues in politics and journalism who make angry denunciation of another section of our common country their stock in trade, underestimate the intelligence of the Southern people." The surest way of showing this is for the sensible men to follow Hammond's example and speak out.

The woman-suffrage movement received a further impetus last week in the passage by the Iowa Legislature of a bill giving women the right to vote at

municipal or school elections involving an issue of bonds or increase of the tax levy. This makes three large and adjacent States in that part of the Union—Iowa, Kansas, and Colorado—in which women can vote in municipal elections, while in Colorado they can also vote in all other elections. This full right seems likely to be extended them in Kansas when the men vote on the constitutional amendment next November. The movement has also made more headway in Massachusetts this year than ever before since the annual agitation before the Legislature began in 1867. A measure giving women the right to vote in city and town elections was passed by the House of Representatives week before last—the first time that such a bill has ever got through one branch—but was rejected by the Senate last week. The discussion has shown a growing indifference and half-heartedness on the part of former opponents, remonstrances from women having nearly ceased. The political aspects of the matter have been very curious. While not a partisan question, most supporters of the bill in the House were Republicans, and the Democrats generally opposed it. But some of the Republican managers and editors insisted that its practical working would help the Democrats in the cities, and called upon Republican Senators to "save the party" by rejecting the measure. A bill which had passed the House by a large Republican majority was thus defeated in the Senate through the efforts of the Boston *Journal* and Henry Cabot Lodge, now the recognized machine manager of his party.

The Republicans have carried Rhode Island by a larger plurality than they have had in a State election for many years, and have secured overwhelming majorities in both branches of the Legislature, thus making certain the election of a United States Senator. This result is not different from what every competent observer of political currents in and outside the State had expected. It would be difficult to find a Northern State in which a similar result would not be expected and recorded were an election to be held in it to-morrow. There is an anti-Democratic wave sweeping over the entire country, and its effects are felt in "reduced Democratic majorities," even in Texas. The hard times have much to do with this, but the main cause is blundering incompetency exhibited by the Democratic majority in Congress, and especially in the Senate. The whole country is so weary and disgusted with a party that can do nothing but dally and talk, when trade and industry are in suspense and can be restored to activity only by prompt action, that it is with extreme difficulty that any man of intelligence can say a word in defence of the Democrats, much less vote with them. We have little expectation, however, that a realization of the meaning of the elections will penetrate the Senate chamber and affect the minds of the remarkable personages who are conducting the Democratic policy in that body.

The small amount of pains that Croker seems to take in the matter of concealing his wealth, and the absence of any demonstration on the part of his followers on his return, gives some color to the belief that he contemplates an early retirement from politics. A man who can afford a sixty-day trip in a private car must be very well off, and fully entitled to keep a stock-farm and a racing-stable. It is probable that it was in order to have these things that he went into politics twenty years ago, and, having got them, there seems to be but little reason for his staying in politics. He has now far surpassed Tweed in luxury and extravagance. Tweed had a house on Fifth Avenue at the corner of Forty-fourth Street, but it was very inferior to Croker's. The inside was quite commonplace. He spent most money on the stable, which was handsomely wainscotted and had a fine sitting-room in it in which the Boys used to assemble for punch on Sunday mornings. But he never attempted the external display in which Croker indulges. His greatest outlay was on the Americus Club at Greenwich. This was a gorgeous abode, it is true, but it was not reserved for Tweed's own use. The humblest Tammany Boy could become a member of the club, and, if he was unable to pay for his drinks and other good things, Tweed cleared off the deficit. Anybody who saw the Boys on Monday morning coming back to their labor in the City Hall in the summer of 1868 and 1869, hearty, rubicund, and frolicsome, must have acknowledged that Tweed was a generous and public-spirited man. Croker's pleasures, on the contrary, are strictly selfish, and his expenditures on his own comforts and amusements, colossal. It seems hardly possible that he expects the Tammany rank and file to put up with the spectacle. There are some things the common Tammany men cannot stand, and great personal display on the part of the chiefs is one of them. There are certain expenses which are well known to be permissible: a large diamond pin for the shirt front is one of them. A good house, not in a fashionable neighborhood, is another. A pair of fast trotters is another. Plenty of champagne, and rich dresses for the wife are also allowable. But for a stock farm, a racing stable, and private cars there is no precedent. If Tammany can stand them, it will show an immense advance in the science of government in this city.

The defeat of the English Ministry, after a strong effort to prevent it, by a majority of one—the Irish being largely absent from the division—is another bad sign of the times. The dissensions among the Irish, too, seem to be increasing, and also their recklessness about exposing them to the world. Worse still, the Liberal press has begun to abuse the Irish and defy them. All this looks like an early dissolution, and does much to corroborate those who have maintained all along that Mr. Gladstone's retirement meant a great deal. It is probably only now that we shall begin to see what his influence on the Liberal party and on the Irish really was. No other man could have held together the discordant elements of which the Liberal party was and is composed. Whether any other man can now, remains to be seen. The appearance, too, of the "Labor candidate" at the Lanarkshire election to cut down the Liberal majority one-half has an ominous look. At the election of 1892, "Labor" had only just begun to "feel its oats," so to speak, and yet it did the Gladstonians a good deal of damage. Many things have happened since then to exalt its horn and sharpen its expectations. Lord Rosebery is said to be popular with the Labor element, but a rich peer, who has horses on the turf, can no longer get a strong hold of the masses in England. The notion that he can is a tradition of the old times, when peers spent fortunes fighting for county seats. Labouchere, in objecting to a peer for the premiership, was doing a very futile thing under the circumstances, but he was simply in advance of his time.

The *Indépendance Belge* publishes a curious table respecting the accidents to workingmen for which indemnity claims were made in 1893, classified according to the days of the week on which they occurred. The striking thing is the great number of Monday victims—a consequence, the *Indépendance* thinks, "non du repos, mais de l'alcool dominical." By Thursday the effect of Sunday libations has been reduced to a minimum, and even unlucky Friday has a far better percentage of immunity than has blue Monday. Saturday accidents are numerous, but this fact is said by the Belgian Labor Bureau to be due to the unusual number of falls from stairways and windows and ladders incident to the Saturday cleaning-up. Taking the country through, the *Indépendance* estimates that upwards of 600 accidents happened to workingmen on Mondays and Tuesdays, due solely to the influence of Sunday drink. This is an important consideration bearing upon the question of employers' liability for such accidents. Must they indemnify the intemperate as well as the abstemious? If they are bound to pay for accidents, should they not have the right of supervising the habits of their workingmen so as to guard their safety and their own pockets?

VAGABONDS' DISEASE.

We read in the *Medical Journal* that Dr. Raynaud recently gave an important clinical lecture in Algiers on the diagnosis of "vagabonds' disease." The origin of this morbid condition may be inferred from its name, but the difficulty is to distinguish it from other forms of disease which it closely simulates. Some of its symptoms, for example, resemble those of malarial poisoning, and others would lead the unwary to take it for a genuine case of Addison's disease. But Dr. Raynaud was able to differentiate it successfully, and to demonstrate that its deceptive resemblances to other ailments were due to the "effect of scratching and lousiness," and to that "of poisons carried in the blood and irritating the nerves."

That the country is now suffering from an epidemic of political vagabonds' disease is clear. Its most fearful ravages are to be seen in Coxey's army, and in the recruits for it gathering in various parts of the land; but it is not limited to them. It may be diagnosed in every man in every country who prefers agitation to work. Like its medical analogue, it often simulates other diseases. It deceives some worthy and many foolish people into confounding it with the disease of poverty and of lack of work. But it is not that. Coxey's and Frye's men do not want work. They refuse it in transit, and they would feel insulted and outraged if it should be offered them in Washington.

What they want is precisely what the young Paris dynamiter Henry wanted, and so frankly avowed that he did, in a letter which the Count de Kératry has lately published. It was a letter addressed to a member of the Municipal Council of Paris, and protested against the latter's assertion that "what the workingmen of Paris want is work, and it would be an insult to them to suppose that they are asking for bread, not for labor." After speaking of the way education had "opened the minds" of the rising generation, the young anarchist went on:

> "Do you imagine that work for the city of Paris will satisfy their needs? Certainly not, and there is no hope for these young men except in a *bouleversement complet* which will enable them to establish a society that will provide for every one according to his needs. Nor are these needs only those of the stomach. Do you suppose that we have no right to intellectual and artistic enjoyments? Do you imagine that a man who earns four francs a day can buy books out of that sum and go to the theatre, not to mention other things? And how would he get time to enjoy himself if he worked all day?"

Evidently this is only a simulation of the genuine disease of the unemployed. It is the fruits of labor and saving that these men have their eyes fixed upon, and they have no idea at all of either laboring or saving. Any work that an honest man can set his hand to, used to be the demand of the unemployed. That is the demand of the bona-fide unemployed now, but there are vast numbers of the professional unemployed abroad in the land who have got far beyond all that. It has to be for them just the right sort of work and the right rate of wages, or they will none of it.

We do not know that there is anything particularly new about this vagabonds' disease, except its extent and severity at present. As long ago as Socrates's time the contrast was well recognized between "those who work and those who will not work, but who reflect intently on the means of subsistence." There is no doubt a tremendous amount of such reflection going on in Coxey's army. Outside of the studies and classrooms of socialistic professors of political economy, we do not believe that anywhere has there been more intellectual labor expended on the problem of giving everybody a bellyful without working, and crying, "Hang the expense." But with all the taking thought on this subject since man shed his tail, no way has ever been devised of living simply by reflecting intently on the means of subsistence. The gentry who have lived by their wits in this world are few and far between, and their careers have almost always, at some point, touched the stocks, or the jail, or the gallows.

Dr. Raynaud's treatment for vagabonds' disease is "baths and a tonic regimen." It is high time the authorities along Coxey's route began to apply it to his "industrial" soldiers who will not work. A literal bath would no doubt have its terrors for them, but what they need is the cold douche of strict police supervision, of the application of the laws against tramps, of the refusal of food without work for it. The thing has ceased to be a joke, and the infinite capacity of the American people to make a farce out of serious political events was never seen to worse advantage. The good-natured citizens who ironically cheer the onward march of these vagabonds, and keep them supplied with food, partly for the joke of it and partly to get rid of them the sooner, ought to see that they are not only preparing a serious problem and burden for the local authorities at Washington, but are blowing up this ridiculous movement into such proportions as to be a national disgrace, and doing all they can to multiply in this country the Henrys who despise labor but insist on having the fruits of labor. The tonic regimen of our vagabonds cannot begin too soon, and it is to be found in the work-house, the police stations, the wood-yards, and the penitentiary.

THE GREAT GODDESS ARGENTUM.

We have received a letter from Mr. Anson Phelps Stokes on his system of "joint metallism," in deprecation of our remarks last week. Far be it from us to accuse Mr. Stokes of sympathy with dishonesty or anarchism, or of any desire or intention to aid or abet them. Of course it would be silly to do so. But a strict regard for truth compels us to express, as often as the opportunity offers, our solemn conviction that all attempts, whether made in Boston or in New York, to persuade the world that the use of silver as full money of account, whether jointly with gold or not, is in any sense a duty of the Government, or is called for as a protection for the poor man against "gold-bugs" or "Wall Street sharks," promote populism, communism, anarchism, greenbackism, and simple silverism, and do threaten this country with unnumbered woes.

Nearly all the trouble has arisen out of the personification of silver as a moral being which began in 1877-8, and of which we find a trace in Mr. Stokes's letter where he speaks of the "historical and just position" of silver. This, if it means anything, means that there is some position, in the currency or financial arrangements of the nation, which is due to silver as a matter of right and by prescription, and that it can, as an individual or a corporation can, *claim* a place in our medium of exchange, of which we cannot deprive it without a breach of the moral law. To our minds there has been nothing more extraordinary than this since Moses, on coming down from the mountain, found the Israelites, in spite of the most patent proofs of the divine sovereignty, worshipping a golden calf of their own making. It illustrates admirably what to many people now seems incomprehensible, the tendency of the whole ancient world to mythological explanations of the universe. The notion that silver has rights and virtues, that it is courageous and faithful to its friends, and loves the poor, and has made itself an historical place, and is entitled to justice—all of which propositions have been maintained during the last fifteen years by American orators and writers—shows how near we are, in spite of Christianity and science, to the state of mind in which men deified the moon and sun, the mountains, the streams, and even wild beasts and oxen.

To us silver has the same historical position, and has the same rights under the moral law and the United States Constitution, as wheat or leather, wampum or cowries, or coal. There was a time when wheat was twice as dear as it is now, but did it acquire an historic right to be kept at that price, and do we insult it by selling it at 64 to 66 cents a bushel? It has played a more prominent part in the world's history by far than either silver or gold, and ought to have a far higher place in our affections than either. And yet it is bought and sold on margins by Chicago and other speculators, with an indifference to its peace and comfort which is well

calculated to excite the indignation of an honest worshipper. Most other commodities which have played a prominent part in the growth of our civilization have the same story to tell. The march of science has cheapened them, by lessening their value to mankind; but if they are to be worshipped as silver is, that is, treated as moral beings instead of simply brute instruments of human comfort and convenience, we must go back to barbarism. All who know India acknowledge that the sanctity of the cow is in that region a serious hindrance to progress. It cuts the Hindu population off from both beef and a good quality of leather. It sometimes leads, as it did the other day in Bombay, to riots and murders. It is, of course, difficult for those who look on the cow as simply an animal which furnishes milk and hides, to avoid occasional displays of irreverence or levity in her presence; and this wounds the Hindu, as our silver-men are wounded by want of respect for silver, in their tenderest part. But what is the remedy? None that we know of except the growth of knowledge and more scientific conceptions of the universe.

Silver is a metal which mankind has found useful as currency in times past, when its value, like the value of nearly all commodities, was pretty steady. Various circumstances, concerning which there is more or less dispute, have deprived it of a good deal of its usefulness as currency, and there is a general disposition among the nations which can afford gold, to discard it. The one way to meet this tendency is to show that the value of silver is likely to be again steady. To claim for it divine honors or moral rights is simple paganism, and immensely ridiculous. Hides were once wonderfully useful as clothing. Indeed, they were, in northern climates at least, probably the first clothing man put on after his own hide became too tender for exposure. Did this give hides an historic position? Did it give them a claim to justice? Did it make the use of broadcloth a wrong to them over which the human conscience should reproach itself?

FARMS AND FARM MACHINERY.

Mr. E. V. Smalley of St. Paul has in the current *Forum* an interesting article on the effect of farm machinery upon farm labor. The self-binding and reaping machine will do the work of ten men with sickles. The "header" is an invention which so far has been used principally in California. It is propelled by six horses and is steered by a wheel in the rear; it clips off the heads of the grain and delivers them to wagons driven beside it; it will cut twenty-five acres in a day, and will do the work of a platoon of men under the old style. A sulky-plough, with four horses and carrying two ploughshares, has doubled the area which one man can plough over in a day. Combination-harrows in like manner will go over three times as much ground as formerly. From the time of the Pharaohs to our own day, seeding was done by scattering the seed from a bag carried by the sower as he walked over the field. Now two or four horses haul a six or twelve-foot drill and save the time of several men. In all these cases the saving in human labor has come from inventions which substitute horse-power. To utilize such devices fully requires farms large enough to warrant the keeping of animal equipment sufficient for the best economy.

Another kind of labor-saving has been effected by the employment of steam power. To the thresher, with fanning-mill and straw-carrier, is now added a device which saves the labor of human feeders and band-cutters. This threshing combination is run by a portable steam engine which burns straw for fuel, and which, when its work at one farm is done, can use its own power to convey itself to another. Farming operations which require the movement of the power over the ground with the progressing work, have not been helped by steam. Field steam-engines get caught in rough or wet ground, and cannot be relied on. Yet it is possible that another generation will see as marked improvement here as in threshing. Electricity has been applied successfully to so many uses that it is within reason to believe that it will be made to serve the farmer in those parts of his work which need only some outside power to double or quadruple his efficiency. Mr. Smalley's conclusion is: "At a very moderate estimate, the farmer of our day with the help of machinery exerts a productive force equal to that of three men in the days of his grandfather."

It is clear enough that this fact has an important bearing upon the prices of farm products. A decline in price is an inevitable result of such savings in labor and in cost of production. Certainly we cannot charge up all our falling quotations for grain as losses against the farm. Yet one result is to discourage bonanza farming. Low prices for wheat and high prices for land have changed the outlook for large farms. A big farm, run simply as a business venture, with superintendent and gangs of laborers, and of which all the crop is sold, does not differ in principle from the factory. Such a farm "manufactures" grain for market, and, because of the chances of crops and prices, really runs more risk than a hat or carpet factory. On the other hand, the rising prices of land tempt the sale of acres to secure the profit on the original investment — perhaps but a twentieth of the present values. Purchasers of 160 or 320 acres (one-quarter or one-half a section) have this advantage over the bonanza owner: they are sure of a living, rent free, and are dependent only upon their money crop for ready cash to pay for groceries and mortgage interest. Yet even such a farmer must have land enough to allow him to use to the best advantage the improved farm machinery of which we have spoken. It is a well-known axiom in the business world that a merchant should try to make up for decreasing profits by selling a correspondingly larger quantity. The farmer in the West, perhaps unconsciously, is moved by the same reasoning, and as prices for wheat or other products fall, he endeavors to employ machinery so much the more efficiently that he may produce, at the same expense if possible, double the quantity of grain by farming twice the acreage. In such a process the incompetent owner must give up his land to the more enterprising farmer. An eighth of a section (80 acres) or a quarter (160 acres) no longer makes an economical farm. The play of these forces seems to set limits in both directions to the number of acres which can be advantageously worked. Though farms containing one section (640 acres) are numerous in Minnesota and the Dakotas, their number is not increasing. Mr. Smalley regards 320 acres as about the average farm under present conditions in regions where there is nothing (such as stumps or stones) to hinder the free working of agricultural machinery.

Yet, while such an average limit may be set now, we cannot assume that it will remain so. Continued low prices for wheat will slowly work out a further revolution in Minnesota and Dakota. More improvements in farm methods will be demanded so that profits may not fall with prices. If electricity can help the farmers out, there will be inventors who will try to apply it. In this and other ways it may easily be found that a still larger farm than 320 acres can be worked by one farmer with advantage with better machinery. It will be recollected that more improvements in machinery were made during and immediately after our civil war than at any similar period in our history—because the needs were great. Necessity is still the mother of invention, particularly in the United States.

ANOTHER "WAR."

It is quite evident that we are on the eve of another journalistic "war." The notes of preparation come loud and clear from numerous offices. The old Warriors of the Chilian conflict are all sharpening their sabres and are filing the rowels of their spurs. The war is of course to be with England. The conduct of that power in not claiming Hawaii has left a feeling of great bitterness in many an American heart, which

has been aggravated by her failure to make "a naval demonstration" in favor of the Queen in the neighborhood of the Islands. She is now going to practise the grossest duplicity with regard to the Bering Sea matter. She has engaged under the arbitration at Paris to pass an act of Parliament carrying out the regulations settled by the arbitrators. The act has passed or is passing the House of Commons. The English counsel say it is perfect in all respects. Mr. Bayard says it is, too. But it appears there is a clause, 7, which provides that if the naval officers in command of the cruisers are satisfied that the master of a ship caught sealing had not had notice of the passage of the act before sailing, he is not to be punished personally. Now the Warriors say that this is all nonsense, that the real clause 7 provides that the act is not to apply to vessels which sailed before its passage, and that they may go on sealing all summer. Sir Charles Russell, the British attorney-general, denies this. Everybody denies it who has seen the act. But why should these denials stop the war? The times are ripe for war. Advertising is dull and sales are small. A war would stimulate both.

From exclusive information received about two months ago, many Warriors were satisfied that Great Britain would never pass an act at all, but just go on catching seals until we blew her out of the water. In that case the United States was to "act alone." It is true she has now passed an act, but what an act it is! The *Evening Sun* says, "There is serious doubt how far it goes." The Providence *Journal* calls for a "prompt and emphatic protest." The Chicago *Journal* is naturally "too much exasperated to regard any longer with calmness either Canadian brutality or English duplicity." The *Mail and Express* says that "once more" (last time not mentioned) "this administration has been overreached by England. Does any one think President Harrison or Mr. Blaine, etc., etc." The Boston *Journal* says it is "a successful game of bluff against the American Government." The penalty for sealing without a license imposed by the American act is a fine of not less than $200 and imprisonment for not more than six months. The penalties in the British act are doubtless the same. But we have had for some time an act making sealing unlawful, within certain dates. The British have not. It is now lawful for a British subject to go sealing. To send him to jail and fine him for disobeying an act which was passed while he was at sea, and of which he had no notice, would be something new in British jurisprudence, and apparently a violation of natural justice. In fact, it is a fair question whether ignorance of the act would not be a bar to conviction in any court of justice. Therefore, the British act allows the commanding officer of the cruiser, if he is satisfied that the captain of a sealer whom he has caught did not know of the passage of the act before he sailed, to let him off without arrest or trial. But, of course, he ceases to catch seals from that moment.

This much in explanation of a rather silly row. But we do not put it forward as a reason why there should not be a war. There surely must be some earthly punishment for the immorality of Great Britain, and as no other power seems disposed to tackle her, why should not our journalists undertake it? Her conduct with regard to Hawaii we have already mentioned. Her monopoly of the South American trade is equally provoking. Senator Lodge in his great silver speech shows that "it is England which is to-day the great enemy of any effort for the restoration of silver to the world's currency."

> "I do not mean," said he, "the whole of England, but the bankers and moneyed interests of London. . . . England is governed in her attitude towards silver solely by her own interests. She is not engaged in maintaining the gold monometallic standard because she is in love with what some persons declare to be an economic truth. She is engaged in maintaining it because her bankers and capitalists believe it pays. Therefore, it seems to me if there is any way to strike England's trade, or strike her moneyed interests, it is our clear policy to do it in the interest of silver."

Now, can there be any better way of "striking her trade and her moneyed interests" than war? We can cover the sea with fast cruisers who would destroy or shut up in port all her mercantile marine in a month, and put a stop to her infernal habit of buying our produce and giving us her damnable goods in exchange. We want her gold, and her gold we cannot get except by force. Moreover, there is a moral side to war which cannot be overlooked. Knowing that these London bankers and moneyed interests are sticking to the monometallic system "in their own interest," and "because it pays," should we allow them to persist in their vicious courses? Ought we not with our resources to "pull" these banking-houses, so to speak, in the interest of mankind? We have already in Hawaii struck a splendid blow for chastity. Should we not in England strike another blow for unselfishness and silver? The spectacle of superb disdain for profit which we ourselves show in all our transactions, has evidently been thrown away on this brutal Power. It is time to give her a touch of real Christianity at the cannon's mouth. And it must stir every American (not to say journalistic) heart to know that, when the blow is struck, it will be struck for a modest, unassuming metal like silver, which vaunteth not itself, and is not puffed up, and if people do not like to buy it at one dollar and twenty-nine cents an ounce, goes quietly and patiently at sixty-three and a half cents an ounce. A war for silver and to punish the wicked English bankers who use gold "because it pays," would in truth kindle once more in the modern world a flame of that sacred thirst for right and justice which seems for the present to have taken refuge in Coxey's army.

THE AWAKENING OF HINDOSTAN.

LONDON, March 30, 1894.

CASUAL visitors to the House of Commons are not likely particularly to notice a certain quiet, elderly gentleman, under-sized, slightly built, sallow-complexioned, kindly-eyed, with white hair and beard, and wearing gold spectacles, who occupies a seat on the second bench below the gangway. Yet upon him centre the political hopes of tens of millions of the human race; his death would perhaps be sincerely felt as a personal, a real loss by a greater number than would that of any other person. This man is Dadabhai Naoroji, "member for India," by grace of the electors of Finsbury.

The more it is considered, the more wonderful appears the sway of the United Kingdom over India; two North Atlantic Islands, smaller in area than the State of California, controlling a territory four thousand miles distant in the torrid zone, thirteen times their size, and with eight times the population—a territory held so firmly and yet so lightly as to require but one-twentieth (in proportion to population) the display of military force required to attach a component part of that kingdom, professing a common Christianity, and conquered seven hundred years ago. From time to time our hearts sicken, and our cheeks flush with indignation, at the well-authenticated accounts of brutal wrong and outrageous oppression inflicted in our name in the East. We cannot glory in empire which had its rise in lust of gain and aggrandizement, not in the spirit of Bishop Heber's hymn. Such empire must be accepted as a fact, calling, not for idle repinings over the past, but for the discharge of the responsibilities entailed upon us in the present; and we should not, perhaps, dwell so much upon the degree in which the exercise of this empire falls short of Christian ideals as on the manner in which, in present intention and effort, it rises above all previous ideals of empire on such a gigantic scale.

There are perhaps some hundreds of young Indians in London, of all races and of all creeds, engaged in study or business. Girton and Newnham, as well as Oxford and Cambridge, have their Indian alumni. There are also numbers of Indian residents and Indian visitors, often of princely rank. When at assemblies, mixing with these our Indian fellow-subjects upon terms of perfect equality (in so far as we are equal to them), there is something exhilarating and inspiring in the thought that we are all bound together under the same power, that our interests are to a certain extent identical, that, theoretically, at least, we stand upon the same level. It is a measurable approach to a "federation of the world." While as yet there has been no realization of the Imperial proclamation issued after the Mutiny—a proclamation guaranteeing equal consideration and protection for the poorest Indian ryot and for the British noble—it was yet an irrevocable step forward. The old ideal of India, a land to be exploited for the benefit

of a chartered company, was superseded by that of India to be governed for the benefit of its inhabitants. If, as has been said, to stand on London Bridge and watch the traffic rolling by would be a cure for separatist aspirations in the mind of an Indian potentate, so will study by young Indians in the Inns of Court and the universities prevent their ever resting satisfied with less fair dealing and liberty in their own country than are accorded on English soil.

On the other hand, the democracy of the United Kingdom are realizing the extent to which "Indian methods" of government and administration might react upon them at home; they are beginning to observe that most British gentlemen, after a few years' service in India, whether as simple writers or as proconsuls, return deeply imbued with suspicion regarding the masses and with reactionary notions of government. Then, again, the close intercourse with a mass of acute religious thought such as exists in India, impervious, for the most part, to Christian dogmas, yet combined with a high standard of civilization and of daily life, has doubtless largely contributed towards the modifying of old notions regarding the necessity of belief in the creeds of the schoolmen, for happiness in this life and hopes concerning the next. Thousands here are learning that the lives of many professing Christians in India are more "heathen" than those of the heathen themselves; which helps to bring home the truth that real Christianity consists in a life and not in a name—that "the heathen in his blindness" may be more truly Christlike than the professing Christian. British missionary effort may be well content if it can counteract, even in a small degree, the heathenizing influences of British occupation. The attitude of mind, in the future, of young Britishers who are likely to be called to positions of responsibility in the state towards the natives of India, cannot but be modified by present emulation with these in classical and mathematical triposes, rowing contests, and cricket elevens.

Nowhere, though as yet but feebly in comparison with what they ought to be and will yet be, are the stirrings of the national conscience regarding India more marked than in the House of Commons. The idea of empire loses force in no degree with the increase of democratic sentiment; it has, however, become purified and elevated—interfused with a nobler conception of duty towards the governed. Returned Anglo-Indian officials are no longer having it all their own way. A committee has been formed of members determined that more attention shall in future be given to the claims of the people of India. Powerful impetus has been afforded to this movement, both within and without the walls of Parliament, by the circumstance of two quiet American ladies (Mrs. Andrews and Dr. Kate Bushnell), by their investigation of the cantonments system, having brought to their knees Lord Roberts and a great department. It is felt that we are indeed living in a fool's paradise regarding Indian administration when it has been possible for Anglo-Indian officials for many years deliberately to defy the declared will of the House of Commons, and when, but for a combination of saintlike devotion, tact, and "Yankee" 'cuteness on the part of two ladies travelling without credentials, the British public would still be blinded as to a continuance of the foulest practices.

The mainstays of the Indian movement in Parliament are Mr. Naoroji and Sir William Wedderburn. Mr. Naoroji is a Parsee, son of a Parsee priest, born at Bombay in 1825. After a distinguished career at the Elphinstone College, he attained to the professorship of mathematics and natural philosophy. In 1855 he became partner in a Parsee firm in England, still keeping his grasp of Indian affairs, establishing the Indian Association, and helping several public men, such as Mr. Fawcett, to graduate in their studies of Indian problems. Twenty years later he returned to India as prime minister of the native State of Baroda. He was shortly afterwards made a member of the Legislative Council of Bombay. For many years past he has resided in London, devoting himself mainly to the cause of his people. He is an eloquent man, speaking English with no more foreign accent than many of the Welsh members. He is one of the most regular attenders in the House, an ardent Liberal, but seldom intervening in debate except on Indian subjects. Sir William Wedderburn, member for Banffshire, born in Edinburgh in 1835, entered the Bombay civil service in 1860, served as judge at Poona, then as member of the High Court of Bombay, and ultimately was appointed secretary to the Bombay government. He retired in 1887. He is a remarkable instance of an official of long service and high standing in India who has returned home imbued with deep sympathy for and appreciation of his fellow-subjects in that country. These gentlemen are aided by others who have visited India and made its affairs their special study.

Education, railway communication, intercourse with the United Kingdom, the establishment of a widely extended and powerful and irrepressible vernacular press, have led to an awakening throughout the population of Hindostan, and a sense of oneness among its different States and religions and many tongues such as never before existed. This awakening has found a voice in the establishment of a native congress which, in different parts of the continent, and with a gradually increasing attendance, has met annually since 1885. Commencing with 72 delegates from public meetings and native constituted bodies, they have latterly numbered 1,800.* The delegates are both male and female. They include "all sorts and conditions of men": at the last of which I have an analysis there were 7 princes, 7 sirdars and chiefs, 2 rajahs, 10 nawabs, 8 members of council, 260 chairmen or members of municipalities, 180 chairmen of local boards, 50 magistrates, 12 fellows and 250 graduates of universities. There were lawyers, landholders, merchants and traders, professional men and women, Christian and non-Christian priests, teachers, journalists, and artisans. "It is difficult," says a contemporary report, "to conceive any possible body of men more thoroughly representative of the higher, middle, and upper-lower classes of the Indian community." The preponderating creed was Hindu; then came Mohammedans, and, in smaller numbers, Parsees, Christians, Jains, Sikhs, Jews. Bombay and Sindh sent the larger number; Madras, the northwest provinces and Oudh, the central provinces and Berar, Bengal, Behar, Orissa, and Assam come next; then the Punjab. Surely the world never before saw such consultative assemblies, and the United Kingdom may be proud of them as the best results of her rule. The gatherings take place in the cooler season, about Christmas, and last for three or four days. Sir William Wedderburn presided at the Bombay congress of 1889. (Mr. Bradlaugh also was there and received a wonderful ovation.) Mr. Naoroji has since presided, for the second time, at the last which met at Lahore, on the 27th of December. His reception at Bombay and other places which he visited gave occasion for scenes of extraordinary enthusiasm. Many who have witnessed the pomp and pageantry attendant on the arrival of a viceroy, who have been present at receptions accorded to members of the royal family, declare that the spontaneity and enthusiasm manifested towards the member for Finsbury were "unprecedented in the annals of the country."

His opening address at Lahore, the debates and resolutions of the Congress, enable us to gauge the present opinions and wishes of the Indian people. We find expressed, in the first place, unswerving allegiance to the United Kingdom, and in the next a firm determination that in India the empire shall be administered by the Indian people, as in Great Britain it is administered by the British people. The necessity for many changes in the laws and administration is pointed out. The poverty of the country is dwelt on, and the need of economy in taxation. The currency question received attention. The failure to carry out the resolutions of Parliament regarding the cantonment scandals formed the subject of one resolution. Greater facilities for education, a larger share in the civil-service appointments, were demanded. One of the most pressing grievances appears to be the "Home charges"—the shameful extent to which money burthens, incurred in England by the English people, are charged upon the Indian budget; not only the home training of cadets and troops who spend only part of their service in India, but their cost of transport, and the keep of British war vessels in Indian waters. India pays not only for the enormous salaries of governors and officials, but also for retiring pensions, every penny of which is spent in the United Kingdom or on the Continent. There is something incredibly mean in the wealthiest nation in the world "entertaining" in her capital Eastern potentates such as the Sultan and the Shah of Persia, and charging the cost upon the people of Hindostan. Just in proportion as the retention of the country is declared necessary for British greatness and prestige, is the shabbiness manifest of throwing all the cost of its retention upon its people. The Colonial Offices in London were built at a cost of £100,000, and are kept up at an annual charge of £200,000 by the British people simply because they dare not attempt to throw the charge on their colonies. The India Office was built at a cost of some £635,000, and is maintained at an annual charge of £230,000, out of the pockets of the Indian people, without their having a word to say in the matter. Mr. Naoroji well put the case in his opening address at Lahore:

"There is a strange general misapprehension among the people of the United Kingdom. They do not seem to know that they have not spent a single shilling either in the formation of the British Indian Empire or in its maintenance, and that, as far as I know, every farthing is taken from the Indians, with the only exception in my knowledge that Mr. Gladstone, with his sense of justice, allowed £5,000,000 towards the last Afghan war, which, without having any voice in it, cost India £21,000,000. I cannot blame the people of the United Kingdom generally for this mistake, when even well-informed papers give utterances to this most unfortunate fallacy. As for instance a paper like the *Statist* . . . says, 'Whatever may happen, we must defend India to our last shilling and our last man,' while the fact is that they have not spent even their first shilling or any sterling at all, but on the contrary derived benefits in various ways from

*The numbers to which the congresses have attained are found so unwieldy and expensive that restricting the members to 1,000 is contemplated.

India of millions on millions every year. Nor have the fighters in creating and maintaining the British Indian Empire been only the British soldier to 'the last man.' Indian soldiers have done the main work, and if India can be made prosperous and contented, as it can be by true statesmanship, the Indian soldier will be ready to fight to 'the last man' to defend British power. . . . Again, the *Statist* says: 'We are at this moment spending large sums of money in preparing against a Russian attack.' Not a farthing of the British money. Every farthing of these 'large sums,' and which are crushing us, is 'imposed' upon the people of British India."

The Indian National Congress has thirty-four standing committees in different parts of the country. Besides these there is a British Committee, with offices in London, which has charge of the publication of *India*, a monthly journal. As yet the Government refuse officially to recognize the Congress, so that all representations on its behalf must come through the Parliamentary Indian Committee.

D. B.

PASQUIER'S NAPOLEONIC MEMOIRS.—VIII.

PARIS, March 29, 1894.

To do Pasquier justice, when Talleyrand informed him that the King had thought it necessary to confide the ministry of police to Fouché, he made a strong remonstrance. He admitted that it was necessary to give some satisfaction to Fouché; "but," said he, "I do not believe that it is necessary to call him to the Council, and to admit him to the intimate circle of the King; there are spots which cannot be effaced, meetings that cannot take place without wounding delicacies which ought always to be respected. I pity the King very much for having such a minister, for I pity myself for having such a colleague. But since it is decided, and the King is resigned, we too must submit and keep a good countenance." The new cabinet was to be composed of Talleyrand in the Foreign Office, Baron Louis in the Treasury, Marshal Gouvion Saint-Cyr in the War Office; the other ministers were to be Fouché, M. de Jaucourt, the Duc de Richelieu, and Pasquier. Talleyrand conducted Fouché to Arnouville, where he took the oath. Fouché afterwards prided himself greatly on having, in this first interview, given the King the most salutary advice. "I have," says Pasquier, "reason to think that he merely muttered a few words of gratitude, a few protestations of fidelity."

The Prussians were already occupying the garden of the Luxembourg and the Tuileries when Fouché assembled the members of the provisional government, and, by his advice, a message of dissolution was sent to the Chambers, with the explanation that the intentions of the allied sovereigns were unanimous as to the choice of a sovereign for France—that they had engaged themselves to reëstablish Louis XVIII. on the throne. "In this state of things, we can only pray for our country. Our deliberations having ceased to be free, we are of opinion that we must separate." And thus ended the session of a Chamber which had vainly tried to establish constitutional institutions, which had had no influence on the course of events, and had served only to create new complications in the most complicated situation. The signature of Carnot was found at the end of the message sent to the Chambers. The King made his entry the next day; the National Guard preserved order in the city, and the crowd received the old King with acclamations which astonished those who, a few days before, were sincerely giving utterance to the darkest forebodings.

The occupation of France was much more stringent in 1815 than it had been in 1814. The Prussians, who formed the vanguard of the coalition, manifested the most dangerous disposition. Marshal Blücher had occupied in great haste the garden of the Tuileries and the Carrousel; from his windows the King could see the Prussian tents in the court and the guns turned towards his palace. On the request of Humboldt, the Prussians consented not to establish themselves in the Jardin des Plantes. The bridge over the Seine called the Bridge of Jena, in memory of one of the greatest defeats of the Prussian army, Blücher intended to blow up, and the mine was already prepared when Louis XVIII. authorized M. de Talleyrand to declare that he would himself go and place himself over the mine; the bridge was thus saved.

The news from the provinces was terrible. The greatest excesses were committed by those who had been the allies of imperial France, by the Bavarians, the Würtembergers, the Badenese.

"It seemed," says Pasquier, "as if the whole of Europe wished to invade France. Though the show of such numerous forces had become absolutely useless, it was thought necessary to give to the French nation the spectacle of the irresistible power to which it was ordered to kneel. Not a single corps, notwithstanding the rapid success of the Duke of Wellington and of General Blücher, notwithstanding the occupation of the capital, had suspended its march; all those, from the frontiers to the Rhine, who bore a gun, all those who were not indispensable to the guard of the states and of the fortresses, were concentrating on the French territory. More than six hundred thousand men, covering the provinces of the East and of the North, soon penetrated as far as Normandy and the provinces of the right bank of the Loire."

On the 10th of July, the Emperor of Russia, the Emperor of Austria, and the King of Prussia arrived in Paris. It is easy to imagine under what difficulties the Government was carried on. Pasquier for a moment had two ministries—the Home Office, where he took M. de Barante for his under-secretary, and the Department of Justice, where he chose M. Guizot, whose name begins to appear at this unfortunate period. Pasquier had to choose the new prefects, to see that public order was preserved during the difficult operation of disbanding the army of the Loire—an operation which had been imposed by the allied sovereigns, and which Talleyrand had not dared to refuse, though the remainder of the imperial army might well have formed a nucleus for the royal army. Pasquier is never tired of complaining of Talleyrand. On this question of disbanding the army he says:

"As for Talleyrand, his extreme levity, his profound indifference on the gravest subjects, never were more sadly manifested to my eyes than in this circumstance. I tried for a moment to enlighten him on the political side of it; he seemed not to care for it. His mind did not go beyond the difficulties of execution; none of the possible consequences for the future seemed worthy of fixing his attention. 'It cannot be otherwise; nothing can be done without it; the sovereigns demand it imperiously; there is no possibility of refusing.' Such were invariably his answers. I must add that the King, Monsieur, and the Duc de Berry had on this point no greater scruples, no greater regrets."

It was impossible (as Pasquier himself is obliged to confess) for the King not to have a lasting impression of the defection of the army when Napoleon arrived from Elba; he could not but look on it as a military revolt, and the allied sovereigns perforce took the same view. The disbanding of the army which had fought at Waterloo was a political necessity. With all his apparent indifference and levity, Talleyrand has never been accused of a want of political insight; if he made no opposition to the disbanding of the army, it was probably because this measure was really indispensable.

Pasquier passes a severe criticism on the final acts of the Congress of Vienna, which were published at this period:

"I was much struck at first by the inconvenience to France that might result from so many points of contact with Prussia which were given to it, and also by the constitution of the kingdom of the Netherlands, which was contrary to all the ideas that had been prevalent in French politics since Richelieu. I must confess my apprehensions were strongly checked and shaken by the noisy joy which was affected by the persons who surrounded Talleyrand, by the satisfaction which pervaded his bearing and his language. It seemed, when you heard him and his friends, that nothing greater had ever been achieved in any epoch by any French negotiator."

Fouché had made two lists of persons who had been particularly compromised during the Hundred Days. The first list was to include those who might be impeached for high treason, since they had attacked the Government with arms in hand, and had assumed public offices. They were to be tried by court-martial. The second list was to include those who might be the object of less severe measures. To Fouché it was a labor of love to make proscription lists. "What was not our astonishment," says Pasquier, "to see him bring to the Council two enormous lists which had three or four times more names than was necessary, and on which, without any scruple, he had put together his most intimate political friends and some obscure enemies on whom he wished to make his vengeance felt. The whole Council was revolted by the exaggeration in the number and by the spirit which had presided over the choice." Many names were struck off; there remained only eighteen on the list of the persons destined to be court-martialled, and thirty-eight on the second list. On the former were Marshal Ney and Gen. La Bédoyère, as well as M. de la Valette. Marshal Ney was arrested in the mountains of Auvergne, near Figeac. Pasquier had hoped that he would leave France, and no special order had been issued for his arrest. M. Décazes was prefect of police, and was, says Pasquier, very unjustly accused of having issued special orders for Ney. Fouché's position in the Council was a very singular one; he never spoke in the discussions, but he brought in from time to time long and well-written reports on the state of the country, which he invariably depicted in the darkest colors. The King asked him not to give any publicity to these confidential reports. One of them, however, was published, and Louis XVIII. decided to dismiss Fouché. Fouché was aware of it, and, at his request, the Duke of Wellington called on the King and urged him to retain Fouché. "He is," said the Duke, "the only tie between you and a great part of your people; many consider him the only guarantee of their personal safety, and, if your Majesty dismisses him, they will fall into a disquietude which will lead them to despair. On the other hand, the royalist party, which is already so unreasonable, will become impossible to govern." Louis XVIII. felt constrained to keep Fouché. The person who had told the latter that the King wished to get rid of him was, in Pasquier's opinion, M. de Vitrolles, whom the King had chosen for secretary of the Council, and who was in most in-

timate relations with him. Vitrolles had been thrown in prison during the Hundred Days, and felt convinced that he owed his life to Foucher.

There was a great coldness between Talleyrand and the Russian Emperor. Nobody was aware of it, but Pasquier soon discovered it. Early one morning he was riding with M. de Nesselrode when the conversation fell upon the affairs of France. Nesselrode spoke of the misfortune of the association of the royalists with Fouché, of the bad effect which such an association had on all parties. "This bad effect," said Pasquier, "would have been much counterbalanced by the entrance of the Duc de Richelieu into the cabinet, as was intended; but the Duke refused. Why did not the Emperor Alexander use his influence over him to determine him to accept?" Nesselrode answered that times were much changed. "In what?" said Pasquier. "Is it not always the same France? Is it not the same house of Bourbon? Do you not find in affairs the same men with whom you came to so good an understanding?" And he named Talleyrand. Nesselrode said not a word at the mention of Talleyrand's name. Pasquier then spoke of the generosity of the Emperor; he should always count upon it. "Yes," said Nesselrode, "but he himself ought to feel confidence. He has been taught to be suspicious." Nesselrode evidently thought Pasquier thoroughly informed of all that had been going on during the Congress of Vienna. At Vienna Talleyrand had allied himself with the central powers of Europe and with England, and had separated France from Russia. Pasquier's remarks on this subject have a special interest at a moment when France, estranged from the central powers, is drawn again towards Russia. This great question of the natural alliances of France is still *sub judice*, and it is more burning now than it was in 1816.

The Talleyrand-Fouché cabinet could not last long. Talleyrand desired very much to send Fouché as minister to the United States. "He must not only," said he, "leave the cabinet, he must leave France." The ministry resigned and Pasquier communicated Talleyrand's decision to the King, who merely said, "Very well! let us dissolve the ministry. As for you, you will remain. I shall keep you." Pasquier refused, and the next day Louis XVIII. said to Beugnot: "Could you ever have believed that M. Pasquier would prefer M. de Talleyrand to me?" Pasquier in reality disliked Talleyrand, but he had a notion of what a cabinet meant under a constitutional government; he knew that there must be some solidarity between its members. The King, intelligent as he was, looked upon the ministers as the mere servants of the monarchy, the *gens du Roi*. The Duc de Richelieu formed the new cabinet, and here ends the third volume of these very valuable memoirs.

Correspondence.

WOMEN AND THE JURY-BOX.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent "G. S.," in the *Nation* of March 29, deems it contrary to justice that women are excluded from serving as jurors in such cases as the one he alludes to now pending in Washington. He complains that unfortunately there exist in the minds of men two distinct codes of sexual morals, one for the man and one for the woman, and thinks woman-suffragists will rightly insist that women as well as men ought to be tried by their peers.

We hear it often repeated nowadays that simple justice demands for men and women the same standard of morals. This, at first sight, seems self-evident; and yet it is easy to show that the proposition involves a serious fallacy. If all people, or the great majority of people, were unmarried, the proposition might be tenable; but the moment we take into consideration the mischief produced in the family by the sexual sins of either the husband or the wife, the matter is altogether changed. The wife has the incomparable advantage of knowing under all circumstances that she has her own children about her. The husband's case is quite another where there is a laxity of morals. Herein lies the difference; and that, where doubts arise, the wrong done to the husband is immensely greater than that done to the wife, seems at all times to have been tacitly acknowledged by public opinion. Hence the stricter code for women. So long as the peace and happiness of the family are taken into consideration, this must remain the rule.

When female suffrage becomes universally established, women will, of course, have to serve on juries. There are grave psychological objections to such practice, but it is by no means easy to establish these to the satisfaction even of those who wish to study the question in an earnest spirit and without political bias. The trouble is that as yet we have nothing that deserves the name of a scientific psychology available for practical purposes. If you say that women are too easily carried away by sentiment instead of being guided by sound judgment, how will you prove it? Your own little circle of acquaintances is far from sufficient to establish such a general proposition. The statistical method which would at once settle the question cannot be employed, because as yet we possess no method of psychological measurements. When Quetelet's 'Anthropométrie' appeared, it was a great disappointment to many that he had made no attempt at measuring psychic quantities, though Fechner, in his 'Psycho-Physik,' had at least made an attempt to apply his *Maassformel* also to matters of mind. The whole school of Wundt and his disciples has as yet produced nothing to our purpose, and we shall have to make our experiments and gather wisdom slowly in the hard school of experience.

Respectfully, Werner A. Stille.

St. Louis, April 3, 1894.

GERMAN PROFESSORS' WIVES AND DAUGHTERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the article "Women at the German Universities," published in the *Nation* of February 15, 1894, and signed "J. B. S.," the writer states that the wives and daughters of the German professors are, with some exceptions, ordinary ill-educated women. Intimate association with a very large circle of professors' families enables me to deny such a statement and affirm the exact opposite to be the case. The average German girl receives an education far superior to that of the American girl. Every girl, the common working classes excepted, upon leaving school at the age of sixteen or seventeen, has had, besides a very thorough elementary education, instruction in literature, universal history, natural history, natural philosophy, botany, history of art, French, English, and often Italian, given by competent professors and teachers. The daughters of professors are certainly no exception, as the professor may choose his wife among the best of families, and as a rule takes advantage of this opportunity. A certain modesty and want of self-reliance may make the German woman appear to disadvantage beside the American who at school compared her ability with that of the American boy, and through this association gained more freedom socially as well as intellectually.

The idea that the American girl is doing pioneer work regarding the admission of women to the German universities is also a mistake, as I know of a case of a young lady having had great difficulty in gaining admission because an American applied at the same time.

E. L. W.

Carlsruhe, March 22, 1894.

Notes.

Frederick Warne & Co. will publish in thirty-six monthly parts 'The Royal Natural History,' edited by Richard Lydekker, and illustrated by 1,600 cuts and 72 colored plates.

Francis P. Harper, New York, has nearly ready a new edition of John Heneage Jesse's 'Memoirs of King Richard the Third,' in two volumes, with rubricated title-pages and illustrations printed on Japan paper. He will in time publish Maj. Zebulon Pike's 'Account of Expeditions to the Sources of the Mississippi, 1805-1807,' which Dr. Eliott Coues is engaged in editing, uniform with Dr. Coues's monumental Lewis and Clark.

'Crazy Book-Collecting, or Bibliomania,' a translation of a work, by Bollioud Mermet, Secretary to the Academy of Lyons, first published in 1761, anonymously, is about to be brought out by Duprat & Co., New York.

A new authorized translation of Th. Ribot's 'Diseases of the Will' is announced for speedy publication by the Open Court Publishing Co., Chicago.

Charles L. Webster & Co. will issue immediately 'Tom Sawyer Abroad,' by Mark Twain.

J. B. Lippincott Co.'s spring announcements include 'Bill Nye's History of the United States,' illustrated by F. Opper; 'Travels in a Tree-top,' by Dr. Charles C. Abbott; and a limited large-paper edition of Stillé's 'Major-General Wayne and the Pennsylvania Line,' with extra illustrations.

John Fiske's 'War of Independence' is to be reissued as a part of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s "Riverside Literature Series," forming a double number at a low price. It will be accompanied by a biographical sketch of the author.

Three acceptable reissues are the cheaper edition of Mr. Benjamin Ellis Martin's 'In the Footprints of Charles Lamb' (Scribners), and Edmund Lee's 'Dorothy Wordsworth' and Miss Barlow's rhymed 'Bog-Land Studies' (Dodd, Mead & Co.). The second edition of these humorous and pathetic Irish pictures—true poesy—has been revised and enlarged.

A welcome is sure to await also the square rubricated pocket edition of the "Tempest," the text that of Aldis Wright in the Cambridge Shakspere, the tasteful typography and accessories Dent's (New York: Macmillan). The Droeshout portrait, with Ben Jonson's verse, serves as frontispiece.

The long line of the Harpers' uniform revised edition of William Black's novels is extended by 'Donald Ross of Heimra' and 'Stand Fast, Craig-Royston!'

The London Royal Geographical Society puts forth a seventh edition of its fruitful 'Hints to Travellers, Scientific and General,' with the

customary overhauling and enlargement. Hints on health are followed by medical and surgical hints, by instructions in surveying and astronomical observations, as well as in observations for time and longitude. Photography, meteorology, natural history, anthropology, industry, and commerce have also their chapters. The necessary tables, charts, and cuts are provided, and the cover bears the metric scale in juxtaposition with the English foot measure.

We have nothing to add to our description and commendation last year of Burdett's 'Hospital and Charities Annual,' in presence of the fifth edition, for 1894 (London: Scientific Press; New York: Scribners). This work is not merely statistical, but is an earnest contribution to advanced ideas in charitable endeavor. We quote the sub-title of this admirable compendium: "Containing a review of the position and requirements, and chapters on the cost of management, of the voluntary charities, and an exhaustive record of hospital work for the year." No doubt can attach to its claim to be "the most useful and reliable guide to British American and colonial hospitals and asylums, medical schools and colleges, religious and benevolent institutions, dispensaries, nursing and convalescent institutions." Mr. Burdett was one of the vice-presidents of the International Hospital and Nursing Congress at Chicago, and was greatly impressed by the proceedings in the Nursing section.

It would equally tax our ingenuity to say anything new of Mr. J. Scott Keltie's 'Statesman's Year-Book' for 1894 (Macmillan). The editor calls attention especially to the recasting of the naval sections. We will suggest his adding to the list of non-official publications respecting the United States Schouler's and Rhodes's histories, Poore's 'Political Register and Congressional Directory,' Edward McPherson's invaluable 'Handbook of Politics,' published in the even years; Appletons' 'Cyclopædia of American Biography,' and Baedeker's 'United States.' It might also be well to take notice of the American translation of Tocqueville's 'Démocratie en Amérique,' here cited only in the original.

The contents of the third and concluding volume of the 'Orations and Addresses of George William Curtis,' edited by Prof. Norton (Harpers), are wholly of a memorial nature—one half relating to the civil war and the Revolution, the other to eminent deceased civilians, including in this rough division a centennial local historical discourse, and the tribute to Burns at the unveiling of his statue in Central Park. The most delicate of all these tasks—and it was a labor of love—was the eulogy of Wendell Phillips delivered before the city authorities of Boston in 1884. Mr. Curtis's tact and discrimination were never better shown. Sumner, Bryant, and Garfield he had already commemorated; and with Lowell he was to cap his own literary monument in the year which took him from us. With the Brooklyn address on his lifelong friend the volume closes.

A correspondent writes to point out a wild misprint on page 301 of the second volume of Mr. Lowell's 'Letters,' a book which shows from end to end evidences of the minutest care in its making. "Resuscitate Sambo" the writer is made to say, where, as the context concerns Don Quixote, "resuscitate Sancho" must be meant. But merely human skill and watchfulness appear to be quite inadequate to guard against errors of the press. In the present instance, in spite of whatever natural annoyance he might feel at the fatality, one fancies that Mr. Lowell himself would hardly be able to keep from laughing at the notion of such a queer waking-up of the wrong passenger.

Accident has so much to do with the production of biographies that it is hardly strange that so popular a writer as the late Dr. J. G. Holland has but just been commemorated in a formal Life ('Josiah Gilbert Holland,' by Mrs. H. M. Plunkett; New York: Scribners). The little volume before us betrays the admirer, but not the practised book-maker or competent portraitist. It fills a gap, but it is not a literary monument. Still, one may get from it some idea of Dr. Holland's character and achievement. There are several portraits and views.

The student who is familiar with Prof. Thomas Preston's 'Theory of Light' will welcome the appearance of his 'Theory of Heat' (Macmillan). The plan of the work is similar to that employed in the former volume. An historical account is given of the subject, and then the classical researches are described, together with an outline of the mathematical theories. From all this the general reader can get a comprehensive view, while the specialist is provided with a valuable book for reference.

Prof. Glazebrook's little treatise on 'Light' (Macmillan) is one of the Cambridge Natural Science Manuals. It embodies the author's experience in conducting a course in the Cavendish Laboratory. We remark that the experiments are not severely quantitative—indeed, are in general qualitative—whereas in American physical laboratories the tendency is to make all work quantitative. Prof. Glazebrook is well known as an authority in his specialty; his text-book is correct and well arranged.

'Telephone Lines and their Properties,' by William J. Hopkins, Professor of Physics in the Drexel Institute of Art, Science, and Industry (Longmans), is intended, according to the preface, for the practical man; but the author has also endeavored to make it serve as a basis for a lecture course to students. He has therefore given, in addition to practical hints to telephone engineers, a certain amount of the theory of periodic electrical currents. The practical part of the book is the result to a large degree, we infer, of personal experience, and is therefore good. The theoretical portion would afford a very meagre basis for a lecture course to even elementary students. No student intending to become an electrical engineer, and especially a telephone engineer, should be led to suppose that he can make any solid advance without a good knowledge of mathematics. The valuable work of Oliver Heavyside in telephony is not mentioned. In spite of the abstruse form in which Heavyside has put his results, there is much in his work that should be referred to in even an elementary treatise on telephone lines.

Mr. Philip Atkinson, in his 'Electric Transformation of Power and its Application by the Electric Motor, including Electric Railway Construction' (D. Van Nostrand Co.), aims to give in untechnical language the main facts pertinent to his theme. The book contains short descriptions, accompanied by illustrations, of the principal dynamos and motors now in vogue. The author has excluded all historical matter and all reference to antiquated forms of electrical apparatus; and the student or general reader who desires to know what dynamos and motors are now in practical use will find this little treatise valuable. One could take exception to the language of the definitions given. For instance, it is stated that "electric potential" is that condition in bodies which represents the relative electric energy manifested by them. One could hardly obtain a clear idea of electrostatic potential and magnetic potential from this, and it would have been better to limit the definition of potential to the mere statement that in general it represents the work done in bringing a unit charge or a unit pole from infinity up to the given point. It is stated, in the paragraph on storage-battery traction, that, under this system, the power station and motors cost just the same for construction and maintenance as the trolley or conduit systems. This has not been conclusively proved.

Last August we noticed the Bureau of Education's World's Fair exhibit of 5,000 volumes for a popular library (now permanently preserved at the Bureau in Washington), and the accompanying classed catalogue. The dictionary catalogue has just been added to the others in No. 200 of the Bureau's publications, and now this stout missionary volume of 600 pages will, we hope, begin its travels *in partibus*, promoting the founding of public libraries and revealing the arts of cataloguing and classifying.

Visitors to Rome will be benefited by knowing of the useful little series of handbooks to the Roman collections of painting and statuary (the Edelweiss Collection) which are being brought out by Prof. Venturi of the Italian Ministry of Public Instruction, the competent pupil and successor of the veteran Cavalcaselle, now retired from the headship of the Department of Early Italian Art, by reason of age (Rome: La Società Laziale). Prof. Venturi's series, condensing in handy form the conclusions of the united intelligence of that admirable department of the fine arts of the Italian Ministry of Public Instruction, gives the important facts of the lives and careers of the painters, and the relations of their schools, with such facts as are known of the particular works, as now identified. The latest volume of the Edelweiss Collection is that for the Borghese Gallery.

Dr. Moriz Heyne's 'Deutsches Wörterbuch' again gives signs of life in the section containing R–Setzen (Leipzig: Hirzel; New York: Westermann). Its distinguishing feature is its abundant citations from the best literary sources, from Luther and Hans Sachs to Heyse, Treitschke, and Ranke. Of the nearly 600 pages in this half-volume we have examined seven consecutive decades in order to note the frequency with which Goethe and Schiller are drawn upon, and in but one of the seventy pages did both names fail to appear, and that bore Schiller's. A like but not so pervasive a companionship is observable in the case of Bismarck and Moltke, who seem, of the men of to-day, most often quoted in their terse and stirring diction. "Setzen wir Deutschland, so zu sagen, in den *Sattel!*" says the man of blood and iron, "reiten wird es schon können!" These illustrative passages are clearly printed in Roman type, with volume and page indications. The completion of this dictionary is much to be desired.

M. Joseph Reinach has collected a series of extracts illustrative of the highest forms of eloquence in France from Mirabeau's time to the present day. The book, which bears the title 'L'Eloquence française depuis la Révolution jusqu'à nos jours,' recalls many a name almost forgotten and many a talent very brilliant in its day. It is essentially a class-book, but the excellence of the extracts and notes will commend the volume to the general reader.

Jules Carrara is a belated romanticist who, in his 'Heures Intellectuelles,' first series (Pa-

ris: Fischbacher), writes pages of very watery criticism on French poetry in general and Victor Hugo in particular. It is sincerely to be hoped that the series will stop here, for there is nothing to be learned from such effusions.

Calmann Lévy has published in convenient book form M. Brunetière's *discours de réception* and the Comte d'Haussonville's reply. The discourse is all the more interesting in view of the journalistic discontent it evoked, and also of the noisy and stupid student demonstrations against the great professor and essayist.

Gyp's 'Le Journal d'un Philosophe' (Paris: Charpentier) is a delightfully impertinent and witty relation of the Panama scandal and other political affairs of the time. It makes capital reading.

Prof. E. J. James of the Wharton School of Finance and Economy, Philadelphia, desires the addresses of all students of Halle now resident in America who would like to join in a congratulatory message to the University on occasion of its two hundredth anniversary, to be celebrated in August next. The message will be submitted to each person before his name is appended to it. Upwards of fifty signatures are already assured.

Following close in the wake of the American report of the committee of ten on Secondary Education, comes the announcement of a royal commission of fourteen men and three women to consider what are the best methods of establishing a well-organized system of secondary education in England, "taking into account existing deficiencies and having regard to such local sources of revenue from endowments or otherwise as are available for this purpose, and to make recommendations accordingly." The appointment of women on a royal commission on education is without precedent, but is an innovation which, a correspondent states, "has been received with general satisfaction throughout the country." The three female members of the commission are Mrs. Henry Sidgwick, principal of Newnham College, Cambridge; Mrs. Sophie Bryant, D.S.C., mistress of the North London Collegiate School for Girls and the well-known author of a suggestive little book, 'Educational Ends,' and Lady Frederick Cavendish, a member of the "classes" who has identified herself with various efforts to extend educational influences among the "masses." Besides these ladies, the personnel of this royal commission includes notable representatives of such other special parties in interest as the universities, the London County Council, the school boards and elementary teachers' associations, the public schools, the Teachers' Guild and College of Preceptors, the Nonconformists' establishments, and the working classes, its chairman being the Rt. Hon. James Bryce, M.P.

Those who are interested in the courses in economics at the Plymouth (Mass.) School of Applied Ethics, which will open on July 12, can obtain already a list of lecturers and topics from the secretary, S. Burns Weston, 118 South Twelfth Street, Philadelphia. The programme of dates is yet to appear.

We receive from the Interior Department seven samples of the Geological Survey's work in New York for the great Atlas of the United States, whose publication is still long to be deferred. The scale is uniformly 1:62,500—provokingly near an inch to a mile. There are two major sheets, one representing New York city and vicinity, with a range from Hastings to Long Branch, and from Flushing and New Rochelle to the Orange Mountains, including Newark and Paterson. A not inconsiderable part of this sheet coincides with the State Atlas of the New Jersey Geological Survey. The other represents Albany, and embraces Troy and Schenectady, ranging from Bemis Heights, Saratoga Lake, and Ballston Spa to Castleton on the Hudson. Intermediate reaches of this river are delineated on the adjacent quarter-degree sheets, called "West Point," including Peekskill, and "Poughkeepsie," including Fishkill; and on that called "Kaaterskill," which takes in the Mountain and Kaaterskill Houses and Onteora and Twilight Parks. We have, besides, a "Fort Henry" sheet, showing the upper part of Lake Champlain, Crown Point, Vergennes (Vt.), and Westport (N. Y.), and the adjacent sheet showing the glacial region about Elizabethtown. The topography is marked by contour levels at twenty-foot intervals, and the common roads and railroads are laid down. We judge that the engraving of these handsome maps has been executed by the Survey's own staff in Washington.

A lady who has been examining Elias Dexter's photographic reproduction (New York, 1862) of St.-Mémin's American portraits, notifies us, as a matter of general interest in the case of this invaluable series, of two erroneous ascriptions which she has discovered. No. 26, "Mrs. Yeaton," 1807, should be Mrs. John Thomas Ricketts; No. 693, "Mrs. Alex. Smyth," 1805, should be "Mrs. William Newton" of Alexandria, Va. Our informant owns the coppers and proofs of these portraits of her kinswomen.

—In preparing for the Columbian Exhibition, our Government applied to Pope Leo XIII. for photographic copies of documents in the Vatican archives showing the Papal action in regard to America during its early history. The Pope assented, and the photographs were exhibited at Chicago. Mr. J. C. Heywood, an American (Harv. Coll., 1855), to whom, as one of the Pope's chamberlains, or, as he describes himself in the dedication, "e cubiculariis S.S.D.N. ense et pallio distinctis," the application was made, has now issued an edition of the photographs with the text printed on the opposite page—an assistance for which those who are not versed in the reading of crabbed writing and skilful in the expansion of mediæval contractions will be grateful. That is to say, all who see the volume; for as only twenty-five copies were struck off, "for presentation to the more illustrious libraries," it will not reach many eyes. Prefixed is a portrait of Pope Alexander VI., photographed from the painting by Bernardo Pinturicchio in the Borghese palace in the Vatican, which shows, what was already well known, that there was no truth in the story that Alexander had his mistress, Rosa Vanozza, serve as the model for the Virgin to whom he was praying, since the Virgin is not represented at all in the picture. Pope Leo was generous in his response to the request of the United States, and did not limit the photographing to documents concerning the Columbian discovery. The first ten relate to a bishopric in Greenland beginning nearly three centuries before Columbus, in 1206, and ending in 1492. Three contain the famous partition of the New World between Spain and Portugal in 1493 by Alexander VI.; two praise Bartholomew and Diego Columbus; and eight prescribe the sending of missionaries and bishops for the conversion of the American savages. Most of the documents have already been printed elsewhere, but of course it is more convenient to consult them together, and it is interesting to see them in the chirography of the time. It is to be regretted, therefore, that the edition is so extremely small. One would like to learn which are the favored libraries. We only know that the British Museum is one of them.

—The field of negro folk-lore, so delightfully revealed to the public a few years ago by Mr. Joel Chandler Harris, has already borne excellent fruit in the works also of Mr. Charles C. Jones, jr., and Miss Mary A. Owen. It is interesting to note that the value of the material already collected has been recognized in Europe: in Sudre's recent work, for example, 'Les Sources du Roman de Renart,' the negro animal tales of this country are constantly cited. At the suggestion of Miss Alice M. Bacon, some of the teachers and resident graduates of the Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute at Hampton, Va., have lately formed a Folk-Lore Society, and have sent out to the Hampton graduates a circular provocative of research in the line of folk-tales, including animal tales and the like, customs, traditions of African ancestry, or of transportation to America, African words surviving in speech or song, ceremonies and superstitions, proverbs and sayings, and songs, with words or music or both. This circular has already produced an effect, and some of the material collected under its influence has been published in the monthly *Southern Workman and Hampton School Record* (January-March, 1894, vol. xxii., Nos. 1-3). It is greatly to be hoped that the Hampton Society, without in any way losing its local character or independence, may be affiliated to the American Folk-Lore Society, which is so deserving of encouragement, and whose journal offers a wider circulation than any local paper can do. It would also be well to control in some scientific manner the collection of material, and the excellent circular already sent out might be supplemented by a more elaborate *questionnaire*, models for which may be found in the *Annuaire des traditions populaires*, Paris, 1887 (by P. Sébillot), and in Mr. Gomme's 'Handbook of Folk-Lore' (London, 1890).

—Readers of scientific literature can hardly fail to notice the very different practices of American, English, and Continental writers in giving credit to their own countrymen for scientific work. The general rule is, that the French writer never attributes any work to a foreigner if he can find an excuse for crediting a compatriot with it; and the same was true with English writers until quite recently. Germans, on the other hand, have aimed at strict impartiality, not only for the sake of truthfulness itself, but perhaps to avoid exposing themselves to the imputation of ignorance of what was done abroad. In the case of American writers, however, a curious reversal of the English and French practice used sometimes to be noticed in the avoidance of any unnecessary allusion to the works of their countrymen, and even a preference for attributing discoveries to foreigners. We supposed that this practice had about died out, but there has just come to our notice, in the recently completed vol. v. of the publications of the Astronomical Society of the Pacific, a curious piece of evidence that it is not extinct on the Pacific coast. In his anniversary address as president of the Royal Society of London, Lord Kelvin described the work of two American astronomers in discovering and explaining the law of periodic variation of the latitude, in the following terms:

"Some time previously it had been found by Mr. S. C. Chandler that the irregular variations of latitude which had been discovered in different observatories during the last fifteen

years seemed to follow a period of about 427 days, instead of the 306 days given by Peters's and Maxwell's dynamical theory, on the supposition of the earth being wholly a rigid body. And now the German observations, although not giving so long a period as Chandler's, quite confirm the result that, whatever approximation to following a period there is, in the variations of latitude, it is a period largely exceeding the old estimate of 306 days. Newcomb, in a letter which I received from him last December, gave what seems to me to be undoubtedly the true explanation of this apparent discrepancy from dynamical theory, attributing it to elastic yielding of the earth as a whole. He added a suggestion, especially interesting to myself, that investigation of periodic variations of latitude may prove to be the best means of determining approximately the rigidity of the earth. As it is, we have now, for the first time, what seems to be a quite decisive demonstration of elastic yielding in the earth as a whole, under the influence of a deforming force, whether of centrifugal force around a varying axis, as in the present case, or of tide-generating influences of the sun and moon."

On page 43 of the publication in question, in a notice from the Lick Observatory, prepared by members of the staff, an abstract of Lord Kelvin's conclusions purports to be given, in which the paragraph referring to Chandler is wholly omitted, although forming the most important part; and in the paragraph relating to Newcomb's work words are omitted from Kelvin's statement in a way that might be called garbling, because it makes him appear as claiming for himself a discovery which he attributed to another.

—In connection with the subject of the variation of latitudes attention may be called to an important memoir by Bakhuyzen of Leyden presented to the Royal Academy of Sciences February 24, confirming Chandler's period from observations. Thirty-five years of observations at Pulkova, Greenwich, Berlin, Strassburg, Leyden, Potsdam, and elsewhere have conducted him to a periodicity of about 430⅔ days, with no evidence whatever of a change in the length of this period, and a value of its coefficient equal to 0″.168. The author also presented the results of his discussion of tidal observations at the Dutch station of Helder in the years 1855–1892, which give indication of a marked fluctuation of the sea level amounting to ⅝ inch in a period of about fourteen months, or practically the same as that of the latitude variation. The two results may be regarded as in entire accord, and seem to prove that the rigidity of the earth is about 1½ times as great as that of steel.

—The coming summer season is to be perhaps the most busy in arctic exploration of any year since the closing of the expeditions which were sent out in search of Sir John Franklin. Seemingly, there will be four main expeditions in the field at one time—those of Peary, Nansen, Wellman, and Jackson. Three of these have declared openly for the "farthest north," and it is to be assumed that Mr. Peary, whose main exploration centres about the delineation of the land-masses lying to the north of Greenland, will not hesitate to look poleward if a proper condition of the Frozen Sea presents itself. Indeed, it is known that he has prepared himself for just this contingency. At this writing, if he has successfully carried out the programme which he arranged before his departure, he is at Independence Bay, in lat. 81° 37′, preparing for or already undertaking the unknown journey northward. From last accounts received concerning the Nansen expedition it is almost safe to assume that the daring Norwegian has already reached the Siberian "drift" to which the fate of the *Fram* is to be consigned for a period, possibly, of three years. Mr. Wellman has selected for his "dash for the pole" the Parry route of 1827, taking to the Frozen Sea north of Spitzbergen. It will be interesting to note how far the experience of three-quarters of a century and the improvements in various directions which have been made during that period will tend to promote success, especially in the case of a leader who is an absolute novice in arctic exploration. The Spitzbergen route—or the nearly parallel Franz-Joseph Land route, which is to be followed by Mr. Jackson—is by many considered to be the most practicable avenue leading northward; and in a good season, with proper men and equipments, no difficulty ought to be experienced in far surpassing Parry's brilliant record of 82° 45′.

—An expedition supplemental to that of Mr. Peary will also be despatched this summer, under the auspices of the Geographical Club of Philadelphia, to Northwest Greenland, mainly with the purpose of bringing back the party now quartered there. It is expected that Mr. Peary will return to Bowdoin Bay in the last week of August, prepared for the homeward journey in the first week of September. This revival in arctic exploration will hardly be looked upon with favor by those who had believed that the end to such "useless" ventures had come with the Greely disaster, or who agreed with the late Commander Weyprecht that the arctic exploration of the future should leave the Polar question out. The Philadelphia Geographical Club also fathers an expedition to Labrador, which is to go out in June, under the leadership of Mr. C. E. Hite, a member of the Peary Relief Expedition of 1892.

—Mr. Henry Bradley has completed the first letter assigned to him as co-editor of the 'New English Dictionary,' and the thin instalment *Everybody–Ezod* just issued (Macmillan) shows that the letter E requires 488 pages. This allows D, on which Dr. Murray is at work and which is to be bound up with E as vol. iii., some 800 pages. The first two volumes, A–B and C, show a continuous pagination, but D–E will have two sets of folios—a matter of no consequence, or the very slightest. The tail end of E, with its shoal of compounds of ex-, extra-, etc., is superficially not very attractive, but it really possesses much interest for the student, if only in the realm of obsolete words and meanings. The historical notices of *exchequer*, *excise* (with its American usage confined to the tax on liquors), and *executive* (also in its special American constitutional significance) arrest attention; and there is a discussion of *Excelsior* as used adverbially on the State seal of New York, and by Longfellow in his poem, which leaves the latter instance a clear solecism, and the former in doubt. But the poet at least has given an abiding extension to the Latin; and was not that other American a poet who named the cushion stuffing of curled shavings which was patented in 1868 "excelsior"? Our British cousins make no claim to this word. Hawthorne in 1837 ventured *everyhow*, and no predecessor is cited; Jefferson leads the citations for the use of *extra* as an adjective (1780), Campbell's 'Rhetoric' in 1776 pronouncing this abbreviation (for *extraordinary*) a barbarism, along with *penult* (for *penultimate*). *Exterritoriality* and *extraterritoriality* both go back to Wheaton in 1836. Finally, *exclamation-point* is peculiar to American grammar; and *extend a* (promissory) *note* has passed unrecorded because also an Americanism, we presume.

—Syntactically, we find worth observing that all the examples under *everybody* exhibit it coupled with a distributive pronoun, as (1530) Lord Berners, "Everye bodye was in theyr lodgynges," (1820) Byron, "Everybody does and says what they please," and (1866) Ruskin, "Everybody seems to recover their spirits." Here the verb is in the singular, but we also have (1759) Bishop Warburton, "Every body else I meet with are full ready to go of themselves." The rule appears not to hold with *everything*. *In evidence*, taken over from the French, is first assigned to *Blackwood*, "18—," an indefiniteness seldom tolerated in this Dictionary; but we may also read under *excisemanship* "1837 Lockhart, Life Scott (F. Hall)," in default of chapter and verse. *Exploit* in the French sense is first met with in the *New Monthly Magazine* of 1838, and Carlyle next found it handy in 1847. *Ex post facto*, we are reminded, should properly be written *ex postfacto*. *Ex-libris* came into being in 1880, and already in 1890 there is a *Journal of the Ex-Libris Society*. For *university extension* we are referred to Mansel in 1850. George Augustus Sala is quoted for *Exposition* in 1868, and as the latest possible use of this naturalized word we have "The World's Columbian Exposition at Chicago in 1893." *Evolution* begins with Lyell in 1832; and Spencer flashes it on in 1852 to Darwin (1859), who then creates *evolutionist*. *Eye* is the most considerable single word in this instalment: its diverse forms almost baffle enumeration. Have they all been caught, or are there still some which may be styled, *pace* Sir Thomas Browne and Dr. Murray, *extradictionary*?

TAINE'S ORIGINS OF CONTEMPORARY FRANCE.

Le Régime Moderne. Tome II. [Les Origines de la France Contemporaine.] Par H. Taine. Paris. 1894.

The Modern Régime. Translated by John Durand. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1894.

WHAT estimate should we form of the great work on which Taine's reputation must ultimately rest? Only after the lapse of years can a final answer be given to this inquiry. Time, and time alone, tests the character of literary as of other achievements. Still, the eighteen years which have passed since the publication of the first volume of 'Les Origines de la France Contemporaine,' combined with the fact that each of Taine's seven volumes is marked by the same merits and the same defects, makes it possible to pass a preliminary judgment on the result of his labors. His work, it is true, is incomplete, yet its general bearing and effect are known to every student; and while every one must regret that Taine did not bring his analysis of the influences which have produced modern France to a close, still his warmest admirers must admit the high improbability that an additional volume would have added to or taken anything material from our author's high reputation.

That Taine has achieved much must be patent to even the sternest of critics. He has, in the first place, gathered together an immense store of authentic and invaluable information about the Revolution and its results. Every page of the seven volumes teems with facts. To any one who possesses the least experience of the labor involved in original research, and of the equal, or greater, labor involved in lucid exposition of the results

obtained by research, there is something appalling in the thought of the toil which must have gone to the production, not of a chapter, but even of a page, of Taine's monumental treatise. Readers who, when young, delighted in Carlyle's 'French Revolution,' must, in their mature age, when brought face to face with Taine's researches, feel ashamed of having been deluded into accepting a didactic rhetorician as a serious historian. Taine, again, has not only collected facts, he has made them visible to that very dull class known as the intelligent public. But he has achieved much more than this: he has, by the mere force of truth, cut at the root of a thousand popular delusions. Louis Blanc, Michelet, Carlyle—even Quinet, whose insight is in many respects extraordinary—though disagreeing in many things, have one characteristic in common. They are all victims of one delusion: they all assume that the Revolutionary leaders, whatever their demerits and however terrible their wickedness, were men of gigantic mould, gifted with astounding genius, and inspired by tremendous passions. This assumption is the basis of the whole Revolutionary legend, and this assumption Taine has proved to be false. The meanness, the sordidness, the incompetence of the Revolutionists become, to any one who has studied Taine's book, at least as visible as their wickedness.

The moral of his writings is this: The violence of revolution no doubt occasionally opens new paths by which obscure talent may rise to eminence, but it far more certainly frees from restraint the covetousness, the sordidness, the brutality, and the cowardice of human nature, and lets us see, if we have eyes to use, how terrible is the condition of any State where the bonds which keep in constraint the wickedness and folly of mankind are for a moment relaxed, and all that is vile and stupid in man is allowed to come to the front. Our meaning may be shown by one instance only among the scores of illustrations by which Taine enforces his teaching. The horror of the September massacres is now acknowledged by every man of common humanity; but Taine makes it apparent that the cowardice and folly which tolerated, were at least as great as the recklessness and the bestial brutality which perpetrated, this slaughter of innocent men and women. The massacres—and the same thing holds good of the whole Reign of Terror—brought no benefit whatever to France. Not the cruelty of the Parisian mob, but the bravery of French soldiers saved France from destruction. It is the vainest fancy that the massacres repelled a single Prussian or Austrian regiment. What the murderers of September achieved was to insure the failure of the Revolution. Cruelty and treachery mean, and always will mean, impolicy and folly. This is the lesson enforced by Taine's volumes; and to have driven it home so that it can be neither neglected nor disputed is his noblest achievement as an historical moralist.

Though no candid critic will underrate the industry and thoroughness of Taine's research, it is difficult even for an admirer to consider the whole effect of Taine's labors without a sense of disappointment. Taine has not produced a history, or anything like a history, of the Revolution. Nor is there the least reason to suppose that, had he been permitted by fate to bring his book to a close, he would have left to the world what the world still wants, a thorough and systematic narrative of the Revolution in France. The facts he has accumulated together, and the indications he has given of the sources which must be explored by any one in search of additional knowledge, will be invaluable to some future writer. No wise man will ever tell the tale of the Revolution without consulting Taine's volumes again and again; but it is not in Taine's volumes that that tale is to be found. They are fragmentary. About particular topics, even about particular men—such, for instance, as Danton and Napoleon—Taine's pages contain many details which are of value. His hints—they are not more than hints—about the condition of France after the fall of Robespierre, deserve to be carefully followed up. But the defect of his work is that it is fragmentary; no one could understand its bearing who did not carry in his mind a general outline of Revolutionary history; and—what is really singular—Taine, after piling together facts and anecdotes illustrating some aspect of the Revolution in which he is interested, does not properly sum up their effect. From Taine's chapters the reader derives a vivid notion of the horrors of the Reign of Terror; but, after a careful examination of Taine's statements, we have found it impossible to obtain from our author any definite statement as to the number of victims who perished under the Jacobin tyranny. On this point, the ascertainment of which is of crucial importance, a few pages of Mr. Morse Stephens's history are more valuable than the whole of Taine's analysis of Jacobin supremacy.

Taine, it may be said, did not intend to write a history. So be it. But his want of historical perception mars his success even as a writer on the theory of the Revolution. You cannot take one part of a great movement and give a fair account of that part without at any rate some reference to the whole. Mr. Morse Stephens's doctrine that violence and tyranny at Paris in some way contributed to the repulse of the German invaders, is a mere paradox, though he is undoubtedly right in holding that the Reign of Terror is misunderstood unless you take account of the struggle of France for national existence. Yet it would be possible to read Taine's volumes without gathering from them that, during the agony of the Revolution, France was engaged in a struggle with external foes.

'Les Origines de la France Contemporaine,' however, was never intended to be a history. It must not, therefore, be tested by the criteria which we apply to the works of Gibbon, of Macaulay, or of Michelet. It is a book of political philosophy elucidated by lessons drawn from the Revolutionary annals of France. Taine's speculations may be most fairly compared with the speculations of Tocqueville, though such a comparison does not place him in a very favorable light. The permanent reputation of a political theorist depends on the truth and the originality of his thoughts. It is a touch of originality or genius which made Tocqueville a classic from the first moment that his writings became known to the public. Can any one assert with truth that Taine has added any true and novel ideas to the political thought of the day? In every word he writes about the *ancien régime* he is nothing but a disciple of Tocqueville, and, when Tocqueville's guidance fails him, Taine exhibits a want of any coherent thought about the progress of the Revolution. Tocqueville introduced to the world one or two definite ideas—such, for example, as the conception of the survival in France of sentiments and even of institutions derived from the time of the Bourbon monarchy—which influence our whole way of looking at the Revolution. Quinet has shown that the Revolutionary leaders were at every turn thwarted by an incapacity for solving the ecclesiastical problems of the time. Doniol, again—to take a writer not exactly of the first class—impresses upon his readers the all-important fact that to reform the land tenure of France was, from the beginning of the Revolution and for many years subsequently, as urgent a necessity and as difficult a feat as it is to-day to reform the land tenure of Ireland. What, again, we ask, are the new and true speculative ideas to be derived from Taine? We are inclined to answer, None. Yet, after all, this reply may be unjust. It is possible that in England or America Taine is of necessity judged unfairly, for he has taken up the commonplaces of English political doctrine and illustrated them from the annals of modern France. Burke, Macaulay, and—though the combination is an odd one—Herbert Spencer have, it may be conjectured, supplied him in the main with his anti-Revolutionary principles. No one, of course, can suppose for a moment that Taine has not thought, and thought vigorously, for himself, but he is one of those thinkers whose own reflections lead them inevitably to the conclusions already reached by English liberal conservatism.

Taine's true aim, however, it may be said, was neither to write a history nor to put forward new and striking ideas as to the progress of society. His avowed object was, by analyzing the ideas and the institutions of the Revolution and the Empire, to account for the condition of modern France. This is, it may be presumed, a fair statement of the end he wished to attain. He desired to look at French society from a purely scientific point of view. His object was knowledge. But here again it is extremely doubtful whether he has attained his end. Two characteristics detract from the scientific value of Taine's work. The one is that Taine's treatment of the Revolution is far too polemical; his position is always the attitude of an assailant. At one moment the earlier Revolutionists, at another the Jacobins, or Napoleon, and now, it may be, French education as it exists, are the object of his attack. His criticism is trenchant, it is always effective, it is often just. But hostile criticism is not impartial investigation. The polemical attitude is inconsistent with the scientific attitude. Hence, though every reader must be convinced of Taine's earnest desire to see everything in the light of truth, and to free himself from the influence of partiality and passion, it is almost impossible not to feel that Taine's judgments lack perfect justice. It is hard to deal too severely with the errors and crimes of Napoleon. Still, it is clear that, had Napoleon not possessed great qualities for which Taine hardly gives him credit, he would never have risen to his eminence among the rulers of mankind. The vices of the Revolutionists or the weakness and the follies of their opponents hardly admit of exaggeration; yet even on this point Taine in directly exaggerates. He never brings clearly into view the dilemma from which each party in succession found it all but impossible to escape. Reliance on the support of the Parisian mob meant connivance at outrage and crimes which made it impossible to establish free institutions in France. Repression of the Parisian mob meant reaction, and, probably enough, the restoration of despotism. Just because Taine will not recognize the existence of this dilemma, he is unjust in his judgment of every party. Take, for example, the odious device by which the Convention prolonged its own power after its dissolution, and survived in part among the Assembly which succeeded it. No adventurers ever perpetrated a viler fraud on the nation, yet even the scoundrels of the

Convention had something to urge in mitigation of extreme condemnation. The history of France for the last hundred years is proof enough that abdication on the part of the Revolutionists would have led to a reaction fatal to all the best results of the Revolution.

The second characteristic which detracts from the scientific worth of Taine's speculations is that, though he supplies his readers with facts, with anecdotes, with references, with quotations, and the like, he does not provide his readers with the means of estimating the worth of the evidence on which his conclusions rest. To give one example only of our meaning, it would certainly add greatly to the weight of the statements as to the horrors committed during the Reign of Terror to know that the truth of these statements is in every case quite beyond the reach of doubt. But since a good number of these statements were made at a time of reaction against Jacobinism, one is not absolutely certain that the Jacobins themselves may not have been the victims of slander. Certainly nothing is too devilish to be credible of the ruffians sent forth by the Convention to terrorize France. Still, the proverb that the devil himself may be painted blacker than he is, contains a profound truth which an investigator into the history of revolutions neglects at his peril.

If Taine has produced neither a history, nor a body of new and striking political speculation, nor a scientific analysis of the Revolutionary movement, he has assuredly not labored in vain. His seven volumes are much more than a monument of unrivalled industry; they are a storehouse of information; they are an exposure of baseless traditions and of popular delusions.

TWO ENGLISHWOMEN.—II.

The Story of Two Noble Lives, being Memorials of Charlotte, Countess Canning, and Louisa, Marchioness of Waterford. By Augustus J. C. Hare. 3 vols. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 1894.

THE third volume of 'The Story of Two Noble Lives' deals chiefly with Lady Waterford, whom Mr. Hare calls by the ridiculous name of Our Lady. It is crowded with trifling details, and contains much which is mere fulsome praise.

The striking beauty of Louisa Stuart, set off by the fair hair which fell far below her knees, formed a decided contrast to the dark hair and pensive grace of her sister, Lady Canning. Louisa had many admirers, but at the age of twenty-one she had seen no one for whom she could care. In 1839 Lady Stuart de Rothesay took her daughter to the famous Eglinton tournament, at which Henry, third Marquis of Waterford, acted as one of the knights. He was known, from his many strange exploits, as the Wild Lord Waterford; he hated society and lived only for sport. To all appearance there could have been no congenial topic between him and Louisa Stuart, who was devoted to art and thoroughly enjoyed society. Yet he fell in love with her at first sight, and she by no means discouraged him. When Lord Waterford, too shy to make any advances himself, induced his sister to write for him, Lady Stuart de Rothesay said to her daughter: "I have had the most extraordinary letter from Lady Sarah Ingestre, a proposal for you from her brother. Of course, I must lose no time in writing a refusal." To her astonishment, Louisa replied: "Oh, but wait a little. I should like to think about it first." Lady Stuart could not believe that Louisa was serious, and wrote to her husband (then Ambassador at St. Petersburg) of Lord Waterford's "boisterous, rough manners, without the slightest interest in any concerns within doors, or within the doors of Parliament especially." After many demurs on the part of Louisa Stuart's family, and many representations that in order to win her Lord Waterford must give up the races and steeplechases in which he nearly always met with dangerous accidents, he was accepted, and the marriage took place in 1842, three years after the Eglinton tournament. Lord Waterford was devoted to his home at Curraghmore, in the south of Ireland, and not only could not bear to leave it himself, but could not bear his wife to be away. She spent only a very short time in England each spring, and in later life much regretted having been so divided (for the seventeen years during which Ireland was her home) from all her family and friends. Lady Waterford's life at Curraghmore was most monotonous, and her days were generally spent in solitude. Lord Waterford seldom returned from hunting before ten o'clock at night; he would then go to bed for a couple of hours and dine at midnight. Yet Lady Waterford was always ready to welcome him, and did not even complain of the weary weeks she had to spend in a wretched hunting-box, where she had no occupation whatever out of doors. At Curraghmore she improved the cabins on the estate, set up a woollen manufactory, supplied lime for whitewashing, seeds for gardens, and even gave lessons to the peasants in making beds and cleaning rooms. She laid out a garden, designed terraces, built a church (the windows for which she painted herself), and although Lord Waterford could not endure having visitors, she was always occupied with drawing or reading, and never seemed to miss the society which she had so much enjoyed. She even wrote: "I could scarcely say how happy I feel all day. Sometimes I think it is too much, and that much trial must come some day, and then I shall know how little fitted I am to meet it."

Lord Waterford was devoted to his wife, and was guided and influenced by her in all things. A few weeks after their marriage she had a terrible accident when out driving with him, and was for a time in imminent danger. He would allow no one but himself to cut off her beautiful hair; part of it he used to frame a portrait of her by Landseer, and he desired that the rest might be buried with him. When Lady Waterford recovered, her hair grew again till it more than touched the ground. The great sorrow of Lady Waterford's life was that she had no children, but, although regretting this till her death, with an almost passionate longing, she devoted herself to the children of Lord Waterford's brother, and to those of his sister, Lady Sarah Ingestre, afterwards Countess of Shrewsbury. In the terrible Irish famine of 1847 Lord and Lady Waterford exerted themselves to the utmost in giving relief of all sorts; Lady Waterford's action being publicly acknowledged in the House of Commons. It was a shock to them when, in 1848, their tenantry turned against them, under the influence of Smith O'Brien and others. The house at Curraghmore was fortified with cannon, the windows were barricaded, twenty-five soldiers were quartered inside, eighteen special constables watched day and night on the roof, and the occupants lived in a state of siege. Lord Waterford went about armed to the teeth, chasing mobs and rallying those men on whom he could rely. Lady Waterford could not go out at all, for a band of men (misnamed Fenians by Mr. Hare) had threatened to carry her off to the hills, or perish in the attempt. In an attack on the village several men were killed, and an attack on the house was hourly expected. But matters gradually quieted down, and in July, 1849, Lady Waterford was able to write that "the whole house has recovered a peaceable appearance." She returned to her former occupations, drawing being her greatest pleasure. One day she "put a new mouth to an old family picture instead of one which Waterford had cut out to stick a cigar into it."

Lord Waterford frequently had terrible accidents out riding; and in March, 1859, he was thrown from his horse while hunting and killed on the spot. He left Ford Castle, his property on the Northumbrian Border, to his widow, and on the death of her mother she succeeded to Highcliffe, a small estate on the Hampshire coast, near Bournemouth. Between these places Lady Waterford passed the thirty-two years of her widowhood. She did not resemble the old French lady whom she heard describe a widow's cap as "le vrai bonnet de la liberté," and both her mother and sister justly feared that she would be the victim of minds far inferior to her own. Lord Canning's early death was an especial loss to her, for she had looked forward to his being "a real brother, counsellor, and guide." Lady Waterford bitterly felt the loneliness of her life, and constantly refers to it in her letters.

"In my life it is the want of home affection which is so despairing, and the feeling that *never* again may I have it. Friends are kind, but friends *cannot* do to fill the home blank. . . . I live amongst the shadows of all who are gone. . . . You don't know how sad it is always to think of *things*, and not *lives*, . . . feeling so *very* lonely, without one soul to sympathize, and always obliged to swallow every little trouble."

Yet Lady Waterford was full of energy, and never had an unoccupied moment. At Ford she restored the castle, rebuilt the village, made new roads, constructed bridges, built schools, planted the bare hillsides, improved the gardens, and erected a beautiful fountain to the memory of her husband. She wrote:

"I love old things too, but I rejoice in the *providence* of progress, without which England would be such a country as Spain—a blank among nations—and I can see a desolate waste made frightful [*sic* for fruitful?] (its beauty lost) with a most utilitarian delight. I love *heads* that have done such great things for England as her engineers, and think the romance of their useful lives greater than that of a knight-errant."

At Ford Castle Lady Waterford frequently spent months entirely alone, especially in winter; she liked it at the time, but when she left she wrote of the intense enjoyment she had in watching the *faces* of people in the railway carriage or at the stations. At Highcliffe she received many visitors. When, in 1887, she expected Cardinal Howard, she wrote:

"My last sight of him was as an officer in the Life Guards, when I danced with him (the last time I ever danced), and at that same ball I saw Mlle. Eugénie Montijo, then called 'The Spanish Heiress,' and never saw her again till I met her as a widow and deposed Empress in Walker's hat-shop."

Another visitor was Mr. Gladstone. In answer to a question of Lady Waterford's, one of Mr. Gladstone's daughters wrote:

"Yesterday my father was saying he did not believe he would be alive now if he had not always kept his Sundays quite apart from his ordinary, and specially his political, life. Not only because of the pure refreshment it has always been to him to turn to holier things on that day, but because it has enabled him to

learn more on religious subjects than perhaps any other layman, and so has given him that firm and splendid ground which has ennobled and hallowed all his actions through life."

In one of Lady Waterford's letters she says: "I must own my pleasures are not people, but things, and the tastes that God has given me." The chief of these tastes was her exceptional talent for painting. Countless drawings of hers exist, the coloring of which is most beautiful; and many have been exhibited in London. She wrote, "I do *love* my art, far more than ever, and long to do a great work." This great work proved to be the painting of the walls of the school at Ford with ten large frescoes, representing scenes from the Lives of Good Children. The figures both of the children and of the older persons introduced are all portraits of the villagers, and were striking likenesses. The subjects, with the exception of "Christ Blessing Little Children," are taken from the Old Testament.

In the last year of Lady Waterford's life she suffered from gradual brain-decay, and in May, 1891, she died, at the age of seventy-three, at Ford Castle. On her tomb at Ford two mottoes, which she always kept before her in her room, have been carved. One is the Waterford motto, "Nil nisi Cruce"; the other is the motto of the Delavals, from whose family Lord Waterford inherited Ford Castle, "Dieu me conduise."

MORE FICTION.

The Watchmaker's Wife, and Other Stories. By Frank R. Stockton. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Marion Darche : A Story without Comment. By F. Marion Crawford. Macmillan.

The Copperhead. By Harold Frederic. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Yanko the Musician, and Other Stories. By Henryk Sienkiewicz. Translated from the Polish by Jeremiah Curtin. Boston : Little, Brown & Co.

Brothers and Strangers. By Agnes Blake Poor. Boston : Roberts Bros.

The Faïence Violin. By Champfleury. Translated by William Henry Bishop. D. Appleton & Co.

Can This Be Love ? By Mrs. Parr. Longmans, Green & Co.

The Delectable Duchy. By "Q." Macmillan & Co.

Novel Notes. By Jerome K. Jerome. Henry Holt & Co.

John Ingerfield, and Other Stories. By Jerome K. Jerome. Henry Holt & Co.

Drolls from Shadowland. By J. H. Pearce. Macmillan & Co.

Mr. Stockton's latest book of stories is written in the vein of his most delicate drollery. His peculiar humor and his peculiar imagination are perfectly fitted to the form of the short story, and fill, to utter satisfaction, a new sense created by themselves. It is not character, but predicament, that is his specialty (*pace* Pomona and a few others), and the originality of his situations is brought about by his fancy (one would like to let the pen slip and call it fantasticy) working with an attendant spirit of naïveté. Each story is a combination of circumstances which no one else would ever have thought of, told with a certain wide-eyed, gentle guilelessness, and a gravity which does not even allow itself to be demure, but wears so skilful an air of the absence of mirth that one can fancy the very elect the Lady and the Tiger, debating in their far-away caves the question, "Did he know he was funny?" It is noticeable that personal misunderstandings play almost no part in Mr. Stockton's stories; nearly all tell the plain truth—Asaph, prince of indolents, being an exception. It is the plain truth which causes the surprise, if, indeed, that can be called a surprise the contrary of which no one ever suspected.

Mr. Crawford is a transferable *genius loci*, and in 'Marion Darche' his sense of New York is conveyed with his accustomed precision and lightness and talent for selection. That the local atmosphere is rarefied as the story mounts, is perhaps only in obedience to all atmospheric law. We thank Mr. Crawford for indicating a New York which is neither the Vaudeville Club nor the slums. His suggestion that there are those who love New York the city and not the social centre, is daring, but will command attention, particularly as it comes from a man who is in a sense a citizen of the world, and who, though at home in India and Italy, remains sufficiently an American not to think that only that which is alien is human.

The opening chapter shows his special talent to perfection, and further whets interest with a gay modern conversation between the sub-hero and the sub-heroine which leaves the reader expecting delightful things of the principals. It is disappointing to find, instead, that the story relaxes as it proceeds. The author's pen grows listless; naturally the admirer of the author is unable to withhold the tribute of imitation. It is in vain that incompatibility, embezzlement, lost identity, and the shadow of bigamy enliven the plot; as it warms the reader cools, and concludes that Mr. Crawford's originality has for once taken the whim to be commonplace. Yet the book is not dull to the unreadable point nor to the exclusion of bright sayings. A house decoration which is like "an inflamed Pullman car"—a girl who "had a soul and bestowed now and then considerable attention upon its religious toilet"—a man whose "so-called gifts had turned out to be only tastes"—are plums worth a thank-you. But, viewed as a story or as a study of character, this novel is too aggressively made, not born.

Mr. Harold Frederic's sketch of a Copperhead of a farmland township in northern New York is written in his usual clear and defined style with his usual desire to do the Copperhead justice. Viewed at this distance, in the person of the patriarch farmer, Abner Beech, he makes a picturesque figure; he stands grim, gaunt, hard, among his corn rows, his cows, and his cheeses; he reads Scripture so that "you could hardly listen to him going through even the genealogical tables of chronicles dry-eyed. His Jeremiah and Ezekiel were equal to the funeral of a well-beloved relation." He denounces the son who loves the daughter of an abolitionist, ignores him during his service in the Union army, and softens only when the abolitionists have "smoked the damned Copperhead out," when his home is in ruins and his boy has come back from Antietam with an empty sleeve. It is a fresh and interesting contribution to the history of all that went to make the war. The Laodiceans of our great struggle have seldom figured heroically or even picturesquely in the tales of the time. For them to have their chance now in fiction is not likely to do any harm. Mr. Frederic has done his task well, and has set the little drama felicitously in the region where his muse wanders with the freedom born of intimate knowledge.

Henryk Sienkiewicz is no less story-teller than novelist. Witness five stories of his recently given us in a translation by Jeremiah Curtin. Artist to the finger tips, Sienkiewicz in this little volume is touching, tragic, droll, by turns. There are many ways of conveying truth. Sienkiewicz's way is to tell, and then to leave inference to the reader. He gives facts with exquisite fidelity, but what the reader most feels is the subtle suggestion of fact under the facts. The wonderful union of truth within and truth without, made more wonderful by the non-insistence upon either, is the especial hall-mark of this craftsman, whose scope seems boundless. The stories deal with the sorrows of Germanized Poland, with the loneliness of exile, with the comical rivalries in the grocery business of a new American town, with the degradation and ruin of the Polish soldier fighting for Prussia in 1870. In all these there is one likeness, the magnetic attraction of the author's pen-point for the particular incidents which signify. In this he resembles Maupassant, with whose stories these worthily class themselves.

'Brothers and Strangers' is a book towards which one feels as the father of the Swiss family Robinson felt towards those of his sons who burned their fingers in their greedy haste for soup, and whom he rewarded, rather than the calculating son who had not burned his, but had helped himself with precocious decorum. The others were faulty but natural. This novel is wholly unimportant, but one is moved to commend it beyond many that are more clever, for its simplicity and for an unassuming realism which refrains from exclaiming, "See what a real book am I!" It goes straight to work and asks no favors. The story is small; the local color, derived from Boston and from a little town in New York, while faithful, is not insisted upon; but a portrait or two modestly put forth show a nice feeling for characterization and a nice observation of the world as it is. These things, being clearly written, make a pleasant even if not serious addition to literature in its lightest vein.

Mr. Bishop has translated, and in the main well translated, Champfleury's story of 'The Faïence Violin.' Sainte-Beuve called it "a unique study in moral pathology"; the hero is a china-collector, the heroine no other than the faïence he adored. It is a charming little story, as delicate as the pottery it celebrates, and full of the humor which is a special trait of Champfleury's writing. Mr. Bishop's brief preface, giving a sketch of the author, is of a befitting grace—the grace of an old miniature found in a Parisian bric-à-brac shop.

Mrs. Parr's little novel 'Can this be Love?' is sound, kind, and gentle. Its feeling, if not its English, is wholly above reproach. Readers may rely upon it that it is a love story and not a sermon, and that it will not lead them into the fatigues of mental disquiet, socialistic heresy, or doctrinal doubt; excellent, we should say, for nervous prostrates and for the public which feeds on "pretty little stories."

No pretty little stories are "Q's," but morsels of literary food concentrated to the last degree. Their material is keen perception, humor, and a great love of Cornwall; the result is a series of sketches which might well borrow the name of De Roberto's Italian stories, "Processi verbali," for their manner is that of reports, rapid, exact, and unembellished. One thinks of Charles Reade's exactness of telling, but there is none of Charles Reade's self-consciousness of style. One thinks of Hardy's

peasants in reading of "Q's" Cornish folk, but, being here the principals and not accessories, they hold the attention even more. One thinks, too, of the fidelity of Mary Wilkins's work, and finds that the absence from Cornish soil of the "inflamed New England conscience" permits greater variety of topic and a freer play of humor. A score of incidents are told, without haste, without rest, with only so much of landscape as serves for background and for carrying out the note which sounds in the preface, of love for garden, wood, and sea. There is great diversity of matter—poetic, comical, gruesome; but one treatment marks all—that of the narrator and not the commentator; moreover, of the expert narrator, who, having seen everything, understands leaving out as well as telling. If there is ever a lack of point in any of the stories, it is as point is lacking to a crystal sphere of which the very absence of salient angles is its charm. The long preface, in italics, affords an appropriate text for protesting against that iniquitous practice of printing, which must have been invented by a needy oculist.

If the Princess Scheherezade, instead of telling tales to the Sultan, had read to him all the anecdotage to be gleaned from the press of the nineteenth century, the report of the proceedings would have made Jerome's 'Novel Notes.' It is a dictionary of dog stories, servant stories, snake stories; stories of suicides, of houseboat parties, of soldiers, of fever patients, of omnibus conductors, of dreams. It is impossible that all should be poor, and unthinkable that all should be good; in truth, many of them are extremely amusing, but fully five of them are foolish. Mr. Jerome's pathetic plea to be taken seriously sometimes, removes one's hesitation in saying that at least one of the stories is altogether too horrible to have found utterance. On the whole, we advise any one who intends to read the book to take it as the Sultan did his stories—one at a time. The illustrations are as copious as if the book were Green's History.

The petition to be judged "from some other standpoint than that of humor" is offered in the preface of another book of Mr. Jerome's, a collection of stories of which "John Ingerfield" is the first. There is novelty, certainly, in the scheme of each of them, and Mr. Jerome is right in thinking that three of the number are not funny. The other two are, as we think, the best. No matter how original Mr. Jerome's pathos is, his pathetic style is tedious. To be funny—"ce qui s'appelle" funny—is his birthright, and in that realm it is that he chiefly glimmers.

'Drolls from Shadowland' is the name of a unique group of imaginings—a sort of grown-up fairy story, where the fairies are grim, fateful spirits, and the scene of their spiriting is the wide, sad world, full of sin and grief and longing. Each little sketch is like a delicate, short-lived flame that shoots up for an instant and throws a pale ray upon the human heart or human lot, when, lo! it is gone again; but it has lived and cannot be forgotten, for it is of the very essence of poetry.

The Monism of Man; or, The Unity of the Divine and Human. By David Allyn Gorton, M.D. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1893.

Genetic Philosophy. By David Jayne Hill, LL.D. Macmillan & Co. 1893.

NUMBERLESS men write about philosophy without dreaming that any further qualification is necessary than having read a quantity of books on the subject and having something they would like to say. Not desultory reading, but hard, systematic study, with accurate reflection, with continual comparison of one's own ideas with those of the strongest men, to see if one's own are capable of improvement in definiteness and force, and this training carried on for at least half-a-dozen years steadily, are the minimum requirements for enabling a man to address the philosophic world without making himself a nuisance. When this point has been reached, if the philosopher will only take the time to write his book short, saying what he has of new to say in the smallest compass in which it can be stated with perfect clearness, he will earn the benedictions of his readers.

Both the above volumes contain eclectic hodge-podges drawn from authors of various merit, but mostly weak. The writers display a charming unconsciousness of the problems their originals had in mind, and frequently quote passages whose real significance they quite miss. Each has been reading and thinking, not altogether without good sense, until he has collected a bookful of reflections of no value, which he now inflicts upon the public. Dr. Gorton, though a medical man, quotes Eduard von Hartmann as authority for a fact of physiology. He speaks disrespectfully of Hahnemann, as "a peer among peerless physicians"—unless this is meant to convey a compliment. After an inconsequential chapter on "The Unity of Divine and Human Agency," he gives two replies to himself, one signed *Scientist*, the other *Theologus*, both in his own incomparable style of thought and diction, peers of his peerlessness, and then replies to them, signing his reply *Radicus*. If he had made it *Radiculus*, it would have come somewhere near a real word and an appropriate one.

Dr. Hill is president of the Baptist University of Rochester, and as such is entitled to be treated seriously, though we must seriously say he sheds no lustre upon his institution by writing about matters which he does not understand. Thus, he seems to imagine that the discovery of Neptune is somehow to the credit of "Bode's law," although that "law," which good logic never would have admitted, was finally exploded by the violent violation of it in the case of Neptune. The only thing it had to do with the discovery was to suggest that the planet might be found in a place very remote from that where it was found, and thus probably to cause Leverrier to overlook the possibility of the perturbations of Uranus by Neptune being of the unusual kind which it turned out that they were. Though we have only space for this instance, there are plenty of other proofs of Dr. Hill's incompetence to treat of his subject. It is a pity, because the title of his book and those of several of the chapters are decidedly appetizing. But we can find nothing in it of any value.

The Beginnings of the English Romantic Movement: A Study in Eighteenth Century Literature. By William Lyon Phelps. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1893.

MR. PHELPS'S little book is correctly described in the title-page. It is a "study" in the proper sense of an often abused term, for it presents, in surprisingly small compass, the result of investigations obviously minute and laborious, and it is a contribution to orderly knowledge. The beginnings of the English romantic movement, the author holds, date back to the first quarter of the eighteenth century; and he further maintains that during the second quarter of that century, and especially during the fifth decade, the movement was much stronger than is commonly supposed. His task is, then, to trace some of the forces which, in the "age of prose and reason," prepared the way for the great romantic revival at the beginning of the present century—forces often working obscurely, but necessary to be understood if one is to have any clear conception of the genesis of nineteenth-century romanticism.

After due preliminaries as to the romantic ideal and the aims of the pseudo-classicists, Mr. Phelps proceeds to consider reactionary tendencies—discovering several unwitting traitors in the Augustan camp, some of them in the very shadow of the Prætorium. He then treats in special chapters the Spenserian revival, the influence of Milton, "Gothicism and Chivalry," and ballads. Norse mythology, Welsh poetry, and Ossian are appropriately discussed together. The poet Gray, whose literary development Mr. Phelps regards as exemplifying the whole romantic movement, has a chapter to himself.

In collecting evidence the author has been forced into dangerous companionships. He has had to associate with some very dull writers, and with others who, if not dull, betray the uneasy self-consciousness of the timid innovator. It is much to his credit that he has come off uncorrupted. He writes clearly and unpretentiously, his skill in condensation is rather remarkable, and he keeps his own and his reader's spirits up from first to last. Though solid, the book is never heavy. It can easily be read through at a sitting.

The first publication of a young scholar, Mr. Phelps's book is of course not without defects. Here and there his style is a trifle rough, now and then his vision is not quite sure, and, in a few instances, his facts admit of some trifling correction. But we have no disposition to insist on these petty flaws. We welcome the volume as a contribution to literary history, and we shall look with interest for a more ambitious work from the same hand.

The Theory and Practice of Banking. By Henry Dunning Macleod. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. 1893.

THIS is the fifth edition of a book that is in some respects of enduring merit. The author's idiosyncrasies are too well known to require comment, and they are perhaps as conspicuous here as in any of his books. But in spite of his absurd self-conceit, his exasperating repetitions, and his infuriate denunciation of those whose opinions he dislikes, there is a leaven of sound sense and genuine learning permeating and lightening the whole mass of his writing. It is undoubtedly true that Mr. Macleod's works have to a considerable extent affected English thought upon the problems of currency and banking, and he at all events deserves praise for carrying out the plan of tracing the gradual development of sound practice and eventually of sound theory in this department of finance. Perhaps in no instance is the process of evolution more striking, for the successful bankers are the survivors of a struggle for existence in which the casualties have been prodigious in number; and even these survivors have frequently distinguished themselves by giving wrong explanations of their success.

It is impossible to read these records of human fallibility and perversity without reflecting upon the melancholy spectacle of our own currency. It would almost seem that the painful experience of other countries had been thrown away upon us, and that our legislators might presently begin the construction of a

banking system upon unknown lines. It is upon this account that we call attention to this new edition of a book that is already of some antiquity, for whoever will peruse it will at least receive from it a deep impression of the extreme difficulty and slowness with which sound ideas of banking have made their way in the past, and will be the more disposed to hold fast to whatever has stood the test of practical experience. Although Mr. Macleod's style of narration is not the most agreeable, the history of banking contains many interesting features, and the account of the "currency theory" deserves especial attention from those who are struggling with the problems that our own system of currency presents.

The Venetian Painters of the Renaissance. By Bernhard Berenson. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1894.

THIS is a small book, containing, in the text proper, only seventy-eight pages, but the writer's ideas are interesting and worth attention. His thesis is, in brief, that "Venetian painting is the most complete expression in art of the Italian Renaissance," and he supports his contention with very good reasons. Like most critics who approach painting from the literary rather than the technical side, he is somewhat unjust to Veronese and more than just to Tintoretto, whom he admires for his thought, and, consequently, as much in his bad work as in his good. His preoccupation with art rather for what it tells than what it is, takes its extremest form when he says that "other schools have accomplished much more in mere painting than the Italian. A serious student of art will scarcely think of putting many of even the highest achievements of the Italians, considered purely as technique, beside the works of the great Dutchmen, the great Spaniards, or even the masters of to-day." If this were true, it might not affect Mr. Berenson's admiration for Italian painting, but he may be sure the painters would not reverence and admire it as they do. It is because of Titian's quiet perfection in the painting of flesh, Tintoretto's mighty composition and swing of brush, Veronese's unequalled and serene mastery over the most difficult problems of art—technical qualities all—that the painters reverence these giants of old.

What will prove most useful to many in Mr. Berenson's book is the "Index to the Works of the Principal Venetian Painters," which occupies sixty-three closely printed pages. The attributions are "based on the results of the most recent researches" by Morelli and others, although some of them are made independently by the author himself. Many of them, naturally, are at variance with those of the catalogues of museums, but it is refreshing to see that of the sixteen pictures allowed to Giorgione the "Partie Champêtre" of the Louvre is one. The attribution of this most lovely and most Giorgionesque of paintings by Crowe and Cavalcaselle to a nameless "follower of Sebastian del Piombo," always seemed an absurdity. Per contra, it appears that the most recent opinion attributes the famous "Concert" of the Pitti Palace to Titian, thus robbing Giorgione with one hand while giving with the other. It is somewhat surprising to find how few of the Veronese in Venice are allowed by Mr. Berenson to be genuine—only two, for instance, of all those in the Ducal Palace, and none of the ceilings in San Sebastiano.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Augustin Thierry (Œuvres de Augustin Thierry). Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
A Yeadon Vista. Chicago: W. B. Conkey Co.
Brentano, Prof. Lujo. History and Development of Gilds. London: Longmans, Green & Co.; New York: Scribners. $1.
Cooley, Prof. [illegible]. Laboratory Studies in Elementary Chemistry. American Book Co. 50 cents.
Dumas, A. Marguerite de Valois. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Ethic of Benedict de Spinoza. Translated from the Latin. 2d ed. Macmillan. $2.25.
Fenimore, Robert. A New England Woman. Success Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Gower, G. L. A Glossary of Surrey Words. London: English Dialect Society; New York: Macmillan.
Harper, Prof. W. R., and Burgess, Prof. I. B. Inductive Studies in English Grammar. American Book Co. 40 cents.
Ibsen, Henrik. Brand. Translated in the Original Metres. Scribners. $2.50.
Jerrold, Walter. Bon-Mots of Samuel Foote and Theodore Hook. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. 75 cents.
Kahlden, Prof. C. von. Methods of Pathological Histology. Macmillan. $1.40.
Lee, Edmund. Dorothy Wordsworth: The Story of a Sister's Love. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Mason, James. The Principles of Chess in Theory and Practice. London: Horace Cox.
Partridge, W. O. Art for America. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Rameau, Jean. La Rose de Grenade. Paris: Paul Ollendorff: New York: Charles Eitel.
Stackpole, Rev. E. S. The Evidence of Salvation. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 50 cents.
Todd, Mrs. Mabel L. Total Eclipses of the Sun. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Wogan, Baron T. de. An Epitome of Yachting. 2 vols. 2d ed. London: Allen & Co.; New York: Brentano's. $2.

HENRY HOLT & CO., N. Y.

HAVE JUST PUBLISHED:

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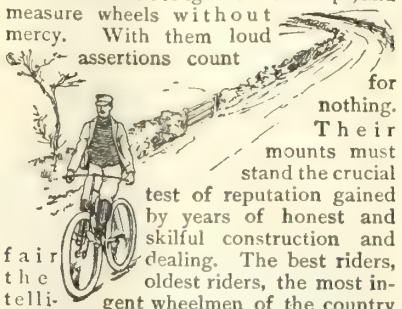

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 19, 1894.

The Week.

THE speech which Senator Lodge delivered on April 10th, before what the *Tribune* assures us was a "small but select audience" in the Senate chamber, is a striking illustration of the temptations which beset the scholar in politics. He set out apparently with the firm intention of taking high rank as a thinker, and began a philosophical dissertation on the different theories of government which underlie free trade and protection. Here we find that the let-alone theory, with its absurd talk about the rights of the individual and free competition, has become antiquated, and that all powerful minds have now gone over to the let-nothing-alone theory, under which protection and socialism and bimetallism find their place and justification. The rather dreary waste of political scholarship through which this thought was developed was dotted here and there with little oases in the shape of maxims worthy of Burke or Bunsby. One of them is the profound saying that "the true and lasting source of wealth is production"; and while the sagacious hearer is marvelling that he had never thought of that before, the orator goes on to show that trade is a bad thing, because it is "a tax upon production, on account of the cost of transportation." The truly wise and happy nation will go on piling up superfluous products, and eschew trade as it would a pestilence.

Towards the end of his discourse the scholar thought it necessary to let his small but select audience down from the thin air of speculation and give it a touch of cold facts. This is always perilous for political scholars, and Mr. Lodge promptly fell under the condemnation of his favorite author, Carlyle, for saying to the "hard fact," "Thou art not this way but that way!" The "fact" which he set out to establish was that wages in England had fallen from 12 to 15 per cent. in the last twenty years. This might seem a pretty difficult thing to prove for the ordinary politician, inasmuch as the investigations of Mr. Giffen and the statistics of the Board of Trade establish the conclusion that wages have risen in England from 30 to 50 per cent. in the past half century. But this is no difficulty at all in the way of the scholarly politician. He summons as his only witness a Manchester bimetallist, says that his gloomy talk about the ruin of England is all the testimony we need, and then goes on to speak solemnly of how "we see that in fifty years free trade has proved utterly unable to maintain wages in England, much less increase them." This is scholarship as she is politicked.

Senator Morgan was stung into denying on Wednesday week the plain-spoken charges of the Minnesota Democrats made against him and the other protectionist Democrats in the Senate, but his denial was singularly irrelevant. He had been named in the Minnesota address as one of the men who, "in the secrecy of the committee-room, browbeat the sub-committee with threats of open opposition to the bill unless the special industries they represented were also granted protection or given increase of it." Now how does Mr. Morgan meet the charges that he got, in this way, a duty put on iron ore and on coal at the behest of the Alabama manufacturers? Why, by the following naïve declaration:

> "I am satisfied with the bill now taken up by the Senate as it came from the Senate committee. I propose to vote for it without any amendment whatever, so far as I now know."

In other words, having done what the Minnesota Democrats condemned him for doing, he urges his satisfaction with the results of his intrigue as a reason why he should never have been condemned at all. His peculiar defence would call out from his accusers, if they had a prophet Elijah among them, such a question as the latter addressed to Ahab, after that wicked king had got hold of Naboth's vineyard: "Hast thou killed and also taken possession?"

Happy-thought bimetallism seems now to be the order of the day. The Senate spent several sessions debating a proposition to get Mexico to let us do her silver-coining for her. All the great lights agreed that it would be a splendid scheme, as it would keep our idle mints going, and somehow start China into absorbing silver at a tremendous rate. Mr. Gallinger had read a letter of Moreton Frewen's, certifying to the fact that "the Chinese can absorb silver in the form of coin very rapidly." Close students of Chinese laundrymen in this country have noticed the same phenomenon among them, and the capacity of Ah Sin to absorb packs of cards indicates what might be done in stowing away silver "in the form of coin." Anyhow, Moreton Frewen tells us the hope of bimetallism now lies in getting "that mysterious nation" "westward across the Pacific" "to absorb even an ounce of silver per capita." All the Senators are, of course, devoted to the absorption of silver, in the form of coin or bars indifferently, and so they all voted for the resolution calling upon the President to request Mexico to let us do her minting, and at once start the absorbing process in the mysterious nation. To no one did it occur to inquire what view of the case the Mexican Government might take. Who could doubt that Mexico would cheerfully give up her excessive seigniorage on the silver she coins and her revenue from export duties on the same, and give us all the profits and all the glory of starting up the absorption? But, alas for the happy-thought bimetallists, news comes that the Mexican authorities look upon the whole project as preposterous, and will have nothing whatever to do with it.

The decision of the Democratic caucus to pass a rule for "counting" a quorum in the House is a confession that Democratic absenteeism is regarded by the party managers as incurable. With forty members more than enough to make a quorum of their own, they are able to muster one only by prolonged effort, and then it vanishes at once. Private business and political indifference or insincerity keep from fifty to sixty Democratic Congressmen all the while away from Washington, and the Republicans have had an easy time of it holding their opponents' noses to the grindstone. What ex-Speaker Reed has been playing for all the session is to force the Democrats to adopt his method of declaring a quorum present. He has now succeeded, so far as the substance of the proposed new rule goes. Its form, however, and the way chosen to enact it, are different in important particulars from Mr. Reed's. He made his rule to count a quorum out of his own head, and without authority from the House or from precedent. He made the rule in order to make it—that is to say, he counted a quorum in order to get authority to count a quorum. That is a far different thing from an orderly decision of the House to adopt a certain way of determining the presence of a quorum. And when that determination is left, as is now proposed, to appointed tellers, and not lodged, as it was under Mr. Reed's rules, in the hands of the Speaker alone, who is always fallible and often arbitrary, the thing becomes much less offensive and open to abuse. In such matters as parliamentary rules the form is sometimes of more account than the substance, and it cannot be denied that the form of the rule now suggested has great advantages over the one in force in the Fifty-first Congress.

Still, the Democrats in this matter are hopelessly on the wrong scent. They will never find the cure for their troubles

in any scheme of counting a quorum. With all the aid of his rule, Mr. Reed had to have a quorum of his own party present to pass partisan laws. Does not every one remember the famous Republican campaign picture of the House, showing an empty Democratic side? The Democrats would not stay to be counted in 1891, and the Republicans will not in 1894. Mr. Reed had to have 167 Republican votes as a quorum in order to enact partisan legislation, and Mr. Crisp will have to have 179 Democratic votes for that purpose. No parliamentary trick can get around that necessity. At Albany the thing is settled by the State Constitution, which makes sixty-five affirmative votes—a quorum—necessary to pass a law through the Assembly. At Washington the thing is settled by partisan feeling, which justifies Representatives in staying out of the House and compelling their opponents tc furnish their own quorum. It was so in the Fifty-first Congress, and it will be so in the Fifty-third and in all others. The real contrast—the fatal contrast for the Democratic party—lies in the efficiency of the Republican organization under Mr. Reed. With a margin of only nine or ten votes above a quorum, it was able to have a quorum present whenever needed, and to pass the laws the party had decided to pass. The prolonged floundering of the Democrats, with a party majority four times as great, is daily winning for their opponents the votes of men who say: "Give us a party, right or wrong, which can do what it sets out to do."

Ex-President Harrison, who is delivering lectures on some branch of the law out in California, seems to keep up his thinking on public questions in a remarkable degree. We are very glad to agree with his latest views, as expressed to the Union League Club of San Francisco at a reception on Tuesday week. This is what he said:

> "I hold that our revenue laws should be so framed as to keep American mills open, and not to shut them. I believe it is worth our while to build a navy, and, incidentally, to have a coaling station within easy reach of our country somewhere in the Pacific. I don't want to annex the world, and I have not been much of an annexationist; but, when I find a spot which must be taken by us or some one else, thereby securing a station of the utmost importance to the United States, I say let us take it in."

The man who would gainsay these sentiments would, in our opinion, be unfit for human society. Any one who would frame revenue laws so as to shut up mills would be a monster. And the man who would refuse a coaling station which somebody else wanted, and we could keep without trouble or expense, would be a low fellow. But we would take no coaling station, or even accept it as a gift, unless somebody else wanted it. This is essential. It is a principle of the nursery which children of a larger growth should cling to firmly. For this reason we hold, that when we want a thing it is a sign of unfriendliness for other nations not to want it also.

But the opinion which commands our most cordial concurrence is this:

> "The ex-President said it was strange there should be so much distress now. Whoever has done it, or however it came about, it is un-American and should be repudiated by the people."

We have always held that distress was "un-American." Whenever we see a man in distress we know him to be either a foreigner who has not caught the spirit of our institutions, or a bad American who has been idling away his time in Europe with luxurious noblemen. For this reason the people cannot rise against it too soon and bring its authors to justice. We are glad to say, however, that no people in the world has ever taken to it kindly. Mankind has repudiated it from the earliest days. Adam found himself face to face with it when he came out of Eden, and was justly indignant with it, and in his anger planted potatoes and other vegetables and sought nitrogenous food in the woods with his boomerang. We are glad to see a man of President Harrison's thoughtful disposition in the field against it. With so many people disapproving of it, it must soon leave our shores.

Probably nothing more disgraceful even as a joke has ever occurred in the United States than the march of "Coxey's army." Day after day these people have passed by farms which are suffering for want of labor, and received provisions from the villages on their way. Of late the sheriffs and chiefs of police have begun to bestir themselves, but on the whole the "army" makes its way southward at a fair speed. There is no question that it is doing a great deal to bring discredit everywhere on American institutions and society. The movement may be a joke, but foreigners can never understand a joke as elaborate and prolonged as this. The uninterrupted march of 1,000 or 500 ragamuffins on the capital of a great nation to force the Government to issue irredeemable paper, in order to employ them on public works, is not calculated to raise either American intelligence or prosperity in the eyes of the world. But, deplorable as the spectacle is, is it not the legitimate outcome of ex-President Harrison's doctrine that the Government is bound to find work for the "unemployed"—the unemployed being every man who says he has no employment? And is it not the outcome also of the protectionist preaching that employment depends on the existence of the McKinley tariff, without which America grew and flourished for a hundred years?

The Republicans of Colorado are improving the enthusiasm aroused by their success in the recent municipal elections to begin immediately the work of organization for the contest of next fall, when State officers will be elected and the fate of Populism will be settled. The canvass thus opened will be followed with interest by the rest of the country as the first in which women have participated in that State, or, for that matter, in any State except Wyoming, which is really too small to count. The town and city elections seem to have settled the question that the women of Colorado will vote, registration having been general, and the percentage of ballots to registration unusually high. The indications are that they will also take much interest in the preparations for the State election. In a number of places Republican clubs are being organized composed of both men and women, and with women represented among the officials. The spectacle is a novel one to outsiders, but it is rapidly becoming so common in Colorado that the newspapers are already treating it quite as a matter of course. There is no dispute in either party that the great majority of the women are against the Populist follies, and that their participation in the next election makes the overthrow of Gov. Waite much more probable than it would otherwise be.

That was an interesting decision rendered by Judge Nott of the Court of Claims at Washington on Monday, that the President has a right to approve a bill after the adjournment of Congress, provided he does so within ten days. The question will doubtless be carried to the United States Supreme Court for final decision. It is odd that a verdict from that tribunal has never been secured. The opinion of such commentators upon the Constitution as Story has been the other way—that the power of the President over a bill ceases with the adjournment of the session. Such, too, has been the almost unbroken practice. As the moment of adjournment approaches, there is always a great rush to secure the Executive signature, under the belief that he cannot lawfully affix it an instant afterwards. But there is one important precedent on the other side. Lincoln approved what was known as the captured-property act eight days after the adjournment of Congress, and the constitutionality of the act thus signed was recognized through its treatment by every branch of the Govern ment as valid. It would be in the public interest if the President could have more time to consider the mass of bills which are always hurried through in the closing hours of a session; and, if he really possesses this power, the fact ought to be affirmed by the Supreme Court, so that he may exercise it without question

We trust the New York Constitutional Convention which meets this summer will not overlook the influence of the press in cherishing and promoting hostility to foreign nations, and preparing the popular mind to take offence at trifles, and to love violence as a means of settling disputes, and in diffusing a spirit of lawlessness among the young officers of our navy. In no way can this be met so effectively as by an article making all editors under sixty, and not physically infirm, who advocate a war, liable to serve in the field or on board ship immediately on the outbreak of hostilities. As age in no way diminishes their capacity for mischief, they might after sixty be compelled to serve in the ambulance corps on shore or as surgeons' mates on shipboard. We believe, in all seriousness, that this would be likely to save the nation hundreds of millions of dollars, and the human race untold misery. If we may judge from our history, war between the United States and any other nation in the world would be unlikely to the verge of impossibility but for the press, which in this matter displays just as little sense of responsibility as it does in the collection of "news." Fictitious accounts of battles in which we blew the enemy out of the water, might be made punishable as a misdemeanor, on the application of the Young Men's Christian Association.

A terrible fellow is Colonel Phil Thompson of Kentucky, who appeared for Mr. Breckinridge in the late breach-of-promise case. Colonel Phil some years ago murdered a man in cold blood on a railroad train, on suspicion of improper relations with his wife, and had a roaring trial of his own. One would have expected that in this case, therefore, he would appear as the champion of domestic purity. Far from this, he was a furious defender of Breckinridge, and shocked the entire South by the affirmation that his client is no worse than other men. Two of the Louisville papers have commented on it with such severity that we should not like to be in the shoes of the editors when Col. Phil gets home and has time to attend to them. The story that the case has been pushed or supported by the "Briggs men" in order to break down Breckinridge's weight as an opponent of the "higher criticism" in the General Assembly, has, we are pleased to believe, not a particle of foundation. But it is quite certain that Breckinridge's career as a religious or semi-religious orator is closed. Neither Sabbath observance nor the Confession of Faith can get any more help from him.

The registration bill which Mr. John Morley has introduced in the House of Commons proposes to deal with the anomalies in the British law which have long vexed the souls of the Radicals. One is the length of residence required for registration — six months. This has borne very hardly on workingmen, who in these hard times have been obliged to move about a good deal in search of work. It is proposed to reduce it to three months. Another is the practice of holding elections throughout the kingdom, on a dissolution of Parliament, on different days. The writ merely directs the sheriff to make a return before a certain date, and he has the interval, generally a fortnight, in which to select his day. This often enables people who vote as freeholders to vote twice, and sometimes as much as six times, in different constituencies. If the elections all took place on the same day as here, this would no longer be possible. But, to make assurance doubly sure, the bill adopts the Radical principle of "one man one vote," and forbids the casting of more than one vote by any man anywhere. The Tories cling to this plural vote for freeholders on the ground that it is a just and proper protection for property against numbers. But their strongest objection to the present bill is that it makes no provision for "redistribution," or, as we say, for reapportionment. There are in this field very great anomalies, in spite of the redistribution act of 1885. The Tories are particularly anxious to get a whack at the Irish representation, which is now very much greater, as compared with the English and Scotch constituencies, than the population of Ireland at present warrants. But the right to interfere with it is doubtful, as the number of Irish representatives was settled by the Act of Union, which has at least some of the characteristics of a treaty with the Irish nation. To diminish their number would, therefore, make a prodigious uproar. The Liberals will make a desperate fight for the bill before dissolving, as they think it will increase their vote by about 100,000.

Sir William Harcourt's budget, about which so many sensational rumors have been set afloat, is a pretty tame affair after all, except in the matter of the income tax. Here the growing power of the Radicals in the Liberal party is again demonstrated, not only in the increase of a penny in the pound, but also in a scheme which practically makes the income tax a graduated one. This bill is already denounced by the Tories as an attack upon them because they are rich, and doubtless there is some truth in this. There is this to be said, however, that if the rich Tories had not got up their scare about the insufficient navy, and forced the Government into making extraordinary naval grants, there would have been no deficiency to provide for and no graduated income tax. In so far the men are hit hard who deserve to be. Mr. Goschen's objections to the plan for consolidating the five existing classes of death duties into one "estate duty," also to be graduated, are that the provisions are so complicated as to require the most prolonged and careful discussion by Parliament. The poor tax collectors ought also to be remembered, lest there be more of them to imitate the old Westmoreland distributor of stamps who said, after one of Mr. Gladstone's innovating budgets: "Sir, my head, sir, is worn out; I must resign. The Chancellor, sir, is imposing of things that I can't understand."

There is no subject, probably, on which there have been so many aberrations of the human mind as money, but we question if there has ever been a greater one than "Dr. Arendt's plan for raising the price of silver." Four states, England, France, and Germany, and the United States, are to receive silver bars and issue certificates against them, and the value of the bar is to be fixed annually by a majority of the states concerned "whose representatives would meet every October—each country to have one vote for each million of population." The reason why there is so much fuss about silver now is that it is supposed to be possible, by some sort of huggermugger, to convert it into a reliable standard of value. But Dr. Arendt proposes to change the value of the standard of value every year by a popular vote. The making of contracts under this system would cause scenes of uproarious mirth. It fully resembles a system by which the yard measure would undergo revision every year, and a convention would decide annually what was meant by an agreement to deliver 1,000 yards of broadcloth. A majority of the nations, with one vote for every million of inhabitants, might decide one year that 1,000 yards meant 1,200, and another year that they meant only 800. The London *Spectator* said recently that the American people would have to go through a good deal of suffering before it would resolve to leave currency to experts, as it leaves astronomy. This is probably true, but it is not true of America only. Currency is getting into politics everywhere as the socialistic theories spread; and the power of the Government over its purchasing power is a sacred article of the socialistic creed. Unluckily, large numbers of people who ought to know better and who are not socialists, are playing into their hands by proclaiming that the Government has this power. The craze will never be over till the Government agrees to stamp the weight and quality on all metals brought to it, abolishes legal tender, and lets people make their own bargains in their own metal. The notion that the Government can raise and keep up the value of commodities indefinitely by merely saying "Go to," is a suggestion of the modern Satan

FACTS FOR BOSTONIANS.

THE *Vicksburg Herald* is an influential paper in Mississippi, and it prints every week paragraphs like the following:

"It makes hard-working farmers and enterprising merchants tired to hear the 'plenty of money' cry played upon by the Wall Street organs. They tell of the surplus in the large cities, and even hint at still more contraction being necessary.

"Of course there is plenty of money with cotton, wheat, and all agricultural products selling at only two-thirds of their normal value. If agricultural products would only sell for half their value, the surplus money in the banks would be still greater.

"What the farmers want is plenty of money, with agricultural products bearing such prices as to make agriculture reasonably profitable. The merchants desire that condition also, for if the farmers are prosperous, the merchants are prosperous. But the trouble is, that Cleveland and Sherman don't care a continental for a farmer."

In connection with this let us mention that in a Democratic primary in Louisiana held on Saturday last to nominate a Congressman, a vote was taken on the leading questions of the day, among them the income tax and the free coinage of silver. For the income tax the vote was 3,446 against 151. For the free coinage of silver the vote was 3,270 against 226. These facts, added to the above quotation, give us a fair idea of the opinions current at the South on the two great questions of currency and taxation.

The truth is that what we have gained by the repeal of the Sherman silver law is, in the main, the abandonment of the attempt to keep, single-handed, an unlimited quantity of silver at par with gold. We have not yet got out of the heads of the Southern people the three following dangerous notions: that an unlimited quantity of silver money would be a good thing; that it is the duty and is within the power of the Government, to keep up the price of commodities; that the people of the North and East have got most of the money that there is, and are enjoying it in complete indifference to the sufferings of the rest of the country, and that it is therefore right to impose a tax which will fall principally on their incomes.

It was most unfortunate that so many people here at the North believed that the victory of sound currency was completely won when the Sherman law was repealed. The truth was that it left untouched in a large part of the country the great delusions out of which the Sherman law sprang, and which it was intended to satisfy. Its repeal was simply a surrender to stern necessity. There was no money in the Treasury to continue the purchases for which it provided. Foremost among these delusions was the belief that the Government can raise or lower the standard of value; that it is its duty to supply money to the people, and that the bankers and others who refuse to lend it without security are selfish and designing persons, who ought to be taxed into good behavior.

The first duty of intelligent men, when the struggle of last fall was over, was, it seems to us, to engage heart and soul in the great work of public instruction as to the nature and functions of money, and to abstain rigidly, for a while at least, from any words or acts which would be likely to aggravate the prevailing popular errors on this subject—errors more threatening probably to the immediate economical future of the country than any with which we have ever had to contend since the foundation of the government. The appearance of the currency in the political arena was the greatest misfortune which has befallen the nation except the civil war.

The almost immediate initiation of a movement in Boston, therefore, of all places in the world, to spread and enforce the belief that it is the duty of the Government to take charge of the currency and see that there is a proper quantity, and that there is now or will shortly be a terrible scarcity of currency unless something is done to bring silver into general circulation, was a very startling phenomenon. It surprised people in this part of the world nearly as much as a meeting in the same place in 1864 to advocate the retention of slavery would have done. There is no quarter of the Union in which the lucubrations of Gen. Walker and his associates will not be taken as full corroboration of the charge that Cleveland and Sherman are responsible for the low price of farm produce, and that unlimited silver would cure most of the economical evils from which the world is now suffering. It is true that these gentlemen ask for the aid of foreign nations in this great work of redemption. But to the Southern farmer this is all "poppycock." He thinks it natural for men who go to Europe every summer to talk in this way, but he fails to understand why a great country like America should be dependent on "abroad" in a matter of such vital importance. The idea he has got hold of is that all governments at this crisis owe silver to their people, and that the reason why European governments do not let them have it is that they are controlled by the "gold-bugs" and the "money power"; and he asks, not unnaturally, why our government, which is truly a government of the people, should be subject to such influences.

It is of course humiliating, considering how much we plume ourselves on the popular intelligence, to have to acknowledge that very few of the unlimited-silver men have the least idea of the precise manner in which free coinage would benefit them. We have a score of times asked men who know the Southern people, how they suppose the silver would get into their pockets after it was coined, but all acknowledge that they have never thought the matter out at all. They know, of course, in a general way that the price of farm products is regulated by the price we get for our surplus abroad, and they know, too, that nobody who owns silver would give it to them for nothing. But, strange to say, this knowledge does not seem to connect itself in any way with their politics. You may show them as much as you please that after a man got his silver coined at the mint, he would not part with it except to purchase something or to lend it on good security; they will still hold that Cleveland and Sherman, in refusing to coin more freely, show that they do not "care a continental for a farmer." It seems to us, therefore, that Gen. Walker would have been much better employed in leading a corps of lecturers on economical topics into the South than in starting a bimetallic society at home.

THE SPIRIT OF THE NAVY.

THE report of the Senate committee in relation to the Hawaiian Islands is a document full of mysteries, but the key to most of them is to be found in the well-known Jingoism of the chairman, Senator Morgan. Incidentally he tried to please everybody concerned in the Hawaiian affair, with the natural result of pleasing nobody; but his main intent was to make his report a powerful argument for a big navy, and the Nicaragua Canal, and coaling stations thick as blackberries, and general bumptiousness and insolence in foreign relations. This crops out in the first map appended to the report. It is a "Naval Chart of the Pacific and Western Atlantic," and is covered with converging lines of bright green, which intersect each other (in a way little short of miraculous) at the Sandwich Islands, thus making it plain to the comprehension of a child, and by truly childish methods, that the Hawaiian Islands are the true "cross-roads of the Pacific," and that we must have them, or for ever lose our self-respect.

Similar ulterior ends appear again and again in Mr. Morgan's examination of the various naval officers who came before the committee. The questions as to their knowledge of what took place in Honolulu in January, 1893, were perfunctory, and the real interest lay in the inquiries made relative to naval policy and naval strategy. This is truly a matter of the highest importance, for if we are going to have a new navy, the spirit and attitude of its officers are of more account than the size of the ships or the number of the guns. Such a revelation of animus and wonderful ideas of international law as Lieut. Staunton made in his *Harper's* article is a most alarming symptom of the spirit of the new navy. We regret to say, however, that it is paralleled, if not outdone, by some of the testimony in the Senate report.

Rear-Admiral Belknap, for example, thought that "we ought to assume control [of Hawaii] right away," so that, in Senator Morgan's language, "we might there establish our naval station and have in the middle of the Pacific a means of offence and defence against the fleets of Europe and Asia." Not a word about the rights or wishes of the inhabitants of the islands, but all a question of naval strategy with the islands of the world like so many pawns at the disposal of the masters of the game. This was put even more bluntly by Capt. Wiltse, who landed the troops in Honolulu. It must be said for him that he had some faint conception of the proper way to recognize a revolutionary government, and that at the very moment when Stevens was hurrying off to the shivering revolutionists his recognition of them, prepared beforehand, as he himself testifies, Capt. Wiltse was saying to them, in answer to their entreaties to be recognized: "We cannot recognize you when there is another government across the street." Still, on the main question of international policy and the proper use of the navy, he put the case in the frankest Jingo fashion. A few days after the revolution he said to a gentleman who now testifies as to his exact words:

"All this talk about who has a right to vote and who has a right to govern in these Islands is bosh. I do not care a cent about that. The only question is, Does the United States want these Islands? If it does, then take them."

Nearly all the officers who were examined by Senator Morgan agreed with that terror of the world's navies that we cannot be too quick about preparing for a naval war in the Pacific and fortifying Pearl Harbor as the true way of bringing to naught the craft and power on an enemy's ships — "say British ships," as the Alabama Senator would innocently remark. We are glad to say, however, that his profound strategy was shown to be decidedly of a fresh-water kind by one or two officers who had the slight advantage over him of knowing something about distances and the steaming power of men-of-war. Commander Ludlow reminded the chairman of some of the elementary truths of naval warfare, such as the fact that the "Pacific is a very large ocean," and that it would be just like an enemy's fleet to make light of the circumstance that the "key" of it was in our possession, and "pass you, get in behind you, and you would never know it in the world." He also observed, with a deplorable lack of reverence for "keys," that if an enemy ever wanted it, he would send a fleet and "shell the place to pieces." "Then," said the startled mariner presiding over the committee, "we do not need a navy." Commander Ludlow replied, however, that we did need one, and a big one, if we expected to fight any great naval power, but that the absurd thing was to suppose an enemy would pay any attention to our coaling stations or land fortifications, as if it were against the laws of war to pass within 2,000 miles of them.

Most luminous and cogent were the views of Commander Houston also. He held that "in time of war and without a navy equal or nearly equal to that of the greatest naval power," the possession of the Hawaiian Islands "would be a source of weakness rather than strength." "We should ultimately have to let them go," he maintained, "after having wasted a lot of money." As to the likelihood that this country would authorize the creation of a great naval force, he thought that a calm inquiry as to the attitude of Congress and the country on that question would show the thing to be so improbable that "we need seek no further for reasons for not acquiring the islands."

"MUNICIPAL MONOPOLIES."

A LITTLE book called 'Social Reform and the Church' has just been published by Prof. J. R. Commons. One chapter in it advocates "municipal monopolies," by which the author means the "distributive enterprises"—such as the manufacture of gas and the furnishing of electric lighting and the public operation of all the means of transit. The writer is professor of economics and social science in Indiana University. He is also secretary of the American Institute of Christian Sociology. Further, he is certified to by Prof. Ely, who is himself a director of economics in the University of Wisconsin. Prof. Ely says that all who want "vigorous thinking, clear thinking, and a right spirit," will hear of something to their advantage by applying to Prof. Commons.

A plain newspaper man who is neither professor, director, nor secretary, and who has no clearer idea of Christian sociology than the French anarchist's—namely, that it is the doctrine that a little roast beef goes well with the bread of life—will be forgiven for a good deal of trepidation in venturing into such a many-capitalled presence. As Pascal's Jesuit would say, any opinion coming from such a source must be highly "respectable." We were lately rebuked for flippancy in speaking without bated breath of the "head of the historical school in Germany," and who knows what kind of a school Prof. Commons may be the head of? Still, no thinker, however labelled, can object to a humble exposition of his views, and that is all we mean to undertake in regard to those of Prof. Commons on "Municipal Monopolies."

We gladly give him credit for having come within a thousand miles of the truth concerning the actual condition of "the State," as embodied in our city governments. He admits that there is nothing ideal or divine about them. He speaks of our "corrupt cities," and agrees "that city government must be improved before these industries can be safely intrusted to it." In fact, "without civil-service reform it is better to go along as we are." Still, this does not prevent him from maintaining that, "with public ownership of the monopolies, city government in America may be expected to take on generally a high plane of morals and efficiency." That is to say, the way to make politicians quit stealing through paving and street-cleaning contracts, and corrupting the police and fire departments, and loading down the pay-rolls with incompetents, is to turn over to them the business of making gas and furnishing electricity and running all the street-car and omnibus lines. How the thing will be made to work that way, Prof. Commons does not explain, but it must be on the principle of the "surfeit cure" for drunkenness.

He brings forward a lot of figures to show how much more cheaply cities can furnish gas and electric lighting than private corporations can. In a note, however, he admits that his statistics have been "ably criticised." An ordinary man, having no connection with any institute of Christian sociology, would say they had been riddled. Whatever plausibility is left to them depends upon the fact that, as Prof. Commons innocently remarks, "public financiering is based on different principles from private." In other words, a private corporation reckons-in cost of plant, deterioration of machinery, repairs, improvements, etc., while "public financiering," as exemplified in many of the reports he refers to, takes no account of all that, because, as Prof. Commons again explains, "expenses are paid out of taxes." This might seem objectionable to some carper, but the professor is ready for him with the following thrust: "How can a city government be pure and noble when we look upon its reform merely as a matter of reducing the tax-rate? Men are better than taxes."

After mastering this principle, which is a neat alternative to Director Ely's famous dictum that we must look at these things "from a broad social standpoint," and not ask too curiously where the money is to come from, the reader will be ready to go on and take in Prof. Commons's explanation of the advantages of having cities operate street railways. "Freight as well as passengers" would be carried "free of charge." No pedestrian is now compelled to "pay toll" for walking in the streets, and by parity of reasoning no charge should be made for riding or shipping goods in street cars when they are owned by the city as the streets are now owned. Furthermore, and this is a most timely point, "men out of work could ride in

search of employment, instead of wearily tramping the streets." Doubtless they would if they could, but would they ever stop riding? However, we will not quarrel with any of the points in Prof. Commons's description of his New Jerusalem street railways, except with one. He says: "Profits from the street-car business would be spent at home instead of in Europe." This we venture to doubt. We do not believe that even a director of economics could make any profits, to be spent either at home or in Europe, out of a road that made no charge for freight or passengers.

Finally, Prof. Commons draws a delightful little sketch of "the way the thing can be done." The mayor appoints a "director of transportation." This officer appoints a superintendent. He is to be a "scientific expert," and his office is not to be "political." He is, however, to appoint all the foremen, and the foremen all the operatives, and the smell of politics is to be on none of their garments. All appointments are to be made for merit only, and no dismissals are to be tolerated except for incompetence. It is all quite paradisaical. There is nowhere in sight a Mayor "Tom," or a scientific expert "Mike," to molest or make afraid. Still, we know that this is no idyllic dream, for we have the word of a director of economics that it is "vigorous thinking, clear thinking, and in a right spirit." Otherwise we should have been tempted to take our lives in our hands, and run the risk of mortally offending some "school" or other by saying that all this is precisely on a par, both for vigor of thinking and benevolence of intention, with the schemes of the little girl who goes out into the kitchen and tells the old colored cook that she is going to give her a white satin dress with real lace trimming when she gets rich.

WOMEN AT THE UNIVERSITY OF LONDON.

LONDON, March, 1894.

THE University of London is notoriously not a teaching body, but an examining board, with a Government charter granting the right to confer degrees. Degrees are conferred in arts, science, medicine, surgery, law, and music, and the courses and examinations required are among the most severe of any in the world. A failure in one subject at examination means failure in all, and the whole work of the year must be done over again before the student can proceed. This necessarily makes graduation within the regular period a most difficult matter. Three sets of examinations—matriculation, intermediate, and final—arranged at stated periods and spread over at least two years, are required before a candidate may graduate, and another year of still harder work is necessary before he may take the degree of master or doctor. Honors in each subject comprised in the regular examinations are open to students of exceptional ability desiring [illegible] distinction in any line. For these the examinations are far more difficult and the standard of attainment much higher than that of the simple "pass" examination.

To this institution women have been trooping by the thousand ever since 1878. I might say since 1867, but the step which was taken in that year was only tentative and met with little favor among women. The University was at that date empowered to institute special examinations for women, and the subjects chosen were those which the board presumed would be preferred by the women themselves. But this did not work at all. The women did not want to have their dishes chosen for them, and very few cared to avail themselves of the privilege. Besides this, it was a significant fact that women won distinction not so much in the "special," but in the regular classical and scientific subjects of the University. It was evident that they did not want a scheme of instruction devised especially for them any more than they care for those wildly exciting items of interest which the newspaper editor imagines are the only things in his "woman's column" that touch the female heart. What they wanted was access to the ordinary degrees and honors and subjection to the same tests as those imposed on the men. In 1878 this desire was obtained. The Senate and Convocation of the University received from the Crown a supplemental charter, "making every degree, honor, and prize awarded by the University accessible to students of both sexes on perfectly equal terms." Thus the University of London was the first academical body in the United Kingdom to admit women as candidates for its degrees. That this equality is no mere form is evidenced by the fact that the University registers and calendars make no distinction whatever between male and female students. The names of men and women are mingled indiscriminately in the lists, either alphabetically or according as their attainments place them; the papers of all students go up to the examiners numbered, not signed, and the claim that women have access to all honors and prizes on an equal footing with the men is justified by an honors list swelled with women's names.

The women proved their appreciation of this state of things by flocking at once to the University. The statistics of the Register are instructive. Since their admission in 1878, 4,364 women have applied for matriculation, against 44,151 men since 1838; and of these, 2,558, or more than one-half, have passed, falling short of the proportion of successful male candidates by hardly an appreciable fraction. In fact, the average proportion of successful candidates at any examination is about 50 per cent., women as well as men. This fact is suggestive of much that is interesting regarding woman's brain-power in competition with man's. Again, it is interesting to note in connection with the number of women seeking a university education, that the proportion of women candidates during the fourteen years between 1878 and 1892 has reached one-tenth the number of men during the fifty-four years of the University's existence, or, in other words, an annual average of nearly one-half that of the men, the average of male applicants per year being 817 and of female 312. As 50 per cent. of the candidates fail, these figures, of course, include a certain percentage who go up a second time, thus reducing the proportion of new candidates; but this applies to the men as well as the women, and the fact of application remains the same.

Turning now to the degrees, out of 611 women candidates, 415 have taken the degree of Bachelor of Arts; 28 out of 37, Master of Arts; 70 out of 136, Bachelor of Science; 2 out of 3, Doctor of Science; 1 out of 6, Bachelor of Law; 31 out of 38, Bachelor of Medicine (with right to practise); 4 out of 6, Doctor of Medicine; and 4 out of 8, Bachelor of Surgery. Thus the University has conferred 555 degrees on women during the fourteen years of their presence at the examinations. It will be seen that, in every case but two, more than one-half (or the usual 50 per cent.) of those who went up for a degree succeeded. This is a percentage fully as great as that of the men, and it is worthy of remark that in the case of two degrees it is somewhat greater, and that, too, in science. It will be observed that almost four times as many women are drawn to the arts as to science, medicine, and law put together. The probable reason is that the arts course furnishes a far more general education, being a combination of classics, English, modern languages, and as much mathematics and science as the average woman cares about; while, on the other hand, the scientific course is pure science, and on that account more specialized and technical, appealing to peculiar talents or professional objects. It is noteworthy, however, that the women who have tackled science have done so with marked distinction.

The honors lists of the University are so full of feminine names under all subjects that it is difficult to choose examples. In the faculty of arts, first-class honors have been taken every year by women in classics, English, French, German, mathematics, and mental and moral science. Those who have taken second and third-class honors are too numerous to mention in the small space available here. But this is not all. To be in the honors division at all is distinction enough, whatever class may be awarded, but many are the women who not only have won first-class honors in more than one subject at the same examination, but have also attained the special distinction of a scholarship, exhibition, prize, or medal. These are awarded at the intermediate and degree examinations to "that candidate who shall have distinguished himself the most [in the subject in question] of all the candidates who have passed." The faculty of science records women in the first-class honors division in botany, zoölogy, and experimental physics, some of them holding scholarship marks. Even in law, two women have won second and third-class honors, and this with private study only. Nor does the faculty of medicine tell a different tale. Few women have entered it, but the greater part of those few have notably distinguished themselves. In 1890 a woman took first-class honors in three different subjects with a medal in one of them, and both scholarship and medal in another. But it would be wearisome to proceed further with these examples. I have taken them at random out of pages bristling with names. Every year since their admission the women have been in the honors lists, and every year some woman in some subject has taken the highest honor which can be conferred by the University.

Thus it is no empty claim that the women are on absolutely the same footing as the men. The same examinations and distinctions are open to them, for which the same papers are given and the same University recognition is awarded, as at graduation they receive their degrees with the men from the same platform and in the same academic costume; the only difference being that the Chancellor rises when he presents the diploma to a woman.

ELIZABETH CYNTHIA BARNEY.

ITALY AT THE CROSS ROADS.

ITALY, March, 1893.

NOT a week passes without the publication of a new book on the actual conditions of this country, on the political situation, on the social, moral, and material ambient in which the masses live, move, and have their being. Of these new publications the most notable are 'L'Italia al Bivio,' by an ex-deputy and very popular Neapolitan, Emilio Giampietro; 'In Sicily: Events and their Causes,' by Napoleone Colajanni, the father of Sicilian socialism (or rather of socialism in Sicily); and 'The Present Conditions of Sicily,' by the Marquis San Giuliano,' ex-secretary of agriculture and commerce The singular unanimity of opinion among men so diametrically opposed to each other in their political tendencies and acts as these three writers proves that the facts which have passed under their notice and led to the conclusions are real, general, and typical indications of the present state of Italy.

"To-day," writes Giampietro, "everything withers, decays, dies. Economical depression has stricken all production, distrust of the morrow is universal among the majority of Italians. A profound discouragement prevails and prevents any initiative. . . . Our chief political men—those who were our leaders in former times, those who united thought and action—seem fossilized; others, unconscious of the actual present. Most of them, weary and hopeless, have all proved themselves incompetent to resolve the difficulties of to-day. To hear them talk, to see them work, is a painful spectacle. The heroes of the Italian revolution seem to believe that time will stand still in their hands; for them thirty years of new life have passed over their heads unheeded. No throb, no breath, no aspiration of modern life (*modernità*) has vibrated in their souls. They believe that all problems can be resolved by fresh financial sacrifices, and by faith in certain abstract idealities which they imbibed during their legendary revolutions. Worse still, the methods of our public life have allowed vain ignoramuses to float on the surface of that life, calling themselves political parties! Does there exist a band of audacious men able to save the country from the abyss into which it may at any moment tumble? One thing is certain: either a government must be found radically to transform all that has hitherto been effected in administration or finance, or the country will of its own accord effect a complete demolition of all that exists politically."

He examines the state of parties or the heterogeneous groups which style themselves parties; demonstrates their vacuity, vanity, nonentity; bears down on the preachers of class hatred and class war. He admits: "We can come to terms with socialist democratic evolutionists like Colajanni, who, while educating, preparing the masses for the realization of their ideal, claim and proclaim meanwhile that series of reforms, that sum of moral and material benefits, possible within the limits of our present social organization, which commence with the family and end in Parliament. Further than this we cannot go." Nor could any honest lover of Italy and humanity go further, to land in anarchy and anarchy's favorite theory of the *lotta di classe*. In the chapter on the State budgets the writer appalls one; the figures quietly put down take one's breath away. Nor does the budget of the nation restore one to hope; the State, the province, the commune, associations, individuals, have spent, squandered all that they had—all that they had not. Hence failures, bankruptcy, stoppage of banks, no credit, no reserve to fall back upon. And the remedy? Retrenchment in all quarters, in every department, in every item; in public, in private—or universal bankruptcy and irretrievable disgrace.

In the chapter on "Anarchy, Socialism, Revolution," Giampietro speaks bravely and well. While some madmen call for war as a solution, others demand a revolution, but he says: "I do not understand a revolution without an organic conception, a preparation, a precisely determined goal." When one is not inclined to do one's duty in dreary, drudging, distasteful daily life, it sounds fine to talk of "higher duties," "wider missions," "nobler aims." What each Italian has to do to-day is to cut his coat according to his cloth, not to spend all that he can beg, steal or borrow (the awful volumes just published on the bank scandals justify the phrase) on his own or his family's pleasures, luxury, and vanity. He must bring himself *not* to wring the last drop of blood from the starving peasant and the wretched artisan in the shape of usury, or the lowest possible wage and the highest possible taxation put upon the weakest shoulders. This is a point on which writers in general love not to dwell.

Giampietro is of those who believe that vast reductions might be made in the war budgets without reducing the strength of the army; and you remember that Ricotti, a great military authority, expressed his belief that this was feasible, and for that reason was not invited to enter the ministry. Next comes the question of the agricultural populations. They are starving, and the land is untilled, or so tilled as not to return the cost of labor and seed. But waste land there is and idle hands to till it. Now, however, agriculture is an industry; without capital, what use to give land to the peasant? But there *is* capital also in the charitable establishments, in the banks that have no shareholders; apply the capital to the land and set the peasants to work. Ah, but the tax-gatherer who pounces down and clears the peasant and his crops off the land! Here it is that Colajanni comes in with his figures, which are in some respects more terrible than Giampietro's. He dwells solely on Sicily, the causes of the late events. He writes:

"I told the ministry, the House, the public, more than a year ago, what would happen if some remedy was not found for the gaunt misery, the absolute destitution of our agricultural populations. I entreated them to act while there was yet time; I warned them that, in the midst of earnest and honest helpers of these sufferers, there were bad men and (I believe) provocative agents. What have you done? You have killed deliberately, you have ordered or allowed our soldiers to kill, 13 peasants at Caltavuturo, . . . 95 Italian citizens in all, shot down in cold blood. The people have killed but one soldier, one official. Some 300 were wounded; hundreds are in the prisons or sentenced to enormous punishments, varying from five to twenty-five years in the galleys; over a thousand are sent to *domicilio coatto;* numbers have escaped to the mountains, caves, and other hiding-places of innocent men, who must now either steal or starve."

Colajanni enumerates the causes which have intensified misery and led up inevitably to protest, to orderly and legitimate attempts at amelioration; finally to disorder and open rebellion. These causes I have already pointed to in the *Nation*—the huge *latifondi*, where all the meagre crops are produced by the tillers of the soil, who starve and die of inanition and disease while the proprietor, the *gabellotto*, the subrenter, the partitioner, divide the spoil. And if Colajanni's description of the state of the peasantry be called in question, we answer that the pictures drawn by the Marquis San Giuliano are still more harrowing:

"The campagnas [of the *latifondi*] are unhealthy, there is no drinkable water. The proprietors live in the great cities; the peasants are massed in large centres which are administered selfishly by the burgher class, who starve and despoil the peasants with taxes on the poorest food, the hearth tax, the tax on their animals, and, above all, by usury. They must walk miles to their work, sleep in wigwams or in the open. Such was their condition when Sonnino wrote, such it was till yesterday —*and now things have grown worse.* One can hardly imagine a 'worse,' all was so bad; but it has come to this, otherwise how is it that suddenly, from a state of supine and fatalistical resignation, we have seen the outburst of the powerful and organized movement of to-day? This cannot be attributed to the propaganda of agitators, which, even if ably conducted, could not, in an unprepared soil, have produced such a radical transformation without the powerful auxiliary of increased material suffering. This increasing misery has facilitated the propaganda, of course; has reawakened the class hatred latent among the toilers throughout the island, and is the offspring, not of socialistic doctrines and tendencies, but of the frequent abuses, spoliations, and oppression of the burgher class in the rural centres. The hatred of the masses extends not only to the great proprietors, but to burghers fat and lean —the so-called *civili, galantuomini,* or *cappelli,* of the rural communes. After long periods of calm, this hatred explodes from time to time with terrible ferocity, and one hour of bloodshed and destruction makes the guilty and innocent alike expiate the errors and abuses of an entire class."

Speaking of the crops of late years, San Giuliano says: "Often, when the moment comes for the division of the grain, the peasants, after the subtraction of the seed and succor with the usurious interest detained, go home with next to nothing—*sometimes without a single handful!*" After enumerating the disasters produced by foreign competition in the sulphur, green-fruit, and other agricultural industries, the diminution of the wine trade, both he and Colajanni show the effects of Italy's fiscal policy on the small proprietors. Colajanni gives a list of small proprietors who have been evicted by the *fisco* for inability to pay the tax on land or buildings during the last ten years. Province per province, in the single communes, he gives the figures as far as he has been able to verify them personally. They amount to 16,662 families.

When Crispi was summoned to the helm, hope reawoke. The state of siege was condoned because of the promises that accompanied it of immediate and efficacious redress. Three months have passed. The military tribunals sit and condemn. Some of their sentences are atrocious; one has been partly cancelled by the courts of cassation. It was affirmed that on the King's birthday a general amnesty would be proclaimed. Instead of this, the trials continue. Sicily and Massa Carrara are still in a stage of siege. The minister of finance put the deficit for the year at 170,000,000 lire; pledged himself, if plenipotentiary powers were conceded, to find 70,000,000 by economizing, but the remainder must be forthcoming from fresh taxation. The two war-tenths on land were to be reinforced, the income tax not to be progressive as was proposed previously, but raised from 13 to 20 per cent., and (this the unkindest cut of all) the tax on salt to be increased 8 per cent. Salt now costs, owing to the Government monopoly, thirty-five centimes per kilo; it is hereafter to cost forty centimes. This, in a country where salt is the only corrective, the only sauce, to *polenta*, which produces, when it forms the sole staple food of the poor, the horrible disease known as *pellagra*.

A commission of fifteen is sitting to examine these financial propositions. The commissioners say that the deficit is exaggerated, they reduce it to 100,000,000, demand that 20,000,000 be found by economies in the war budgets, and suggest other expedients. As the House has adjourned for the Easter holidays until April

2, nothing can be ascertained as to the result of the conferences between the minister and the commission. It is pretty positively asserted that Crispi, if the House refuse the plenipotentiary powers demanded, will appeal to the country. It was expected that a reduction in the civil list would be proposed. The King of Italy, with his fifteen millions and hundred palaces, has a far higher civil list than Queen Victoria. Sella, when he imposed fresh taxation on the nation, reduced the old King's civil list. The Left, on coming to power, increased it. We are quite aware that King Humbert paid off his father's debts, refusing the assistance of the nation, that he maintains the household of the heir apparent, and spends much in private and public charity. But the bare fact that a minister has dared, under the auspices of Crispi, to propose a further increase in the price of salt ought to mean that even the widow's mite is needful; hence the rich man's luxury ought to be curtailed.

We shall see what comes of the very excellent projects which have been concerted between the minister of agriculture and the Sicilian deputies for the sulphur mines and the agricultural contracts. If the present House, born of corruption more corrupt than any former one (and that is saying much), should vote these bills, it would be a sign of possible purification. Hope costs nothing, but when we read the proposals of the agricultural association which demands a tax on corn to amount to nine lire per quintal (the tax at present is five lire), we confess that hopes grow dim. J. W. M.

Correspondence.

OFFICIAL FEES AND APPOINTMENTS IN ONTARIO, CANADA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Government of Ontario has appointed commissioners to investigate and report upon facts concerning proposed changes in the system of appointing certain officials and the manner of paying them. At present, these appointments are made by the executive Government; it is proposed in some quarters to have these officers (whose functions are within counties) elected by the people, or, in the alternative, selected by county councils. At present they are paid by fees, or by a proportion of fees—the rest of the fees being applied to county or other purposes. It is proposed in some quarters to have these officers paid by fixed salaries. The officers are sheriffs, registrars (or recorders) of deeds, local masters (in chancery), county crown (or prosecuting) attorneys, registrars and other clerks of courts of superior, intermediate, and subordinate jurisdiction (*i. e.*, in the High Court, the County Court, and the Division Court) as organized in the different counties.

Information is now sought through your columns as to the sources from which authentic details can be obtained concerning the manner and amount of the remuneration of like local officials in the various States of the Union, and also as to the source and amount of remuneration of like officers appointed by the Federal Government of the United States—such as marshals, district attorneys, etc. A reference to books or official publications or the names of public officers or others from whom such information could be compendiously obtained is sought by the commissioners in order to expedite and benefit their investigations.

Believing that the mention of this need in your journal will lead to its being speedily satisfied, I am,

Respectfully yours,
One of the Commissioners.

Toronto, April 9, 1894.

THE SITUATION IN SOUTH CAROLINA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: South Carolina may be described as a one-city State. That city is Charleston. Columbia, although the capital on account of its central site, is comparatively a small place (12,000 inhabitants), has very few if any manufacturing interests, and does not possess any trade worth the name except that which is purely local. The other towns in the State are little more than country villages; the largest being Spartanburg (9,000), Beaufort (5,000), and Greenville (5,000).

Charleston is a very old and a very opulent city—one of the richest cities for its size in the United States. It has about 60,000 inhabitants, 30,000 of whom are negroes. It has a large trade with South Carolina and neighboring States, and ships its phosphates and cotton all over the United States and direct to England. The wholesale grocery business finds there a very important centre. There are also a number of wealthy cotton and rice factors. The business which has been extremely profitable in Charleston for years past, mainly as an adjunct of the corner-grocery stores, has been the liquor business with negroes. Most of the corner grocery-stores in Charleston had, up to the 1st of July last, a groggery annex. The negro, while he is an excellent and capable workman, is also a hopeless spendthrift. So it happened that a large proportion of his wages found their way every Saturday night into the hands of the corner grocer, who had been trusting him through the week for his groceries and liquors. This liquor trade was morally all wrong, encouraging as it did, in the most illiterate and unbridled element of the population, a taste for the unlimited consumption of strong drink. But the trade was carried on honestly and in an orderly manner, and open drunkenness was not any more noticeable in Charleston among the negroes than among the lower classes in Northern cities.

When the dispensary law went into effect on July 1, 1894, all this liquor business was wiped out in one day. All the corner groggeries became a thing of the past, and all the East Bay Street wholesale houses closed their doors. One East Bay firm of wholesale grocers and liquor-dealers disposed of some $100,000 worth of choice wines and liquors at public sale on the 29th and 30th of June, 1893. It was not possible that their means of livelihood should be thus swept away from so many of the citizens of Charleston and elsewhere throughout the State at one fell blow without creating bad blood between the liquor-dealers and the executive which had thus ruined their trade. Most of them, however, left Charleston and the State, and began business over again elsewhere.

But there were far more vital grounds of antagonism between the Governor and his Populist party and what he styles the "Bourbon" element, or prevalent "oligarchy," which means the wealthy, intellectual, and aristocratic classes. I am a Northern man by birth and instinct, but I have lived a great deal in the South of late years, and I am anxious that the intelligent classes here should understand exactly how the old, ante-bellum Southern element is now handicapped, and how it feels. It will be necessary to make very plain statements where so much misunderstanding exists, but I will try to explain the situation without hurting any one's sensibilities intentionally. The Populist party in South Carolina is largely composed of "Farmers' Alliance" men. This class as a whole is averse to hard work and keenly jealous of those who possess a larger share of this world's goods than do they. I have traversed the State of South Carolina again and again, on its trains, and have always been amazed to notice the great multitude of white men (mainly farmers from appearance) congregated at the depots. This concourse had, apparently, come together, not to board the train (for the bulk of patrons of Southern local trains are negroes), but simply to kill time and enjoy a better opportunity for the pleasant interchange of ideas. The Populists of South Carolina are famous talkers. They are unusually intelligent for their surroundings, are extremely clever at finance, and no doubt *able* to make themselves felt in almost any profession or branch of trade; *but they will not work.* Everything is done for them by the negro laborers.

These men are mainly descendants of the ante-bellum Southern planter (with some admixture of "carpet-bagging" stock); and, shorn of their property in the shape of negroes, and hence of their means, have never been able to readjust themselves to the changed condition of affairs. Prevented from providing themselves with the luxuries or accomplishments of life, they have preserved the pride, but lost the cultivation and well-to-do appearance, of their parents. They have certainly never been able to bring themselves, with any assiduity, to the day-in-and-day-out drudgery of work. Out of this class has Benjamin R. Tillman sprung. He and his fellow-Populists have developed a deep and enduring hatred of the rich and aristocratic class; and as this class is chiefly to be found in Charleston, Charleston is hated by the Populists of South Carolina. Gov. Tillman, before his election, threatened to make Charleston "whistle" if he got into power. And the minute he was elected he proceeded to put his threat into execution. The first descent of his constables was made upon Charleston. The circumstances attending their raid were such as to drive into fury even those who were "as patient as sheep." Private houses were entered in the pretended search for liquors, the contents of trunks and bureau-drawers strewn on the floor, and, in one case, the sheets and blankets torn off a bed in which a man's sick wife was lying.

The people of Charleston, though exasperated beyond all endurance, acted upon this occasion with firmness and great self-control. They acted just as one would *hope* that people of good repute, extensive cultivation, and great common sense would act. They protested firmly against the lawless employment of executive power, but did not allow themselves to be driven into the unthinking frenzy of bloodshed and retaliation which Tillman expected. Since then he has tried all expedients, but in vain, with the idea of getting the "Bourbon" classes to retaliate, and so throw themselves into his clutches. At the time when some negroes were lynched in the interior of the State, he endeavored to transfer St. Julien Jervey, the district attorney of Charleston, out of his own district and into that where the lynching had occurred (Edgefield, I think it was), that he might act as prosecuting attorney, and suffer the odium which the prosecution of the murderers would locally create. As the Popu-

list class is in the great majority, and can prolong the present crisis indefinitely, it may finally succeed in goading the long suffering Bourbons into mad retaliation. The better class of the citizens of South Carolina thus stand in great need of sympathy and support from the orderly and intelligent portion of Northern communities. M. D.

PHILADELPHIA, April 9, 1894.

POSTAL-UNION CARDS AND STAMPS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It would be of great advantage to travellers if the countries which form the Postal Union would, at their next convention, take up the subject of Postal-Union stamps and Postal-Union cards. What I mean is this: Supposing a person starts out from New York, he could provide himself with five-cent stamps, the rate of postage, or two-cent postal cards which have International Postal Union printed on them, so that they could be used everywhere. Or should you be in Germany, you would buy their Postal-Union stamps and cards which could be used in England or Norway, or anywhere else till you had exhausted the supply, and a new quantity would be bought. As it now is, when you land in Bremen, or Southampton, or elsewhere, you must first hunt up the post-office, perhaps you must have money exchanged before you can drop a letter or card home, or on leaving that country the stamps you have are of no value elsewhere.

Then another feature of great importance in having these Postal-Union stamps would be that it often happens that persons see books or little things advertised in foreign periodicals that cost perhaps a shilling, a mark, or even a franc. Now it does not pay to go and buy an international postal order for so small an amount, and it would be useless to send stamps to that amount of the country in which you live, because the party receiving them cannot use them or dispose of them. But had we the Postal-Union stamps, the recipient could use them in his foreign correspondence, or sell them to some one else who had such correspondence. Altogether the governments connected with the Postal Union will see of how much benefit to the public the proposed issue of stamps would be. H. T. FRUEAUFF.

EASTON, PA., April 13, 1894.

A CORRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a very kindly review of my 'Essays on Rural Hygiene,' which appeared in your paper of March 9, there is a slight misrepresentation of my views, caused, I have little doubt, by a printer's error. The review says: "In the *presence* of cesspools and pipes, surface wells, carefully defended against lateral infection and properly covered, are the safest, even in the midst of ground fertilized with domestic refuse." If for the word "presence" (which I have italicized) the word "absence" be substituted, my views will be correctly stated.—Your obedient servant,

G. V. POORE, M.D.

30 WIMPOLE ST., W., LONDON, March 29, 1894.

[Dr. Poore's surmise is entirely correct. The slip was of the pen or of the type. Dr. Poore's own words (pp. 241-2) are: "How have they [the shallow wells] been contaminated? . . . They have always been contaminated by direct inflow of filth from the surface of the ground . . . or by the leakage of cesspools or sewers direct into the well." "The cause of the fouling of shallow wells is universally found in a neighboring cesspool or sewer." "If the subterranean collections of filth were abolished, and if our surface wells were properly constructed, we might drink of them with perfect safety." He then describes the construction of his own well, which is five feet deep with impermeable sides, and a parapet one foot above the surface, and a tightly fitting cover, so that the water enters only through the bottom. He adds (p. 244): "If there be sewers or cesspools in the neighborhood of a well, such well cannot be safe, be it shallow or deep." We regret the error leading to this correction, but are glad to explain the author's views in detail. For, notwithstanding we continue to think it is a doubtful doctrine, on account of the almost inevitable errors of construction or the accidents of decay, Dr. Poore writes so clearly and enthusiastically that he deserves the most accurate expression of his views. It is hard enough to be a reformer without being misrepresented even by accident. —ED. NATION.]

GREEN BAY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If your reviewer of 'Historic Green Bay' (*Nation*, No. 1501, p. 259) be correct in his statement, "The truth is, that on the map above mentioned neither of the names Green Bay and Baye Verte is to be found at all," will he kindly explain what Mr. Justin Winsor means by "B. Verte" on the map of "Hennepin, 1697," on page 251, volume iv., of 'Narrative and Critical History of America'?

Very respectfully, D. S. KELLOGG.

PLATTSBURGH, N. Y., April 8, 1894.

[We had overlooked this smaller map of Hennepin's, which bears the same date as the larger one given on pp. 252, 253. However, we read "*R* Verte," and apply it to the adjacent river, while the name of what is now Green Bay is written across the shaded water and appears to be Baye des Puans.—ED. NATION.]

THE WIVES OF GERMAN PROFESSORS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your number for April 12 I find a sweeping denial from your correspondent "E. L. W." of a statement of mine in a previous issue of your paper, concerning the wives and daughters of German professors. As your correspondent writes from "intimate association with a very large circle of professors' families," I must conclude either that my own experience was phenomenally exceptional, or that your correspondent's standard and my own differ materially. As "E. L. W." remarks, German girls leave school at sixteen or seventeen—the age at which, in countries where it is to be had at all, the higher education for women *begins;* the age at which the German youth is still doing the preparatory work [illegible] education, which goes on till he is twenty-three, twenty-five, or even [illegible]. It was with the standard of this higher education that I measured them, and came to the conclusion which, with all due deference to your correspondent's opinion, I must still adhere to.

I should like to add, however, that I do not consider the German women responsible for these conditions, which are their misfortune rather than their fault. The higher education has been exclusively in the hands of the men, and only for the men, who have kept the women out and then stigmatized them as inferior because they did not possess it. To hear the average German professor or student speak of women and their intellectual capacity is as depressing to one of the unfortunate sex as a Mohammedan's view of heaven.

Your correspondent also scouts the idea that American women have done pioneer work in regard to the admission of women to the German universities. Yet Americans have been attending these universities for ten years, and the German women are only now beginning to do so. J. B. S.

NEW YORK, April 14, 1894.

THE VERTEBRÆ OF FISHES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a review of the 'Wilder Quarter-Century Book,' in your issue of March 29, among other pieces of off-hand theorizing, your reviewer says:

> "Taking a particular genus [of fishes], it is seen at once that the active species preying on the others have more vertebræ than the others that grope about the rocks and mud in the same waters."

In the whole class of fishes not a single illustration of this astonishing generalization has been found. There is no truth whatever in it.

The fact to be explained is, that as a rule members of the same group having different numbers of vertebræ *do not* inhabit the same waters. The resident shore fishes of the tropics have, in general, vertebræ in small numbers, and their allies in cold waters, in the deep seas, in the fresh waters, as well as the pelagic forms generally, show a progressive increase in the number of segments. This rule applies to carnivorous and herbivorous fishes alike, and it has no evident correlation with variations in habits, in food, or in degree of activity.

I recognize, of course, that a conceivable explanation of this, as of other cases of adaptation, is possible along "Lamarckian" as well as along "Darwinian" lines. Such an explanation is, however, not obvious unless it can be shown that a varied food-supply tends to accelerate skeletal evolution.

DAVID S. JORDAN.

LELAND STANFORD JUNIOR UNIVERSITY,
PALO ALTO, April 5, 1894.

[The above is characterized by emphasis rather than accuracy. Prof. Jordan may rest assured that the generalization which so astonished him *can* be illustrated, that there *is* truth in it, that members of the same group of fishes having different numbers of vertebræ *do* inhabit the same waters, and that correlation with habits *is* evident; his very positive assertions to the contrary notwithstanding. To answer his challenge

and induce a reasonable amount of caution in future, it is hereby suggested that he add to his knowledge of the subject an acquaintance with "a single illustration of this astonishing generalization" that complies with the conditions required, viz., the genus *Orestias*, represented by a number of species in Lake Titicaca on the summits of the Peruvian Andes. *Orestias Pentlandii* has more vertebræ than *O. Cuvieri;* either has more than *O. Agassizii* or *O. Mulleri*, and the others have fewer. All are in the same water. The more active have the more vertebræ. Let him go farther and compare the fishes of this cold lake with an allied genus, *Anableps*, of still greater activity in its peculiar feeding habit, and he will find much larger numbers of vertebræ in its lively species down in the warmer waters under the equator. More numerous vertebræ in these fishes correlate with habit or activity, but are directly opposed to what is demanded by the temperature theory. These illustrations are sufficient for our present purpose.—Ed. Nation.]

DESCENDANTS OF CROMWELL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The following extract is from a letter of Franklin, dated Philadelphia, 1736, addressed to his sister, Jane Franklin, residing in Boston. He is speaking of the number of deaths from smallpox:

"In one family in my neighborhood there appeared a great mortality. Mr. George Claypole (a descendant of Oliver Cromwell) had by industry acquired a great estate, and being in excellent business, a merchant, would probably have doubled it had he lived according to the common course of years. He died first, suddenly; within a short time died his best negro; then one of his children; then a negro woman; then two children more, buried at the same time, then two more; so that I saw two double buryings come out of his house in one week. None were left in the family but the mother and one child, and both of these lives till lately despaired of."

Can any of your readers answer the following questions: Was George Claypole, abovementioned, related to Cromwell? Are any descendants of the mother and child who escaped the smallpox in 1736, now living?

Very respectfully, S. T. A.

Washington, April 13, 1894.

Notes.

Funk & Wagnalls Co. promise for May 'Isabella of Castile,' by Maj.-Gen. O. O. Howard; and 'John Brown and his Men,' by Col. Richard J. Hinton—the final volume in the "American Reformers Series," in which the anti-slavery reform has certainly not been neglected. Col. Hinton has gathered together twenty portraits of John Brown's men which will illustrate his narrative, along with more than one of the crusader himself.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will follow up Miss Harraden's 'Ships that Pass in the Night' with a new novel by the same author, 'In Varying Moods.' They announce further 'The Upper Berth,' by F. Marion Crawford, and 'Red Cap and Blue Jacket,' by George Dunn.

The handy "Columbian Knowledge Series," edited by Prof. Todd of Amherst, and published by Roberts Bros., Boston, which has just begun with Mrs. Todd's 'Total Eclipses of the Sun,' proceeds with 'Public Libraries in America,' by William I. Fletcher, librarian of Amherst College, who will also have a volume apart from the series on 'Library Classification.' The same publishers have nearly ready 'Wayside Sketches,' by Eben J. Loomis.

A volume of anthropometric papers, consisting of such as were presented at the sessions of the International Statistical Institute in Chicago last September, and are shortly to appear in No. 24 of the Publications of the American Statistical Association, will be issued by this body in May. It will be enlarged by a paper on the growth of St. Louis children, by Dr. W. T. Porter, and by Dr. Henry P. Bowditch's well-known paper on the growth of Massachusetts children (1887). The secretary of the association is Davis R. Dewey, No. 497 Boylston Street, Boston.

Encouraged by the welcome given last year to her 'How to Know the Wild Flowers,' Mrs. William Starr Dana has prepared a second rambler's guide which she calls 'According to Season' (Scribners). The name indicates the book's plan, which is to group together the flowers that may be found in bloom about the same time, placing the groups in orderly succession so that a wayfaring man, if not a fool, may know not only what the flowers are which he has found, but also what he may hopefully look for from the time the swamp maple first crimsons the bleached branchage of the wood till the melancholy days when the witch-hazel's yellow tassels are the only visible reminiscence or prophecy of spring. As a companion to this little volume, which lacks illustrations, the same publishers issue a portfolio containing fifty plates from 'How to Know the Wild Flowers'—pictures so truthfully drawn that the plants they represent may be easily recognized even without the help of color.

That enthusiasm for flowers which prompted her as a child to worship like any Parsee the barbaric splendors of her marigolds, speaks from every page of Mrs. Celia Thaxter's 'An Island Garden' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Its brilliant binding and pictures glowing with orange and vermilion from Childe Hassam's lavish palette are strictly in keeping with the text, where exclamation-points abound; written, evidently, for the delight of those who share the same midsummer madness, and not requiring the approval of one who looks without excitement upon a flaming poppy or a stately group of hollyhocks.

An extremely opportune book at the present day, when the mining of gold has received a fresh impetus from the temporary decline in value of its sister metal, silver, is the 'Handbook of Gold-milling,' by Henry Louis (Macmillan). It is a scientific discussion from a practical standpoint, by a competent mining engineer, of the various mechanical and chemical processes in use at the present day for extracting gold from such of its ores as are not capable of complete disintegration by the action of roasting. No such discussion devoted exclusively to gold-milling has, so far as we know, hitherto been made. Modern improvements in gold-milling are largely of American origin, especially the mechanical ones, but it seems rather an advantage than a disadvantage that their relative merits should be discussed by an Englishman, when, as in this case, he shows a thorough familiarity with American appliances and practice, for his opinions must be more impartial, and are derived from a broader experience, taking in as it does the important gold fields of Australia and South Africa. The opening chapters are devoted to the mineralogical and chemical properties of gold and its alloys and amalgams, but, singularly enough, omit all discussion of its combinations with tellurium. The author shows thorough familiarity with his subject, and expresses himself clearly and concisely in not too technical language. His book should be of great value not only to the mill superintendent, but also to the intelligent mine-owner.

The Century Company have published, under the title of 'Famous Adventures and Prison Escapes of the Civil War,' a collection of noteworthy papers which originally appeared in the *Magazine*. Among them are the "War Diary of a Union Woman," edited by Mr. Cable; "Morgan's Raiders," by Gen. Basil Duke; "A Hard Road out of Dixie," by Mr. Shelton; "General Breckinridge's Escape," by Col. Wood, and a number of other famous and to become famous stories of the war. What with the De Vinne presswork and the numerous admirable illustrations, this beautiful duodecimo would be hard to match among the war-books, whether for matter or for form. It is an attractive volume for readers of all ages, but it is safe to say it will be preëminently a classic "boy's book" and a favorite.

'Kleopatra,' Georg Ebers's latest production, which we have received from the Deutsche Verlagsanstalt, through B. Westermann & Co., and an English translation of which is announced by the Putnams, is perhaps the most academic of all the academic performances of this professorial novelist, without a trace of genuine poetic intuition and overloaded with wearisome and irrelevant detail. One cannot help wondering why English and American readers should, year after year, be afflicted with translations of such tedious and lifeless elaborations as this, while the truly representative men of modern German literature, such as Gottfried Keller, Konrad Ferdinand Meyer, Hamerling, Rosegger, Sudermann, remain almost unknown. The same firm sends us a volume of 'Gedichte' by Georg Scherer, the well-known editor of the 'Deutscher Dichterwald,' which betray a respectable talent and refinement of feeling, but very little originality. A number of translations from English and American poets may amuse the curious.

Littell & Co., Boston, send us the bound volume of their *Living Age*, for January–March, 1894, the 200th in the series which men in middle life can now look back upon as one which no gentleman's library should be without. It is worthy of remark that this veteran eclectic should have maintained itself for fifty years, in spite of direct competition, and through all the vicissitudes of ever-cheapening literature, piracy, and copyright.

The *Overland Monthly* for April is almost wholly given up to the Midwinter Fair at San Francisco, which is illustrated in a great variety of ways with text and cut. The chapter on the architecture of the buildings is unexpectedly laudatory, though it is obvious from the pictures that, considered in itself, the architecture stands much in need of an apologist. Indeed, the writer himself is "inclined to doubt the desirability of housing the Fine Arts in an Egyptian temple."

The illustrations in *Around the World* for April (Philadelphia: Contemporary Publishing Co.) continue to show great judgment in selection. Three recent books of travel are laid under contribution much in the way formerly pursued by *Harper's Magazine*.

The *Geographical Journal* for April opens with a pleasant description of a journey into the interior of Iceland by Dr. K. Grossmann, in which an account of the remarkable cave of Surtshellir is the most striking part. The paper is illustrated by a map and a number of pictures from the author's photographs, giving a very vivid representation of the peculiar scenery of the island. The sultanate of Johore, occupying the most southerly portion of the Malay peninsula, is the subject of the following article by Mr. H. Lake. At present it is mainly a pathless wilderness, but Chinese agriculturists are settling in it in large numbers, and, though twice as numerous as the Malays, they make very contented and peaceful subjects. They occupy themselves chiefly with cultivating pepper and gambier. This is a product, employed for tanning, obtained from boiling the leaves and twigs of a climbing shrub (*Uncaria gambir*). We have noticed several inconsistencies in the orthography of the place-names as given in the article and upon the accompanying map. Mr. H. N. Dickson treats of the recent contributions to oceanography made especially by the "Plankton Expedition" of 1889 in the Atlantic and by the Prince of Monaco. Baron F. von Richthofen contributes a rather technical review of the first volume of Count Széchenyi's travels in eastern Asia.

Miss Annie R. Taylor, who has recently made an adventurous journey in Tibet, in an interesting article in the *National Review* endeavors to correct a false impression in respect to the political condition of that country, which is treated in such standard books of reference as the 'Statesman's Year-Book' and 'Whitaker's Almanac' as an integral part of the Chinese Empire. Dr. Henry Lansdell, in his 'Chinese Central Asia,' just published, says that it is "under the viceroy of Szechuen." The Tibetans, however, "disclaim Chinese rule altogether," except in the two eastern provinces, where it is "more or less nominal." In the other provinces the resident mandarins have authority over their countrymen alone, and merely defend Chinese trade interests. One proof of this independence is shown in the rigid exclusion of Chinese women from Tibet, even the wives of officials being turned back at the border. The connection of the two countries consists mainly in the payment of a yearly tribute by the emperor to the dalai lama. This amounts to "about one hundred thousand ounces of silver, and some ten thousand yak loads of tea." For this the lamas, who form a third of the male population, give China a monopoly of their foreign trade, as well as the power of levying taxes in the two eastern provinces. Miss Taylor repeats, what other travellers have asserted, that the Tibetans are restive under this arrangement, and would much prefer to trade directly with India, the route being shorter and less dangerous. By the Sikkim-Tibet convention, which has just been signed, British subjects are to be allowed to trade, except in certain specified articles, at Yatung on the Tibetan side of the frontier for five years.

The official list of new publications in India is very significant of the great change in that country within the last half-century. While, forty years ago, in Madras the publications of a year were but a handful, now they number a thousand in twenty different languages. The total for the whole of India, according to the last report, was 7,045. Of these, 1,580 were on religion, 989 on language, 928 on poetry, and 336 on science; fiction, medicine, law, and the drama each numbering between two and three hundred. The smallest numbers were travel 17, and politics 14. The native librarians, in their quarterly reports to the Government, complain, however, that works of merit are very rare, although they do find evidences of improvement, both in the talent and the moral tone of the works submitted to them. Pandit Hara Prasád Shástri, after stating that he had received for registration in the Province of Bengal 2,177 publications in 1891, of which 1,813 were original works, 364 republications and translations, adds: "Of the original works, about two hundred are books possessing more or less merit; the rest are keys, schoolbooks, missionary leaflets, and street literature. The republications are generally of some value." At other times, says *Dawn in India*, from which we have taken these facts, "he, along with the other librarians, laments over the low morality of native works, pandering to the worst appetites of corrupt natures."

We have received from Dyrsen & Pfeiffer (F. W. Christern) No. 1 of the monthly *Bulletin de l'Office du Travail*, published under the auspices of the French Ministry of Commerce. It will certainly merit the attention of all those who are concerned in the amelioration of the lot of the working classes. Its scheme falls into three parts—the social movement (*a*) in France and (*b*) abroad, and official acts and documents. Four closely packed pages are devoted to the state of legislation (bills) relating to social and labor questions before the French Parliament on January 1, 1894. A table of strikes for 1893 shows a total of 607, out of which 112 succeeded, 193 only partly succeeded or were compromised, and 223 were defeated, with 79 unreported. The year witnessed twice as many strikes as occurred in any one of the three preceding years.

The new weekly edition of the *Journal des Débats* (New York: Westermann) is a quarto of thirty-two pages with no pretensions to typographical elegance, and without even the inducement of continuous pagination to preserve and bind it: successive issues are identified only by the date. All this implies that there will be no index, and therefore that those who might wish to preserve the numbers will be discouraged. We hope the editors may at the beginning of July put a higher estimate on the enduring worth of their convenient summary. The table of contents embraces general political articles by well-known writers; foreign intelligence in brief orderly array; reviews of the stage, of science, of literature; notes, of news and comment; reports of learned bodies, of the courts; sport and fashion items; necrology; list of books received, etc., etc. The price of this weekly is $5.75 per annum, or $3 for six months, subscriptions beginning with any issue.

The *Débats* for March 20 prints a correspondence between Talleyrand and Alexander I., which manifests the Emperor's distrust of the prince diplomat. On September 15, 1810, Talleyrand coolly requests that 1,500,000 francs be placed to his credit at Frankfort. Alexander excuses himself on the ground of appearances and of duty to his country. The documents were lately published, from copies believed to be authentic, in a respectable review, the *Ruskaya Starina*.

The fine Atlas of the German Empire edited by Dr. C. Vogel (Gotha: Perthes; New York: Westermann) has just been worthily completed by an index which fills 65 pages of seven columns each in fine type. Such a list is a great accession to the common gazetteer, and is by itself worth the price (3 marks). The same firm sends us the second instalment of the Spamer Family Atlas, and the fifth edition (and I suppose 50th thousand) of Local Atlas, these last accompanied by a very valuable list of the sources of the maps, &c., for instance, in the case of the map of the New Guinea protectorate. The chief sheets of German trade are here carried out in maps with colored rings designating the kinds of industry in chosen districts, with comparisons.

From Dietrich Reimer, Berlin, comes the fifth part of Kiepert's Grand Atlas, with its customary apparatus of statistical tables and current indexes. Fine maps of Greece, Italy, and Switzerland are among the present series. The minuteness is almost up to the capacity of eyesight, as respects the names of places.

The Department of Library Economy of the Amherst (Mass.) Summer School is to open on July 2 and close on August 3, under the direction of Mr. William I. Fletcher, who will lecture daily as if to raw beginners. He should be addressed as above for particulars.

The Bibliographical Society (London) was founded in 1892 for the use by its members of works connected with Bibliography, and for the general promotion of bibliographical studies. The roll of the society, which now stands at 203, will be closed on May 20, after which candidates will be admitted only to fill vacancies and on payment of an entrance fee. Any one interested in bibliography before whom the objects of the society have not hitherto been brought, and who wishes to join it before the roll is closed, is invited to communicate with the Hon. Secretary, A. W. Pollard, No. 13 Cheniston Gardens, London, W. Public libraries and institutions are admitted to membership.

Mr. M. D. Conway writes in protest against our phrase "purely conjectural" applied to the early pieces in his first volume of Paine's Writings. "More or less conjectural" would have been nearer to our meaning, though this, too, is disputed by Mr. Conway, who says that Nos. 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 were collected by Paine's friends and contemporaries, and "have been circulated in American and English editions of Paine for seventy-five years." He adds:

> "I will only say, in conclusion, that the number of Paine's writings is so large that they can only with difficulty be compressed into the four volumes proposed. It is necessary to economize in the matter of prefaces and annotations, and I have assumed, perhaps too confidently, that those who desire more information than is given in my editorial notes would refer to my 'Life of Paine.' The public may rest assured that our space is too precious to be lightly conceded to articles of doubtful authorship, although in one instance, in vol. i., I have inserted as 'probably by Paine' a very brief essay published by Paine, 'Thoughts on Defensive War,' thinking there might be room for a hypercritical doubt."

—The New York Mathematical Society now embraces among its members every mathematician of note in the United States and Canada. A change in its style to the American Mathematical Society seems appropriate and may soon be made. Its monthly Bulletin is an extremely useful publication, filling a want which had previously been felt. At its recent meeting, Prof. Woolsey Johnson gave an account of Prof. Greenhill's latest proposed compromise between gravitational and absolute units. This brought on, quite inevitably, a lively discussion of the whole question, from which everybody carried away the same opinions they brought to it. Mr. C. P. Peters exhibited an arithmetic of 1474 from the splendid collection of Mr. George A. Plimpton. It is the most extensive work upon the subject of the age to which it belongs. It displays greater

skill than the arithmeticians of those days were supposed to possess, and is a find of which we shall hear more in the future. The author was Rollandus, a Portuguese physician, known for a work upon surgery and another upon physiognomy. He was a minor canon of the Sainte-Chapelle, and a protégé of John of Lancaster, to whom the arithmetic now brought to light bears a flowery dedication.

—The report of the London School of Medicine for Women for the year ending January 8, 1894, is a record of good work and sturdy growth. This English woman's medical college is a teaching and not a degree conferring body, its students being examined and diplomaed by the University of London, the Society of Apothecaries, London, the Royal University of Ireland, and by the Colleges of Physicians and Surgeons in Edinburgh and Glasgow. The report states that last year the Court of the University of St. Andrews, Scotland, granted an application made to them that the lecturers of the London School of Medicine should "be appointed by that university for the instruction of women in medicine"; but the requisite regulations as to the courses of study that will be required for "the medical degree of St. Andrews" have not yet been issued. There are 162 regular and special students now attending the school who receive their practical instruction at the Royal Free Hospital, the school paying to the hospital some $5,700 annually for the privilege of clinical service. That English medical women do not shirk severe tests of the quality of their work is partly shown by the fact that last year thirty-three students of the school passed the primary examinations of the Society of Apothecaries—a much coveted opportunity, thrown open to women only in 1893. During the past year former students of the London School of Medicine for Women secured the following posts: Assistant anæsthetist, Royal Free Hospital; resident physician at New Hospital for Women; house surgeon, Clapham Maternity Hospital; clinical assistant, N. E. Fever Hospital—London; resident physician, Victoria Hospital for Children—Hull; medical officer in charge of Lady Dufferin's Zenana Hospital —Calcutta; and clinical assistant, Richmond Asylum—Dublin, this being the first public medical appointment in Ireland which has been held by a woman. Few as are the hospital posts open to women physicians in the United States, it appears from this report that English women practitioners are even more handicapped; at present there are in Great Britain only ten medical institutions for women and children which have women physicians on their staff. Of these five are in London, two in Birmingham, and one each in Bristol, Manchester, and in Edinburgh.

—At the conclusion of the thirty-second Congrès des Sociétés Savantes in Paris on March 31, M. Spuller, the Minister of Public Instruction, spoke to the theme, "The Scholar in a Republic," and his words seemed to have been inspired by President Cleveland's address at the Harvard anniversary celebration in 1886, at which M. Spuller was present. He paid a high compliment to Mr. Cleveland in saying that his manly appeal to the cultivated classes to enter bravely into the public life of their time, and not to content themselves with dilettante criticism, made one of the most impressive speeches he had ever heard in his life. M. Spuller's address was received as one of the long-expected elucidations of his vague phrase, "the new spirit," and was full of hearty words of promise and encouragement for all who will earnestly enter into the work of "pacification and reconciliation which the republican government has undertaken in our country." His reference to other days and other than republican feelings, in the following words, was much applauded: "No doubt regrets are permissible and certain memories are sacred; but, however attached we may be to the past, we do not live for the past. We can study it only in order to know it well, but we live in the present and we work for the future." The Minister at the close of his address distributed the prizes of the year, and made touching reference to the losses by death in the ranks of French scholarship.

—One of the most extraordinary phenomena in the literary history of Germany is the hostility which is still manifested towards Heine, almost forty years after his death—an enmity based in about equal proportions on chauvinism, anti-Semitism, and the wrath naturally felt by Philistines towards men of genius who have lashed them and their ways with scorn and satire. The project of erecting a monument to Heine in his native city of Düsseldorf, a few years ago, met with so much opposition that it was dropped. Soon thereafter the committee took up Mayence as a suitable place, but nothing definite has been done as yet. It is stated on excellent authority that the Empress of Austria, an ardent admirer of Heine, had promised to provide the needed funds from her private purse, but was dissuaded by Herbert Bismarck, acting as the agent of Emperor William. The *Frankfurter-Zeitung* recently secured the opinions of noted German authors on the desirability of erecting a monument to Heine. Among those opposed were Felix Dahn and Ludwig Büchner, while Paul Heyse, L. Brentano, and Spielhagen are among his most prominent champions. Spielhagen took occasion to write this bitter truth about his countrymen: "The German people as a whole have no respect, to say nothing of veneration, for intellectual culture. . . . A nation that has had Goethe and Schiller, and does not yet comprehend that one of the very greatest of our lyric poets deserves a proud monument —truly one might despair of such a nation." The cudgels for Heine have also been taken up in the Vienna *Neue Freie Presse* by that clever dialectician Ludwig Speidel. He turns the tables on Büchner and Dahn. Büchner had incautiously referred to Schopenhauer, and Speidel takes occasion to remind him that Schopenhauer called him a "barber's apprentice," and his famous 'Kraft und Stoff' a "worthless book." Concerning Dahn (who has written about ninety books, and who, in his recent autobiography, with somewhat unexpected modesty, classes himself as "a second-rate savant and a third-rate poet"), Speidel remarks that he is "the poet of German chauvinism. He has treated the most German of all subjects, but any one who would assert that he has treated them in a German way knows not what German is."

—Speidel's opinion of Heine is also worth translating:

"Heinrich Heine is not a stranger, he is a German. Heine had a deeper insight into the German heart than any of those Teutons who are to-day impugning his German national feeling. In proof of this, read his remarks on German folk-song and on Goethe's lyrics, in which the pulse of the German people beats more vigorously than in any other of his treatises; examine his writings, pervaded by our characteristic national sentiments, and note how understandingly and sympathetically he gossips about the German legends, how full his fancy is with the figures of our sagas. Of his songs, which affect us like newly revealed feelings, and impress us by their concise and apt expression of German sentiment, it is surely unnecessary to speak at this day, and it may be safely said that his 'Atta Troll' still remains the last great German poem. In the case of a poet like Heine it is self-evident that he enriched the German language, and created master-works in German prose whose thoroughness and brilliancy will defy time. By his rich comic vein, by his wit and ridicule, he exerted a liberating influence at the time when every spontaneous movement of the spirit was suppressed. That this could not be done without occasionally inflicting wounds, is a result inseparable from the nature of wit, which is often a demonic power that possesses him who possesses it."

—The *National Observer*, which, though now published in London, began its career as the *Scots Observer* in Edinburgh, has been in existence but five years and a half. It was in its fifth or sixth week, when, despite its first somewhat brilliant prospects, it was on the point of disappearing altogether, that Mr. Henley took it in hand, and at once gave it a distinct individuality. It has made many enemies, and has never been popular; probably under Mr. Henley it never could be popular in the wide sense of the term, for in all matters, political, literary, and artistic alike, its standard has been ultra-conservative, or perhaps it would be more accurate to say aristocratic. It has rendered direct services to literature by its publication of much of the best work of the younger generation of poets, novelists, and essayists. In its pages have appeared the 'London Voluntaries' and many of the choicest of Mr. Henley's own poems, as well as chapters, or separate episodes, from the books of Mr. Stevenson, Mr. Hardy, and Mr. Barrie. It was the first literary organ to recognize Mr. Rudyard Kipling, whose 'Barrack-Room Ballads' were first printed in its columns. It introduced to the public Mr. Marriott Watson, Mr. Gilbert Parker, and Mr. Murray Gilchrist, three masters of the short story. Nor would it be easy to count the London journalists it has helped to train. Mr. Henley now retires from the helm, and what may be the *National Observer's* future with a new editor, Mr. J. E. Vincent, time must show.

—Lecène, Oudin & Cie. (Paris) have added two more volumes to their excellent collection of "Classiques populaires." The first is devoted to Bossuet, and is the work of M. G. Lanson, who has made large use of the book he wrote on the great orator and historian three years ago. The present production is partly a summary, it is true, of the former, but it is also, in a sense, an appendix to it, the numerous illustrative extracts from Bossuet's works giving it a special value. It is fully as readable as the larger book, for M. Lanson is thoroughly imbued with his subject and clear in his statements. The woodcuts, as is generally the case in the volumes of this collection, are wretchedly poor. It would be an advantage to omit them. The second volume, written by M. J. de Crozals, is upon Guizot, whose personality is far from being as attractive as that of Louis XIV.'s favorite prelate. The rigidity of character, the somewhat repellent nature, in public at least, of Guizot, the uncompromising principles of the man, are set forth in not too captivating a manner. It is difficult to decide whether this is due to the subject or to inability on the part of M. de Crozals to seize and keep the attention of his reader as does M. Lanson. Guizot ended by being very unpopular; M. de Crozals despairs of reversing that verdict, and his tone is somewhat apologetic

throughout, which does not help him to convince and charm the modern reader, who is nevertheless free from the influences which turned the generation of 1848 against Guizot. He also has an exasperating way of printing his quotations from Guizot's work which gives to the larger portion of his book the aspect of a commentary. Harder still on the dead historian is the morose portrait of him, which is quite in keeping with the style of the book.

GENERAL POLK.

Leonidas Polk, Bishop and General. By William M. Polk, M.D., LL.D. Longmans, Green & Co. 2 vols., 12mo, pp. 349, 442.

We have here a valuable contribution to the history of the civil war. It has been understood that for some years Dr. Polk has had in hand his father's biography, and he has spared no pains to make it an adequate record of the ecclesiastical as well as the military history of Bishop Polk. The spirit and tone of the book are excellent. The story is told with fulness enough to explain itself and to be its own apology, without controversy and without bitterness. It presents the man as his conduct and his own words explained his motives, and these are such as to command the respect even of those who were in antagonism to him. The material gathered seems to have divided itself very conveniently into two equal parts, so that the first volume is wholly devoted to the youth and the clerical labors of Bishop Polk, the second to the military career of the general.

That the Protestant Episcopal Bishop of Louisiana should at the outbreak of the great rebellion accept a commission as a major-general in the Confederate Army was always more or less a stumbling-block to religious people. His brethren of the episcopate and of the ministry at the South accepted the judgment of the venerable Bishop Meade of Virginia when he said that he could not sanction it, but, as all rules have exceptions, he could not condemn it. The case was exceptional in the fact that Bishop Polk was a graduate of West Point, though he had never actually served in the army after graduating. During his cadetship such religious impressions had been made upon him through the preaching of Bishop McIlvaine, then chaplain of the Military Academy, that he had resolved to enter the ministry, and he went from the Academy to the Theological Seminary. Ill health and family affairs had interfered with his plans, so that he had, in fact, almost no experience as a rector of a parish when he was, in 1838, made missionary bishop of the Southwest. In 1841 he became Bishop of Louisiana.

It is fair to say that habits of command were thus more natural to his mind than those of ministration, and his position as a dignitary, united with the influence of a leading member of the prominent family of the Polks of North Carolina and Tennessee, gave a kind of local leadership which, in connection with his military education, made the offer of a military command easily take the guise of a duty. Casuistry on such a subject is pretty sure to involve itself in practical difficulties. Theoretically, there is no apparent reason why a pious bishop as well as a pious farmer or mechanic may not slaughter men in war. By similar reasoning one may argue that it is as right for a woman to enlist against a public enemy as for her husband or her son. But many centuries of experience have shown that the curiously complicated structure of human society suffers a damaging shock when certain hereditary conventions are violated. Among these are the rules that ministers of the Gospel shall be ministers of peace, and that amazons shall not be enlisted in the most righteous war. If there be exceptions, they only prove the rule, and a fighting parson may well continue as rare as a Jeanne Darc. There were examples on both sides of Mason and Dixon's line of the violation of both traditions; but the experience of the civil war has not weakened the authority of the general rule.

The sincerity and conscientiousness of Bishop Polk are sufficiently shown in the intimate history of his life and in his private correspondence; yet one who reads it will see that a curious struggle went on in his mind. When travelling in England as a comparatively young man, he was impressed with the advantages of a wholly free community. He recorded his conviction that it was greatly desirable that the South should be rid of slavery. Yet, in 1861, he was so militant in his support of secession based on the claim to a constitutional extension of slavery into the Territories, that he was popularly looked to as a leader who might be expected to exchange his robes for a gray uniform. He did so with some hesitation; and when the first excitement of the rebellion cooled a little, he twice tendered his resignation and sought to return to his episcopal duties, but President Davis evidently felt that this would be disadvantageous to the Confederate cause, and Gen. Polk yielded to Mr. Davis's wish.

The biography will give to Northern readers a higher opinion of Gen. Polk's quality as a soldier than the one which has been common among us. The official reports of Beauregard at Shiloh and of Bragg in the Tullahoma and Chickamauga campaign contained criticisms of Gen. Polk of a kind peculiarly likely to stick. He was represented as wilful if not insubordinate, taking liberties with military orders sent him, and obeying or not, as he pleased. Intimations were made that his love of personal comfort made him sleep too far from the bivouac of his troops on important occasions, and that he assumed, as an important personage, a personal freedom from the stricter rules of discipline. Out of this grew the idea, more or less prevalent, that his importance to the Confederate cause was rather as a social leader than as a military officer.

Without too distinctly recognizing the need of defending his father from these imputations, Dr. Polk has quite fully arrayed the evidence which shows that such opinions did an injustice to the general. His presence in the thick of battle and his bravery under fire are shown to be habitual. In the matter of his position and headquarters in the night after the first day's fighting at Chickamauga, which Bragg made the occasion of charges against him, the exoneration seems to be complete. He spent the night close to Alexander's bridge, where the most casual examination of the map fixes the appropriate position for the commander of the Confederate right wing, whether we consider the handling of his own troops or communication with army and corps headquarters during the night. Mr. Davis himself examined the grounds of this controversy, and settled it in his visit to the army by dismissing the charges and assigning Gen. Polk to the command of the Department of Alabama and Mississippi.

What at first blush seems to be a personal matter between Bragg and Polk turns out to be of greater consequence. It involves the question of Bragg's capacity for so large an independent command as was given him in 1862, and the whole conduct of the campaigns of that and the next year. The biography's greatest historical value is found in the light it throws on the operations of the Confederate campaigns in the West, down to the battle of Chickamauga. Bragg is represented to have been a man of much talent in administrative work and in organization and discipline; but one who "let down" when burdened with the supreme responsibility of a great campaign. His power of decision then seemed to leave him, and he became hesitant and vacillating. Thus, at Perryville, after a bold movement from Chattanooga into Kentucky had brought him within striking distance of Buell's army, his nerve is represented as failing him, and at the moment when decisive concentration and a strong initiative were all-important, he could decide nothing, let illusions outweigh positive information as to the movement and position of the national army, and lost at once by his own weakness all the advantage he had gained from his earlier strategy. A similar weakening is shown to have occurred at Tullahoma and at Chickamauga. In short, unless the evidence thus presented can be overridden, we must conclude that Bragg was a type of the class of second or third-rate men, so common in military history, whose intellect and will break down under the strain of responsible command, and who are consequently unfit for it. The splendid fighting of the troops in the engagements mentioned, and at Stone's River as well, is attributed to the leadership of the corps and division commanders, while the general-in-chief would seem to have been practically a cipher in the crises when a real general counts for most. This view is presented so calmly but so cogently that no one can question its capital importance in the discussion of these critical campaigns of the West.

Gen. Polk was not destined to see the end of the war. His influence was great in procuring the appointment of Gen. Johnston to supersede Bragg, but in the midst of the Atlanta campaign he was instantly killed by a cannonball while he was assisting Gen. Johnston in an examination of Sherman's position from the top of Pine Mountain. The author was an officer of artillery in his father's command at the beginning of the war, and a member of his staff later. His intimate personal knowledge of all that he relates is therefore complete, and his unusual fitness for his task is shown by the admirable temper and taste of the whole work. Writers on the National side will differ from him in matters of fact when testimony is conflicting, and the perennial question of relative numbers will be found to be treated with a Confederate bias often discussed by us; but everybody who is in earnest in studying the history of that time will appreciate the work of an honest and able interior view of the Confederacy and of many of the first among the able men who directed its destinies. There are pictures, too, of Southern home life in the *ante-bellum* days which are full of interest and instruction, and thus the book will, from many points of view, be found to justify the judgment first expressed, that it is a very valuable contribution to American history. The folding maps are reproductions in colors of those in the Government Atlas accompanying the official records of the war, and as they are by Bien & Co., the original engravers, they mark an important step in the illustration of historical memoirs.

KIDD'S SOCIAL EVOLUTION

Social Evolution. By Benjamin Kidd. Macmillan & Co. 1894.

We have here a striking and original work, evidently the product of long study and careful thought, by a hitherto unknown author. Mr. Kidd bases his effort on the idea that while science has been actively engaged in studying the evolution of every form of life from the lowest to the highest, with fairly satisfactory results, she stands dumb in the presence of humanity. There is to-day no science of human society, properly so called, and no indication from those who speak in the name of science even as to the direction in which the path of future progress is to lie. The older political economy has been weighed in the balance and found wanting; the new economics gives only vague and shadowy intimations. Spencer, the greatest student of the subject, has thrown so little practical light on the problems of sociology that his conclusions are held up, by two opposing parties, in support of diametrically opposite views. Huxley and George have portrayed the imperfections of society as it exists, but have not even suggested a law of progress by which we may judge of the probable future. The former would willingly see some kindly comet sweep the race from the earth, unless there is to be an improvement; but his criticism on social efforts is so completely destructive that no inference respecting future conduct can be drawn from its conclusions. It is to this neglected subject of the law of progress in human society, and its probable form during the twentieth century, that Mr. Kidd devotes his work.

His treatment is everywhere of the broadest kind, his style a model of dignity and philosophic calmness, and his periods so stately that it is a pleasure to follow him. He rarely offends the reader by descending to the consideration of specific facts, or analyzing the proximate causes of the phenomena he discusses, but rather contents himself with basing his arguments on those general features of the situation which it is the province of the scientific investigator to bring out. The reader is carried through the air without any disagreeable approach to the asperities of the landscape, and shown a very pleasant succession of instructive views, extending from the beginning of the race well through the twentieth century. The author avows no creed, follows in the footsteps of no party, and writes and criticises all views with such impartiality that it may be hardly fair to class him with any school. But the general trend of his thought, at least in all but the earlier chapters, is unmistakably that of the so-called Christian socialist.

It is doubtless through a failure on our part to catch precisely the logical connection of his argument that we are unable to mould the earlier and later chapters into a congruous whole. In the former, the conditions of human progress are discussed in a way that looks so discouraging, the absence of any rational sanction for the conditions of progress is argued with such force, and the antagonism between the interests of the individual and those of the social organism are dwelt upon with such an apparent implication of the impossibility of improvement, that the reader might almost think himself listening to a demonstration of pessimism as regards the future. But when the discussion of modern socialism opens, and the forecast of the future begins, a brighter light shines upon the page. The want of a rational sanction for human progress is to be supplied by the ultra-rational sanction of religious belief, which is to lead the individual to subordinate his personal good to that of the social organism. The doctrine of non-interference of the State in social matters is to be abandoned, and the lower and weaker classes are to be equipped at the general expense against the higher and wealthier classes. Indeed, we are already far past the doctrine that the end of public endeavor is to secure political equality for all. During the twentieth century we shall see among the Western peoples a process of social development tending to bring all the people into the rivalry of life on conditions of social equality. Even now there is rising in England a school of political economists who are beginning to question whether poverty itself may not be abolished, and whether it is necessarily any more a permanent institution than was slavery.

The author's turn of thought is shown by his failure to perceive the logical difficulties in the interpretation of his scheme—a failure which seems as complete as that of socialists generally to appreciate the practical difficulties in the way of putting their plans into operation. He correctly points out that the great work of the progressive party during the nineteenth century has been to secure the recognition of the principle that all men are equal before the law. When he maintains that this party must now go further in the same direction, he brings to mind the Irishman who would have one man not only as good as another, but "a great deal better." What is poverty? And when we have defined it, what is to be done with the man who would rather suffer it as we define it than work hard for a living? If all men are equal before the law, he is to have his own way. If we are going to force him to earn a living, this is not a step forward beyond equality, nor is it in the direction of giving him equal social opportunities, but it is rather a step backward towards feudalism. We must decide for him how many of the good things of this life are needful to keep him out of poverty, and make him work until he earns them, much as the baron did with his serfs. If we are not to use force, but must still keep him out of poverty, every such man must be fed and clothed at the public expense. If this is what Mr. Kidd means by social equality, he should say so more explicitly. If the industrious part of the community is to support the idle, not merely by giving them the necessaries of existence, but by lifting them above poverty, the policy could hardly be called equality. In fact, our author is at one with all classes of socialists in ignoring the fact that great numbers of people, both of our own and of other races, do not want to be elevated above the condition of poverty, or, at least, do not want it earnestly enough to work continuously and industriously for it; and that any measures looking towards supporting them in any condition above that which they are willing to attain by their own exertions, will only produce demoralization.

When he divides mankind into the exploiting and the exploited classes, and gives an endorsement, even very qualified, to Karl Marx's view that the interests of the laborer and the capitalist under the present system are necessarily so antagonistic that those of the former must suffer, he betrays an intellectual bias which materially weakens our confidence in the soundness of his conclusions. He does, indeed, admit the great improvement which has taken place in the condition of the laboring classes during the present century; and if he believes that this improvement is the outcome of the great increase of capital which has taken place, and of the efforts of the capitalists to make money, he should frankly have said so and reconciled the conclusion with his theories of progress. If he does not believe it, he should have set forth what he considers the cause of the improvement. He does neither.

We must conclude that with all the praise that may be accorded to the work from a literary or philosophical standpoint, it is found wanting when regarded as an actual investigation of social evolution by scientific methods. That sublimated essence of facts on which sound philosophy must be based, can be distilled only from the concrete facts themselves; and while the writer correctly points out that this has not yet been done in a satisfactory way, he does not attempt to do it himself. As an illustration of what the scientific method is, and how far Mr. Kidd comes from applying it, let us take the case of the suffering poor in such a metropolis as London. Science would begin by looking up some poor Hodge, and questioning him as to his history and antecedents. It would find that Hodge had not been bred to habits of regular industry, unless in a very restricted field, and had not learned to do anything which millions of others could not do better than he could; that in fact he had grown up without any definite object in life. Now in middle age he is unable to do anything that anybody else wants done. Taking Hodge as a typical case, the conclusion reached would be that the principal cause of poverty is the absence in youth of that training necessary to enable a man to earn a living after he shall grow up. The question, Why so much poverty? would then resolve itself into, Why such an absence of training?

The consideration of this question would open up a further field of study. It would probably be found that at the present time a larger proportion of the youth of the land are growing up without any definite object in life than was the case in former generations. A hundred years ago every careful parent considered it his duty to train his boys to a trade, or to secure some opening for them in life. If they lived on a farm, they were to become farmers; if in the neighborhood of a castle, they might become servants or hunters; if in a town, tradesmen or mechanics. Why should this not be equally the case in the present generation? One answer is that the incentive is less now than it was then. Owing to the increase of wealth, it was never so easy for one who knew nothing and could do nothing to pick up the shreds of a living as it is now. A hundred years ago starvation stared such a man in the face; now nothing worse than *la misère*, and scarce even that in England or America. When the wages of fifteen minutes' work of the average laborer will buy a loaf of good bread, and an hour's labor a pound of meat, no one need suffer for food—a result the very knowledge of which removes a strong motive to the industrial education of the children of the poor.

With all its shortcomings, we consider Mr. Kidd's book well worthy the careful study of thinking men. The author is a socialist of the most moderate and sensible kind, and he outlines correctly the direction in which the world is trying to move; we might say the direction in which it is being impelled by the increasing pressure of a great mass of ill-disciplined and therefore generally unsound thought. His keen analysis, breadth of view, and fairness of statement will commend his

views to the reader even when they seem to lack a basis in the facts of life.

BARBER'S POTTERY AND PORCELAIN OF THE UNITED STATES.

The Pottery and Porcelain of the United States: An historical review of American ceramic art from the earliest times to the present day. By Edwin Atlee Barber, A. M. Ph. D., etc., etc. With 223 illustrations. G. P. Putnam's Sons. Small quarto, pp. xvii, 446.

THIS is an industrious and painstaking book on a somewhat thankless subject. Mr. Barber has brought together more facts in relation to the history of pottery in this country than will be found, we believe, in any other one book, he has stated these facts clearly and compactly and arrayed them in order, and he has put the future student of such matters under an obligation by the thorough way in which he has performed his task. If, after all his labor, the result of his studies must be pronounced not only dry, but depressing, that, certainly, is not his fault: pottery as a manufacture can be interesting only to potters, and pottery as an art has, as yet, produced in this country hardly any fruit worth mentioning. The pieces contained in our museums and private collections in which some glimmer of artistic feeling may be indulgently discerned, are either copies, always rude, made by our earliest potters, of models brought from the old country, or direct borrowings—never wholly successful because always balked by native ineptitude—from the better equipped manufactories of Europe.

The opening chapters of Mr. Barber's book relate to processes of manufacture, and to the materials employed, but we are not told as much as we might expect of the native sources of these materials. It is believed that we have in this country every kind of clay needed in the making of pottery, including large deposits of true kaolin, and these materials are said to be equal to the best found in other countries. It is a curious fact, recalled by Mr. Barber, that in 1766, Wedgwood, the famous English potter, "procured samples of the Carolina clays from the country of the Cherokees, some three hundred miles from Charleston, which, proving satisfactory after trial, were, for several years after, used by him in larger quantities. Subsequently, he imported clays from Florida, which he seems to have preferred to the former."

Mr. Barber's chapter on Aboriginal Pottery is well enough, though it has really no essential connection with the subject, and has nothing to tell us that was not already known. The aborigines of this continent were savages, and they gave to the things they made—their pottery, their textiles, their carving in stone or wood—no better form or ornamentation than we find in the work of savages everywhere. What interests us in these things—the only interest they can have for us—is their curious relationship to what is found in other countries, the work of peoples alien to our aborigines in race, so far as we know, and certainly separated from them by vast reaches of land and water, and perhaps of time.

Mr. Barber's subject properly begins with his chapter on Early Brick and Tile-making. It was at one time believed that all the bricks used in this country before the middle of the last century were brought from Holland or England. No doubt, this is true of many cases—instances are known to everybody who is interested in the matter, but Mr. Barber shows that "brick-making had become an established industry in America a few years after the arrival of the first white settlers." The same is true of roofing-tiles: the earliest that were used are believed to have been brought from Holland; but, as in the case of bricks, while this was well enough for people who lived on the seaboard, "the cost of importing these supplies and transporting them to the rural districts far removed from tide-water would have been prohibitory." Kilns for their manufacture were therefore set up at an early date; but even with regard to certain tiles that were dug up from the ruins of houses built on the Burlington Islands in the Delaware River in 1668, Prof. Edward S. Morse, whose competence in such matters is well known, is of opinion that, since there is no evidence to show that they were imported, they may have been made in this country. By the middle of the eighteenth century, the manufacture of roofing-tiles was well established in Pennsylvania—Mr. Barber tells us nothing of their making in any other part of the country; and though after a time they ceased to be used, yet of late they are coming into favor again, and are now made in many places on this side the water.

The chapters that follow on Early Potting in America are as entertaining as the subject allows, and Mr. Barber's industry in the collecting of facts does him great credit. Little that he reports has any relation to the artistic side of the general subject; such shadowy suggestion of art feeling as these early pieces show is too plainly reminiscent of Old-World models. Often, no doubt, the designs, if we may call them such, were directly copied from pieces as rude as themselves, brought over by immigrants, since the potters here would find it to their interest to supply their customers with wares associated with life in their old homes. Utility, and not beauty, was then the quest of these early workmen, and such ornamentation as they added to their wares was of little other value than as a relief to the bareness of the surface.

The greater part of Mr. Barber's book is taken up with the history of the manufacture of pottery in this country. Strictly speaking, there has not been, on the artistic side, much that can rightly be called development in pottery as an art among us. Even Mr. Barber, who is full of honest patriotic zeal in his advocacy of our home manufacture, and who does not stick, like the good Pennsylvanian that he is, at advocacy of the most drastic measures to advance its interests—as he understands them—is obliged to admit that, "thus far, our potters have been in a great measure imitators rather than inventors, and the result is that we have largely reproduced, though in a most creditable manner, patterns and designs, bodies, glazes, and decorations of foreign factories" (p. 428). We will grant that this copying of designs has been necessary up to the present time—it has been common in all countries and in all ages; but in almost every case there was some artistic instinct or feeling in the copyist that gave to the copy if not a charm, at least an impress of its own, and, the impulse from abroad once communicated, the new art went on, developing on lines of its own. But, with us, the love of copying seems persistent, and we are so far from being ashamed of it that we think it clever. We take pride, if Mr. Barber may be spokesman for us, in the fact that we have so successfully imitated a pretty and peculiar Irish manufacture as to drive the original from our market. One of our countrywomen, who no doubt could have done something original if she had given her mind to it, wasted her time and energy in a successful attempt to discover "the secret" of the Limoges faïence exhibited in 1876 at Philadelphia, and now, happily, as dead as the dodo. Another of us "directed his efforts towards solving the secret of the famous *sang de bœuf*, and, after four years of sacrifice and patient investigation, his labors were in a measure successful." And still another thinks it has been worth his while "to discover the method of making the *reflet métallique* of the old Persian tiles." What has been gained for art by all this copying? The expense of the manufacture puts the pieces produced beyond the reach of the public, and artists and connoisseurs care nothing for them. A copy is always a copy, and we are not surprised to read that, after all the labor put forth in making facsimiles of the *sang de bœuf* glaze, "the demand for works of this character being limited, some of the finest examples still rest on the dusty shelves in the Chelsea workshop."

Outside of the Rookwood pottery, of which the clays and glazes are alone to be admired—a love of the bizarre injuriously affecting the greater part of the forms, and the glazes themselves having, too often, a sweetness and slickness found cloying in the long run—we have seen nothing to warrant Mr. Barber's enthusiastic laudation of our national achievement in the potter's art. The pictures given in this book, illustrating the work of our factories or of particular persons, though highly praised by the author, are disheartening enough; but they fairly represent the jejune, tasteless, inartistic designs that crowd our magazines and meet the eye in our houses on every side. Mr. Barber's industry and thoroughness as a compiler are praiseworthy, but his qualifications as an *arbiter elegantiarum* are not so clear: the example of Mr. W. W. Gallimore's skill as a modeller in low-relief given as a frontispiece to the book furnishes ground for serious misgivings on the subject, which are not dispelled by the approval bestowed on such a monstrosity as Mr. Miller's design for a frieze obtained by the happy thought of cutting octagonal spittoons in half (p. 343). No one who had the artistic development of our pottery at heart would so much as mention such a performance, but the book abounds in proof of a want of perception. It is vain to hope that pottery will become an art in our country so long as those who direct its manufacture are incapacitated as teachers or guides, either by a want of natural instinct or because such instinct as they may have has not been developed by education. No doubt, too, the taste of our people at large is at fault: we have no inherited standard, and we are much too easily pleased. It is not encouraging to know that, to any one who has the artistic sense, a ten-cent Japanese bowl, even in these supposed degenerate Japanese days, is capable of giving more pleasure than all that Trenton, Cincinnati, and Chelsea put together have produced.

We believe there is a happy future for the art of pottery in our country, but its coming will surely be hindered rather than hastened by the protectionist devices of Mr. Barber and those who think with him; by the rigorous shutting-out of foreign examples from our exhibitions which he proposes (p. 427), or by the attempt at cutting off the importation of foreign wares by prohibitory duties. It ought to be seen by this time that wild horses cannot drag cultivated Americans to buy inferior articles solely because they are made at home.

"The fiend that man harries
Is love of the Best."

And long may he harry our American potters until we cease to do evil, learn to do well.

Studies of the Stage. By Brander Matthews. Harper & Brothers. 1894.

In these half-a-dozen essays Mr. Brander Matthews converses pleasantly, if not always originally, upon a variety of theatrical topics, displaying in every case that intimate acquaintance with the subject which comes of long personal experience and careful research. There are, indeed, very few persons who are more competent than he to speak of the French and English stages, both past and present, so long as he confines himself to fact and anecdote. During the last twenty years or more he has seen every play worth seeing and known every actor worth knowing, being as much at home on one side of the curtain as the other, and, moreover, he has read diligently, widely, and intelligently, acquiring indisputable authority upon all theatrical matters, historical, technical, and personal. He is able to keep his reader constantly entertained by his copious supply of incidents, comparisons, and quotations, and his skill in the introduction and management of old material.

Of the papers under present consideration not one is dull, although a good deal of the information contained in them is rather elementary, and some of the opinions expressed are more dogmatic than convincing. As a narrator, Mr. Matthews is interesting and trustworthy, but his conclusions are apt to be hasty and to rest upon a particular instance rather than upon a general rule. What he says about the difficulty of dramatizing a novel is all true enough, and he might have gone a good deal further without much fear of contradiction; but his closing assertions, that "the drama is really the noblest form of literature because it is the most direct," and that "it calls forth the highest of literary faculties in the highest degree," are somewhat violent. Accumulated superlatives of this sort are always dangerous. In discussing the dramatic conditions in England one hundred years ago, he says "that the sudden extension of journalism undoubtedly tended to decrease the public interest in the drama." This is an opinion which it would be difficult to support by proof. To the ordinary observer the newspaper appears to be a most potent supporter and advertiser of the theatre, and it would be scarcely too much to say that the two institutions have grown and flourished together. The effect of the newspaper upon the quality of contemporary drama is another question altogether. Again, Mr. Matthews says, "It is much easier to write a novel than it is to make a play," but that, clearly, depends upon the kind of novel and play that is meant. As a matter of fact the two things are essentially different, as Mr. Matthews himself points out, and cannot justly be compared.

Another curious remark for a critical writer to make occurs in the excellent paper on Francisque Sarcey. "Seen by the light of the lamps, a play has quite another complexion from that it bears in the library. Passages pale and dull, it may be, when read coldly by the eye, are lighted by the inner fire of passion when presented in the theatre." The first half of this paragraph is undoubtedly true, but the second half takes no account whatever of the power of the imagination of an intelligent reader. Of course, a great actor is a potent commentator and illustrator, and often reveals unsuspected beauties to the student, to say nothing of the ignoramus, but it is the tritest of truths that some of the choicest masterpieces of the poetical drama wholly defy the genius of the actor and the cunning of the stage manager. In another place Mr. Matthews says that "the dramatic critic does not see a new play—he sees only a performance," which can be true only where the critic is wholly incompetent, or, in other words, no critic at all. Other examples of such loose generalization might be quoted, but it would not be generous or fair to insist too strongly upon the occasional flaws in an attractive little volume which is full of entertainment, and offers a great variety of information in compact and agreeable form.

Cœurs Russes. Par le Vte. E. Melchior de Vogüé. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.

In this volume M. de Vogüé has collected together five short sketches of Russian life, the most recent of which, he states, was published ten years ago. In an interesting introduction which describes Russian weather and habits, he represents four of the stories as having been narrated to him by a landed proprietor who was personally acquainted with the facts. However that may be, the stories are full of life and of the spirit of the land. The longest of them, "Varvara Afanasievna," is nothing more nor less than the history of the Medical Courses for Women in St. Petersburg cast in abbreviated narrative form, and its heartrending details might be verified in many cases of real life, without a doubt. "Le Fifre Petrouchka" is the stirring tale of a peasant hero who revived the courage of his starving comrades in a fortress of the Caucasus besieged by the Turks, and saved the place until reinforcements arrived by playing "God Save the Czar" on his fife. It is as characteristic as are the prefatory remarks about the Russian peasant in general and Petrouchka in particular. "L'Oncle Fédia" reminds one of a tale of L. N. Tolstoi's, where the innocent allows himself to be sent to Siberia to save the guilty, the truth being discovered too late to rescue the peasant hero from his undeserved punishment. The story is told with beautiful truth and simplicity. "Le Temps du Servage" presents a repulsive picture of pre-emancipation manners on some badly managed estates. But, as the author makes his Russian friend remark:

"The principle was detestable. The application of it was more gentle than that of the feudal code in many parts of Europe. The great mistake which we made (we, the civilized of yesterday) was to exhibit such manners to the Occident when the latter had become unused to them, when it had become prudish and prompt to feel scandalized. Its conscience reproached it with its own old sins; it consoled itself by belaboring our shoulders. But, having said thus much in exculpation, it must be confessed that there were some sad exceptions."

It is one of these sad exceptions which forms the subject of the sketch. "Le Manteau de Joseph Olenin" does not deal with peasant life, but it is equally characteristic of Russian temper. Joseph Olenin belongs to the learned class of society, to the upper classes to which the author's remark in this story especially applies: "You are Slav, consequently more or less of a spiritualist, a believer in metempsychosis and a lot of other similar things." Joseph Olenin is obliged to leave Petersburg, while engaged in scientific investigations concerning the sojourn of the Hebrews in Egypt, to visit his estate in Little Russia on business. On the way he loses his travelling-coat lined with fox-skin. He despatches his servant to the posting-station near the scene of the loss, and the postmaster sends him a cloak which has been found and brought in. On opening the parcel, Olenin finds a lady's cloak of blue velvet lined with valuable sables and cut in Polish fashion. He endues this cloak with a sort of soul, helps his delusion by stuffing it into shape with straw, and takes to wearing it because he fancies that the delicate spirit of its true owner penetrates him when he is in contact with it, as it affects the atmosphere of his room when it lies on his sofa. He becomes so absorbed in his fancies over this cloak that he neglects his business and his studies for vaporous musings. At last he meets the owner of the cloak at the posting-station. He is wearing her cloak, she is wearing his. She is a beautiful and witty Pole, married to an old Count on a distant estate. His reluctance to part with the cloak, at her demand for her property, leads her to invite him to come and call on the cloak at her house. It ends in Olenin passing most of his time there, faithfully devoted to worship of the cloak, to such a degree that he makes the Countess jealous, and she takes to wearing it all day in the house, in order that he may turn his attention to her. In vain; the romance never descends any nearer to the earthly and commonplace, and, naturally, the end of it is indefinite and rather feeble, through the impossibility of inventing a suitable catastrophe. Such a romance is quite possible and in the spirit of certain mystical Russians.

One of the most delightful parts of the volume is the introduction, where the author shows his delicate appreciation of Russian landscape, customs, and habits in phrases of the utmost precision, which deserve to be quoted. Nothing can be happier than this description of a winter landscape: "The morning was superb: ten degrees below zero, a brilliant sun in the blue sky, not a breath of air; vast horizons of plains, all of a crude white, with reflections of rose color and gleams of gold; a world as dead and as brilliant as a bit of old China porcelain." Here is a companion picture of in-door life: "But, for the purpose of combating the boredom of their winter, Providence has endowed the sons of Rurik with two faithful weapons, cards and tea; between the samovar and the card-table the Russian hours flow past as inoffensive and as useless as a depreciated coinage, so abundant that no one has ever dreamed of saving it." The following ranks high among foreign efforts to explain the mental workings of Russian brains. Turgeneff might have penned it:

"His intelligence took pleasure in this vapor of thought, as his body did in the vapor of the Russian bath, in that lukewarm atmosphere which is neither air nor water, but a soft mist. In order to preserve more liberty and amplitude for these abstract studies [the study of Kant], my friend sagely separated them from the petty realities of existence. Thus, Michail Dmitritch labored more particularly over the reform of the provincial administration, the amelioration of the lot of the peasants, the extinction of drunkenness and the assimilation of the Israelites; this did not prevent his living on excellent terms with the old abuses, gladly harboring the police officials of the district, who were notorious extortioners but jolly companions, and letting the communal dram-shop at a very high rental to a Jew whom he maltreated. . . . An excellent neighbor and a good master, nevertheless, obliging, sensible, vibrating with sympathy for the interests and greatness of his country, always ready to talk eloquently about it; speech having been conferred on the Russian to serve as an outlet for his mighty dreams, which would cause his head and his country to burst if, unhappily, he were born dumb."

There are plenty more phrases and descriptions which are equally felicitous and true. Without being a great book, 'Cœurs Russes'

is charming, and deserves to be read with serious attention for the side-lights which it throws on Russian hearts and characters.

Canada's Intellectual Strength and Weakness. By J. G. Bourinot, D.C.L. Montreal: Foster Brown & Co.

EVERY country is open to the imputation of unfamiliarity with the intellectual quality of other countries, and about the Canadian intellect which expresses itself in literary form the rest of the world may be said to revel in dense ignorance. A book devoted to the consideration of Canadian intellect, written by a Canadian with a national reputation in both law and letters, ought therefore to be of interest to all who are not complacently sure that in this case ignorance is bliss.

Dr. Bourinot's book is a reprint, with revision and addition, of an address delivered before the Royal Society of Canada in 1893. It includes a slightly critical résumé of the literary product of Canada from Lescarbot to the present time (nearly three centuries), a sketch of the foundation and subsequent work of the Royal Society, and some general reflections on obstacles which, more particularly in Canada than elsewhere, beset the intellect endeavoring to soar beyond the immediate and the practical. With allowance for the condensation necessary in order to cover so much ground in so little space, the book is agreeably written, and the subject is handled in a spirit neither of boastfulness nor of undue humility. It has indeed occasionally the air of a letter to be read to the family only—as, for instance, when the author reproves a gentleman, whom he calls "Principal Grant," for doubting whether the Transactions of the Royal Society should properly be called literature. He fires at this unlucky gentleman one of Matthew Arnold's numerous definitions of literature, "everything written in letters and printed in a book," while we feel that "Principal Grant" had no such definition in mind, but one which, though narrower in scope and vaguer in expression, is more widely accepted. He probably meant to imply that printed matter is literature only when its form excites admiration and pleasure, no matter what its subject may be. Such a definition rules out the transactions of most societies, and, on Dr. Bourinot's own showing, the greater part of the matter written and printed in Canada.

Excepting the work of the French clergy and gentlemen adventurers and of some scholarly Englishmen temporarily resident in the colony, he has little to offer that shall redeem from insignificance Canadian contributions to the literature of the English and French tongues, and of this fact he is perfectly cognizant. In science, the world has recognized Sir William Dawson and Dr. Sterry Hunt; in history, Garneau, Ferland, and, more recently, Kingsford; while in fiction the only sounding name is that of Judge Haliburton, author of 'The Clockmaker; or Sayings and Doings of Sam Slick,' and one of the pioneers of character sketch and dialect. The muse of poetry has been rather more successfully cultivated than her sisters. Octave Crémazie wrote songs that live on the lips of his countrymen, and Louis Fréchette's 'Fleurs Boréales' has been crowned by the French Academy. In English verse Mr. Charles Roberts and Mr. Archibald Lampman compare favorably with their contemporaries on both sides of the Atlantic.

Among the obstacles to literary development in the bilingual Dominion Dr. Bourinot omits to mention two which seem to us the most serious. For the English there is the proximity of a country whose political institutions naturally attract ardent and imaginative youth, and whose large cities and seats of learning afford a more congenial atmosphere for those who care for ideas and need the stimulus of the world's current. The list of men and women born and perhaps bred in Canada who to-day are conspicuous in the literary life of the United States, is long and far from discreditable. For the French there is the dead weight of ecclesiastical pressure, none the less oppressive because it assumes the rôle of a benevolent control of moral and spiritual welfare. The Church has, in a way and from the beginning, preserved among a very limited number of the French in Canada a love of letters and an appreciation of form and style, but it has been fatal to the progress of ideas; it has clipped the wings of thought and imagination, and not infrequently interfered with the truthful narration and just interpretation of facts.

In the bibliographical appendix to Dr. Bourinot's essay there is a short note on every Canadian writer of any importance except himself. Such modesty, in these notoriety-seeking days, is rare, and leaves to us the pleasure of describing his 'Cape Breton and its Memorials of the French Régime' as one of the most interesting and valuable contributions to the history of our continent.

Oxford and her Colleges: A View from the Radcliffe Library. By Goldwin Smith, D.C.L. Macmillan & Co. 1894.

MR. GOLDWIN SMITH'S miscellaneous writings are perhaps more interesting for the light they cast upon Mr. Smith than for the light they cast upon anything else. To say this is not to belittle them. The future historian of English thought will have a good deal to say about the doctrinaire Radicalism of fifty years ago—"doctrinaire" not necessarily in a bad sense, for it is an advantage as well as a disadvantage for men to be governed by a body of consistent principles; and one might wish that some of the political leaders of to-day realized with equal clearness the principles which guide their conduct. The future historian will also want to know how the men of that movement came to think in after years, when the causes had triumphed for which they had battled, and the world had moved on to a later stage in its history, a stage for which they were themselves in part responsible.

In Mr. Smith's literary career they will find the example of which they are in search. Academic Liberalism was a well-marked variety of the older Radicalism; and among academic Liberals, Mr. Smith, Secretary of the Royal Commission for the reform of the University of Oxford in 1854, was one of the most brilliant figures. A "Public School" man, among the most accomplished classical scholars of his generation, he combined very effectively the old learning with the new ideals; and it was natural that in 1858 he should become Regius Professor of Modern History, and the official prophet of the new era. One who heard him then is accustomed to say that when Mr. Smith lectured in the Sheldonian after his visits to this country—the land of freedom—his face shone like Moses coming down from the mount.

Since those days Mr. Smith has seen many men and cities; his prognostications of the future have ceased to be cheerful; his eyes have been opened to the good qualities of "the rectory and the hall," and the *Times* and Mr. Gathorne-Hardy have had occasion to rejoice. In his latter-day writings, dread of modern democracy, fear of socialism, idealization of English country life under the paternal sway of the squire, scorn of agnosticism, mingle in odd incongruity oftentimes with the fine old Radical hatred of kings and aristocracies and established churches which clings to him from an earlier period. The result is, like some sauces, "piquant," if not nourishing.

Mr. Smith has had the kindness lately to write a little book for the American visitor to Oxford. It is a brief historical sketch of the various colleges, bringing out the more significant facts in their story, and doing it on the whole sympathetically. Oxford is one of the old institutions to which Mr. Smith has become more tender of late years. But even this tiny little book is not free from the disfiguring traces of unhistorical prejudice. He describes the condition of Oxford in the eighteenth century in the darkest colors, as was easy enough. But that he should go on to say, "It is sad to think how different the history of England might have been had Oxford and Cambridge done their duty, like Harvard and Yale during the last century" (p. 79), can be explained only by the force of habit. He has been so fond of using, and properly using, American instances "for example of life and instruction of manners" in England that he falls into the trick unconsciously. Of course, if it is true that Harvard and Yale were last century bright and shining stars in the intellectual firmament while Oxford and Cambridge were obscure, let it be said. But is it true? Mr. Lowell's oration on the occasion of the Harvard Commemoration is a sufficient answer:

> "During the eighteenth and first quarter of the nineteenth centuries, I fancy the condition of things here to have been very much what it was in the *smaller* English colleges of the period. . . . Young men who were willing mainly to teach themselves might get something to their advantage; while the rest were put here by their parents as into a comfortable quarantine, where they could wait till the gates of life were open to them, safe from any contagion of learning."

It would be hard to convince Mr. Smith that the Oxford of last century was less unmixedly evil than he supposes, for when he comes across a witness who says a word in its favor, he dismisses him as prejudiced. Thus, he says "Johnson's residence at Pembroke [College] was short, and his narrative shows that it was unprofitable"—rather a sweeping statement—"*though* his high-church principles afterwards made him a loyal son and eulogist of the University" (p. 78). May we not think that it was something besides his church principles—his knowledge both of himself and of human nature—which led Johnson to dwell on the good side rather than the evil of his college experiences?

For the seventeenth century we are sure, of course, to get from Mr. Smith the traditional Whig view. And yet we cannot repress a certain sense of surprise when we are told that the Royalist proscription after the Restoration was "more cruel and certainly more lawless" (p. 68) than that of the Puritans had been. Considering that it was the Puritans who set the example of evicting fellows and heads of colleges for their opinions, and that a good many of the later changes were but the restoration of evicted Royalists, that seems a hard saying even to those who admire the Puritans.

Mr. Smith writes pleasantly and easily—too easily for correctness. "Fifty years ago the wives of heads of houses, who generally married late in life, if they married at all, *constituted, with one or two officers of the Universi-*

ty, the whole female society of Oxford" (p. 89), will suggest that Oxford anticipated the university of "The Princess" in having "dowagers for deans," which is not Mr. Smith's meaning. The "college founded *by* Keble" (p. 83) will lead the trusting reader astray historically; and "its professors form *the general* and superior staff of teachers" (p. 5) will be unintelligible. And perhaps it may be well to warn the reader that though Mr. Smith is a tolerably safe guide to the old colleges, he hardly knows the intellectual Oxford of to-day, and, indeed, does not attempt to describe it. There is one passage that is significant of much. Mr. Smith, after speaking of "Mansfield College for Congregationalists," tells us that by the side of it "rises Manchester College for *Independents*"! One cannot help thinking that here slips out that sheer ignorance of the life of the Nonconformist middle and lower classes of England which so often marks the doctrinaire reformer *de haut en bas*, and which sometimes strikes one as even more irritating than Conservative opposition.

The Ore Deposits of the United States. By James F. Kemp, Professor of Geology in the School of Mines, Columbia College. New York: Scientific Publishing Co. 1893.

THIS is the second important treatise upon American ore-deposits that has ever been published, the first having been Whitney's 'Metallic Wealth of the United States,' which appeared in 1854. The most widely known general treatise, and the one which, even to the present day, is quoted in courts of law for definitions, is that of Von Cotta, published in German in 1859 and translated into English in 1870. Of the important treatises since that time two have been written by Germans, Grimm (1869) and Von Groddeck (1879), and one by an English mining engineer, Phillips (1884). From the meagreness of this list it would appear that this branch of geological research, in spite of its practical importance, had been relatively neglected. This was true up to within the last ten or fifteen years, when geologists possessing the necessary preliminary training in kindred sciences have generally become more abundant, and State and Government surveys have given more attention to the economic applications of geology, reluctantly overcoming the old prejudice which considered that when research led to practical results of absolute pecuniary value, it ceased to be pure science. In no other branch of geology, moreover, is so much hard and even dangerous physical labor required to arrive at conclusions of general theoretical value, nor are the conclusions so quickly subjected to the rigid test of practical experience.

When Whitney made the personal examinations upon which his work, in many respects the most able of all those above mentioned, was largely founded, mining in this country was still in its infancy, and the great mineral wealth of our Western mountains was practically unknown. His theoretical conclusions were therefore to a considerable extent drawn from European examples. Of the four other authors mentioned, three had never visited America, and none of them could adequately realize the advances that had been made by our economic geologists towards a rational theory of ore deposition, as distinguished from those based on the traditions and experience of a few European mining districts of half a century back.

The present writer, though too young a man to have personally examined a very large portion of the mining field of this country, has been obliged, in his position as instructor in economic geology at Cornell and Columbia, to keep himself thoroughly familiar with the literature of ore deposits, and is thus enabled to give a most complete statement of modern views on the subject as derived from American examples. From a literary point of view his style has suffered from the abundance and necessary condensation of material, and his work bears evidence, at times, of undue haste and want of mature consideration, possibly due to pressure for copy by his publishers. His presentation, in the introductory or theoretical part of the work, of the various views now entertained upon the geological structure, origin, and manner of formation of ore deposits in general is by far the most complete that has yet been given. For the first time, in a treatise upon ore deposits, has due recognition been given to the agency of replacement or substitution in the formation of ore bodies, which was first practically demonstrated on a large scale in the case of the deposits of Leadville, and has since been found applicable to almost all metallic deposits occurring in limestones. According to the old traditions, based upon what are now known to have been rather exceptional occurrences, a preëxisting open cavity of the general form and size of the deposit, as now found in nature, was considered to be an indispensable prerequisite; under the modern view a natural water channel that will admit the mineral-bearing solutions is all that is absolutely necessary. The chapter on the classification of ore deposits is in itself a compendium of the progress made in late years towards a genetic discrimination in making subdivisions, as distinguished from the methods formerly in vogue, which based their distinctions largely on the outward and more or less accidental form, and which were often, as the author remarks, "geologically considered, only convenient admissions of ignorance as to origin." The classification finally adopted by Prof. Kemp himself seems, however, open to the criticism of being rather too complicated for practical use.

Of the descriptions of typical and important deposits of the ores of the various metals, which occupy the greater part of the book, the quality is of less even excellence. Where the author has some personal knowledge of the occurrences, or where they have been thoroughly studied and described by trained geologists, his brief descriptions are in general admirably clear and concise. On the other hand, when he depends, as in the case of many of the Western deposits, on occasional descriptions given by persons of varying degrees of scientific ability, his want of personal familiarity with the ground is apt to lead him into the error, unfortunately too common among writers on geology, of giving equal weight to all printed opinions without due regard to the competency or relative ability of those who hold them. For the technical reader this want of discrimination is in a measure offset by the completeness of the references, which enable him to consult the originals and discriminate for himself, but the general public has a right to expect that this should be done by the author. The value of the work is much enhanced by the admirable arrangement and completeness of its bibliography, and, taken as a whole, though not claiming to be a great work of original research, it is a most exhaustive statement of the present condition of knowledge of the subject treated, and constitutes a much-needed and very reliable book of reference.

The mechanical execution of the cuts and photographic reproductions, which form an important part of a work of this kind, is not up to the best standard of the day.

Landmarks of a Literary Life, 1820–1892. By Mrs. Newton Crosland (Camilla Toulmin). Charles Scribner's Sons.

THE reminiscences of a woman eighty years old, most of whose life has been spent in London in intimate association with authors and artists, could hardly be shorn of interest by the worst manner conceivable; needless to say that they gain immensely by the development of so agreeable a personality as Mrs. Crosland's. The old-fashioned portrait of the author, engraved from a miniature, shows a very pretty and pensive young lady, and the book reveals a very gentle, kind, and sincere old lady. In her early youth, family misfortune constrained Miss Toulmin to cast about for means of self-support, and she instinctively took to the pen—a bold venture in the days when it was deemed improper for a woman to wield that implement except for the purpose of writing a polite note or signing the marriage register. If she had many difficulties in thus providing herself with comforts, she does not dwell on them. She was taken up by the Chambers Brothers, the editors of the Annuals and of several journals long extinct and forgotten, and she maintained pleasant and profitable relations with all. Though she must have met most of the brilliant stars of a great literary period, her friendships were with the lesser lights, and hence most of her book is given to people whom we know only a little about and of whom we are well satisfied to hear more. Among her near friends the Brownings were perhaps the only great people. Miss Mulock was her bridesmaid, and at Gore House she formed an intimacy with Lady Blessington's niece, Margaret Power. There, too, she met some famous people, among them Louis Napoleon, whom, she says,

"I certainly thought one of the ugliest men I had ever seen. His nose seemed enormous and his eyes sunken and small. His complexion was so darkly sallow that he reminded one of Carlyle's description of the 'Sea-Green Robespierre.' Nevertheless I admired his simple manners, which were more like those of an English gentleman than what we used to associate with a Frenchman."

The scandals that hang about Gore House are mentioned only to be brushed aside with characteristic charity; so is the historical gossip about Lord Nelson and Lady Hamilton. Queen Caroline is not exonerated, but she is felt to have been far more sinned against than sinning. Sympathy with her own sex leads to an unexpected criticism of 'Vanity Fair,' which, in Mrs. Crosland's opinion, "is marred by the unchivalrous act of choosing a struggling, penniless girl for the villain of the story." Perhaps so, but how could that story have been written with a born duchess for the villain? The effect of 'Vanity Fair' was certainly very sad if, "for years after its publication, it was enough for a struggling woman to show shrewdness and a little more than ordinary prudence for her to be sneered at as a Becky Sharp."

Mrs. Crosland met a good many Americans, whom she speaks of with caution, as of a wild variety of the species not to be measured fairly by civilized standards. One anecdote which she tells at second-hand, would, but that it is clearly apocryphal, justify this attitude. A distinguished writer being entertained at dinner "at one of the ducal residences," shocked decorum by exclaiming, "in a voice that every

one could hear, 'Duchess, how ever do you fix your hair?'" Another is a personal experience. She had obtained invitations to the Mansion House for a Southern gentleman and his daughter.

"Rarely," she says, "have I felt so humiliated as I was by the deportment of this sometime Governor of a State—this haughty, self-sufficient slave-owner, who thought himself the equal of any peer in the room, but who, from time to time, relieved his cough in that American mode which Mrs. Trollope characterized as disgusting."

The "vice of slavery" is ingeniously held accountable for that sometime Governor's bad manners, but we feel that he should bear the whole blame of causing a nice young lady an anguish which is keenly remembered for forty years. Mrs. Crosland forgave him more easily than she could forgive Miss Mitford, whose selfishness on a certain occasion put her to great discomfort, and to whom she devotes several pages that show a perfectly righteous asperity.

The reminiscences end in the early sixties, and we regret that they have not been carried further. Though they cannot be described as brilliant or exciting, they are full of amiability and good sense, and make a most readable addition to pictures of life and manners in the early Victorian era.

An Elementary Treatise on Fourier's Series and Spherical and Ellipsoidal Harmonics. By William Elwood Byerly. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1893.

Lectures on Mathematics, delivered in August and September, 1893, at Evanston, Ill. By Felix Klein. Reported by Alex. Ziwet. Macmillan & Co. 1894.

NOTWITHSTANDING its name, so redolent of Helicon, there is mighty little poetry in Spherical Harmonics. The blessed, after a thousand years' performance on harps, may possibly betake themselves to setting one another problems in modern geometry; but to spherical harmonics we may confidently assert they will not resort. This subject might be called the conveyancing of mathematics, since it teaches how to express facts in a form which, though it affords no insight into causes or essences, but on the contrary is blind and bewildering, is for all that quite indispensable for making the mathematician master of his data. The usual problem is this: A certain quantity has a value at every point of some surface—most usually, that of the earth. This value—it may be elevation above or depression below the sea level, or the distance of the sea level from the centre, or the force of gravity, or a magnetical constant, and so on—has been ascertained at many points, and is assumed to vary continuously. (Most experts will say no such assumption is made.) Then, spherical harmonics shows us what we may presume to be the approximate values at points where the quantity has not been observed. Moreover, it affords a general expression for the value; still further, it shows how to cut up the quantity into parts, each of which is susceptible of further mathematical treatment. It is, thus, a theory (for so mathematicians use the word theory) of great utility; and, like other utility-mathematics, is tedious, difficult, disagreeable, and unbeautiful. This is a circumstance which breeds many loathers of mathematics, because these disagreeable branches are taught first.

The present treatise is undoubtedly the best in our language upon this subject. Its only rival, that of Todhunter, always an unnecessarily dry book, is now pretty antiquated likewise. Mr. Byerly adheres to one point of view pretty consistently, exhibits the doctrine under its best aspect, and leads us into it by the easiest road. It is a branch which nobody but a practical mathematician will care for, and which every practical mathematician has to master.

When we turn from this book to Klein's lectures, we seem to be passing out from a tremendous, rattling factory, with its grimly earnest, unlovely economy, into the pure meadows with the really vastly greater, but infinitely calm, agencies of sunshine, breeze, and river. Here, in only a hundred pages, the moving impulses of modern mathematics are set forth in a way in the highest degree instructive and interesting to every mathematician, without any tax upon his energies. Felix Klein, we need hardly say, is generally considered as the most interesting, if not the greatest (certainly *not* in all respects), of living mathematicians. For such a hundred pages as these the mathematician may search in vain. The small compass renders the process of mathematical cogitation all the clearer, and strips it of details which in other books obscure it; and particularly of details of demonstration that are often wrongly taken to be the soul of mathematical thinking. Such a lesson as this book affords of the conduct of mathematical research the younger student (it is not for beginners) will not easily find. Those who know Klein need hardly be informed that the lectures range over a large part of recent mathematics. The following passage (in which we take the liberty twice to put *experience* in place of "conception") is interesting:

"We are forced to the opinion that our geometrical demonstrations have no absolute objective truth, but are true only for the present state of our knowledge. These demonstrations are always confined within the range of space experiences that are familiar to us; and we can never tell whether an enlarged experience may not lead to further possibilities that would have to be taken into account. From this point of view, we are led in geometry to a certain modesty, such as is always in place in the physical sciences."

Appended to the lectures are ten pages on the history of modern mathematics in Germany.

The English Church in the Nineteenth Century, 1800–1833. By John H. Overton, D.D., Canon of Lincoln and Rector of Epworth. Longmans, Green & Co. 1894.

DR. OVERTON'S studies for 'The English Church in the Eighteenth Century' brought him to the threshold of his present task. In the former case he was collaborating with another; this work is all his own. It is well done, and the first four chapters are particularly interesting, dealing as they do with the more personal aspects of the matter. The chapters on "The Church and Education" and "Church Societies" may be even more valuable to English churchmen, but their appeal to the general reader is but faint and far away. It is evident that, stopping short at 1833, the very year in which the Oxford movement began, Dr. Overton has denied himself the climax of his history. But he has done this advisedly. The history of the Oxford movement has been written many times, and the light that has been thrown upon it has done much to darken the preceding period. By way of introduction to his 'Oxford Movement,' Dean Church wrote a few pages on that period, but in the manner common to the historians of the movement—to paint-in a background dark as possible, so that the virtues of the movement might be brought out in sharp relief. Dr. Overton has not gone to work deliberately to convey a different impression, but he has only had to tell the story of the time and of its work to show that there were men before Newman and his set who had "a work to do in England" and did it tolerably well.

It is Dr. Overton's impression that the Church had reached its low-water mark before the close of the eighteenth century, yet she continued to lose favor while she steadily improved. This was because her failure had been gross and patent to all eyes, while the improvement was within narrow limits and less obvious to the assailant seeking for grounds to justify the energy of his attack. Dr. Overton's catholicity is remarkable. He is so good a churchman that he has a good word for men of the most opposite tendencies and conclusions. He has three chapters, "The Orthodox," "The Evangelicals," and "The Liberals," and we cannot imagine that the inheritors from either of these branches will fancy they have any reason for complaint. It is, however, to the Orthodox, by whom the High Churchmen before the High Churchism of Newman are intended, and the Evangelicals, that he attributes the most of the improvement from 1800 to 1833. The former are less dwelt upon than the latter, as they should be, for the reason that they have had more than a fair share of attention heretofore. The inveterate toryism of the old High Churchmen has perhaps led to an exaggeration of their attachment to "the happy constitution of our Church and State" of which we have heard so much. But Dr. Overton is himself obliged to admit that practically their attachment to this constitution was something very different from the indifference to it, or contempt for it, of the Tractarians. These, too, would have had the Church and State one, but that one would have been the Church. The fact is, the temper of the old High Churchmen was political and that of the new High Churchmen was ecclesiastical. Keble belonged to both parties in succession, and it was only his attachment to the old order, his intense toryism, that kept him in the English Church, as such, when others went to Rome.

Keble's 'Christian Year' was published in 1827, and though Walter Bagehot called it a dilution of the weaker part of Wordsworth, it is the only religious book of the period that has now any general circulation. Moreover, Keble's ability was almost singular among a feeble folk. It is like passing from death to life to pass from Dr. Overton's second chapter to his third. The Evangelicals had life in themselves, if they had little scholarship or taste or intellectual ability. One of their own party said, "There are persons who secretly, if not avowedly, associate the ideas of piety and imbecility, and who do not hesitate to decide that he who professes to be governed by Christian principles must be deficient in natural understanding." One of the saints "cut his violin strings and never afterwards replaced them," nor went to a picture exhibition; another regretted her time spent with Shakspere as a robbery of God, and excluded from her shelves "all the furniture of a worldly library." These sentiments and actions were characteristic of the Evangelical party, but to the same party we owe preeminently the abolition of the slave trade in 1807 and the abolition of slavery in 1833, though we must not forget that Granville Sharp and Thomas Clarkson led the way. The chapter on the Liberals is enlivened by the name of Sydney Smith and a few characteris-

tic passages from his writings; but the greatest names upon the Liberal list are those of Whately and Arnold. The latter is more dwelt upon than any other, and with that admiration which his character has compelled from those who have hated his opinions. Hampden and his significant book of 1832 are passed over much too lightly; and Blanco White, whom Liddon credits with the paternity of the Liberal church party, has but a single line.

The chapter on "Church Services and Fabrics" proves conclusively that, however it may be with religion, sacramental worship is much more cultivated now than it was formerly. There are some instructive pages on the preaching of the time. Sydney Smith wrote that "decent debility" was its most frequent note; that it "called in paralysis to the aid of piety," as if sin could be taken from men "as Eve was from Adam by casting them into a deep slumber." He was opposed to written sermons, but another high authority denounced extempore preaching as immoral. It was generally considered possible only by the special grace of God, and hence it gave the preacher an unwarrantable spiritual authority. The High Churchmen cultivated a dull and lifeless manner by way of criticism on the pulpit methods of the Methodistic churchmen. A chapter reviewing the literature of the period gets its main interest from the secular writers, Coleridge, Wordsworth, and Sir Walter Scott. It is generally agreed that Scott's mediævalism did much to inspire the Oxford Movement, and the influence of Coleridge on the Liberals was not less conspicuous. His "Letters upon Inspiration" would now meet with general acceptance. High Churchmen of the 'Lux Mundi' school have got a good deal further on; but in 1834 those who were able to receive them were a meagre band.

The Revival of Irish Literature: Addresses by Sir Charles G. Duffy, Dr. Sigerson, and Dr. Hyde. London: T. Fisher Unwin. 1894.

Gavan Duffy, the repealer of O'Connell's agitation, the rebel of 1848, the Sir Charles G. Duffy, Knight Commander of the order of St. Michael and St. George, first Minister of the Crown in Victoria, of later days, is giving some of the best energies of his advanced years to the furtherance of Irish literature. He has been mainly instrumental in establishing an Irish Literary Society, with headquarters in London. This society has published several interesting little volumes, of which that now before us is one. There is a certain strain of *laudatio temporis acti* about the movemen — the looking back from a degenerate present to the golden and purely patriotic days of the forties. We whose memory carries us back to those times fail to recognize that there is more of the earth earthy about the present than about any previous phase of Irish thought; or perhaps we should rather say the thought of those times partook no less of the earthy than the thought of the present. This movement and these publications will do good in so far as they tend to stimulate a greater interest among Irishmen regarding their ancient language, literature, and music, regarding the material that exists in the Ireland of to-day for the production of wholesome and lasting literary work, such as that given to us by Miss Lawless and Miss Barlow. We cannot see how the study of Irish history, overspread as every page of it is with a sense of failure and disappointment, or Irish history as a background for the true poet or the novelist, can become popular until a satisfied present is reached, whence the trials of the past can be calmly reviewed. Scott wrote at a time when Scotland generally was satisfied with her present; and it would be impossible for any writer, however great his genius, in this better informed and more critical age, to throw the glamour which he was enabled to throw over the state of society with which he dealt.

The intention of these addresses is good, but we doubt the wisdom of the spirit which animates them or the possibility of the realization of their ideals. A certain degree of national political life is doubtless necessary for the growth and expansion of Ireland. That she should seek to shut herself off from such communion in the literature of the English tongue appears to us neither wise nor possible of attainment. Even after reading these addresses we are still in the dark as to what are those "Irish lines" upon which, as Dr. Hyde tells us, the Irish race can alone best develop. Ireland cannot hold herself aloof from competition with the rest of the world. Even if the statement were true, we doubt the bracing effect upon a people of calling upon them to revert to old ways which once constituted them "the most original, artistic, literary, and charming people of Europe." Ireland has contributed, and will doubtless contribute, much to that literature which is the common heritage of the English-speaking race all over the globe. But it appears to us she will best cultivate whatever may be peculiar in her genius by keeping abreast with the main stream rather than by shutting herself off in a side eddy.

The Theory and Practice of Modern Framed Structures. Designed for the use of Schools, and for Engineers in Professional Practice, by J. B. Johnson, C.E., Professor of Civil Engineering in Washington University, etc., C. W. Bryan, C.E., and F. E. Turneaure, Professor of Bridge and Hydraulic Engineering, University of Wisconsin. John Wiley & Sons. 1893.

This is an ample treatise, and represents the latest American practice of to-day. It consists of a series of essays, practically limited to iron construction, by a number of skilled engineers, of whom the three mentioned in the title are the chief contributors. The essays cover all kinds of framed structures—roofs; girders, plate and trussed; cantilevers; arched, swing, and suspension bridges; standpipes; tower and mill-framing. They are grouped into two parts, the first chiefly theoretical, treating of analysis of loads, stress, and flexure; the second, chiefly practical, of detailed construction, though each impinges a little upon the other, and so leads to some repetition. The theoretical discussions are adequate to their purpose, and as complete and instructive as they ever are—more so than we are apt to find them—in works whose first aim is direct practice. The practical discussions are very thorough, the examples worked out in all essential details with great care, and with due attention to the actual conditions of material and manufacture; the two systems of riveting and pin connection, for instance, being given due examination and consideration of their respective advantages.

The chapter on æsthetic design of bridges is a new thing in such a treatise, and offers sensible counsel which we are glad to see urged. Design in bridge-building, even more imperatively than in other building, calls for fineness of line and proportion, because line and proportion are more self-asserting in bridges than in any other structures. These, however, are qualities that good sense and good precept can never supply, and the command of which we can hardly expect engineers to gain, for they call for long training of a kind that engineers do not get. Some of the examples which Mr. Molitor cites with praise in this essay, *e. g.*, the viaduct over the Truyère in plate xiv., seem to us signal illustrations of awkward line and misproportion, and wholesome antidotes to the superstition that true and direct construction will in itself lead to beauty.

The book is, so far as we know, the most complete and serviceable treatise of the kind that has been published in this country. It is winning its way at once in the schools of engineering—indeed, the first part has been printed before and used with approval in tentative form.

Biology of Ferns by the Collodion Method. By Prof. G. F. Atkinson. Macmillan.

This work is carefully prepared, and gives evidence of being based on original and very thorough study. The life-history of ferns is traced with sufficient, but not excessive, detail, from the spore, through the prothallium and its gametic organs, to the mature plant and its production of spores. Usually our native species are taken for study, though a few of the drawings are from varieties of common hothouse cultivation. The statement that in *Schizœaceæ* "the form of the spores approaches that of a quadrant of a sphere," is hardly correct, for though *Schizœa* has ovoid spores, the spores of *Aneimia* are rather pyramidal from a convex base, or even tetrahedral, and usually beautifully sculptured on the surface with lines parallel to the edges of the facets. The spores of *Mohria* are very similar, and those of the principal remaining genus of the suborder, *Lygodium*, are anything but bilateral or quadrant-like.

Under "dimorphism" of the fronds the examples cited are mostly of native species, though certain foreign genera have species in which this dimorphism is more conspicuous than in any of the North American ferns. The remark quoted from Underwood, about the probable cause of the cases when the fronds of *Onoclea* have an intermediate character between the usual sterile and fertile conditions, is one of those sage observations which it is easy to make, but which observed facts hardly or not at all sustain. The discussion of the "dehiscence of sporangia and dispersion of spores" is interesting; but the drawings which serve as illustrations are rather too sketchy, and some of them recall pictures of the great meteoric display of 1833.

Part ii., on "Methods," bears evidence of being written to describe processes which the author has actually employed. A good picture or two of the dehydrating apparatus would have made its structure clearer than the description which is given. Every laboratory has its own methods, and it may be that some other processes are quite as convenient as those which are here described.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adventures in Algiers of Mathew Dudgeon, Gentleman. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
A Marriage above Zero. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
A Yellow Aster. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Barr, James. The Humor of America. London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Bradshaw, John. Sir Thomas Munro. [Rulers of India.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York. Macmillan. 60 cents.
Bramhall, M. St. J. The Wee Ones of Japan. Harpers.
Bridges, Robert. Overheard in Arcady. Scribners. $1.25.
Bright, Prof. William. Waymarks in Church History. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Briscoe, Margaret S. Links in a Chain. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.

Brodhead, J. M. N. Slav and Moslem: Historical Sketches. Aiken, S. C.: Aiken Publishing Co. $1.50.
Brough, William. The Natural Law of Money. Putnams. $1.
Büchner, Ludwig. Man in the Past, Present and Future. Peter Eckler.
Burdett, H. C. Hospital and Charities Annual, 1894. London: The Scientific Press; New York: Scribners.
Campbell, Scott. Union Down. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Commons, Prof. J. R. Social Reform and the Church. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 75 cents.
Cowley, Charles. Memoir of Josiah Gardner Abbott. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Crawford, J. M. The Industries of Russia. Prepared by the Ministry of Finance for the Columbian Exposition. 5 vols. Putnams. $6.
De Witt, Mme. Sur la Pente. [Magill's Modern French Series.] Philadelphia: Christopher Sower Co. 60 cents.
Dod, . B. The Journal of Martha Pintard Bayard, London, 1794—1797. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Downie, J. W. Clinical Manual for the Study of Diseases of the Throat. Macmillan. $2.50.
Epps, William. Land Systems of Australasia. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.
Fiske, John. Edward Livingston Youmans. D. Appleton & Co.
Ford, Paul L. The Writings of Thomas Jefferson. Vol. III. 1781—1784. Putnams.
France, Anatole. La Fille de Clémentine. [Magill's Modern French Series.] Philadelphia: Christopher Sower Co. 60 cents.
Fulton, Hamilton. Guide List of Steamers Arriving at the Port of New York. 13th ed. The Author.
Gaulot, Paul. Les Chemises Rouges. Paris: Paul Ollendorff: New York: Charles Eitel.
Gibson, F. M. The Amateur Telescopist's Handbook. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Gilman, D. C. The Organization of Charities. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press.
Gordon, Julien. Countess Obernau. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.25.
Gore, Rev. Charles. The Incarnation of the Son of God. Scribners. $1.50.
Graetz, Prof. H. History of the Jews. Vol. III. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society. $3.
Guyot, Yves. The Tyranny of Socialism. London: Sonnenschein: New York: Scribners. $1.
Hamersly, L. R. The Records of Living Officers of the U. S. Navy and Marine Corps. 5th ed., revised with numerous additions. Philadelphia: L. R. Hamersly & Co.
Hermant, Abel. La Carrière. Paris: Paul Ollendorff; New York: Charles Eitel.
Heslop, Rev. Oliver. Northumberland Words. Vol. II. Part I. London: English Dialect Society; New York: Macmillan.
Hinkson, Katharine T. Cuckoo Songs. London: Mathews & Lane; Boston: Copeland & Day.
Hole, Dean S. R. Addresses Spoken to Workingmen from Pulpit and Platform. Whittaker. $1.50.
Hope, Anthony. The Prisoner of Zenda. Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents.
Hope, R. C. Mediæval Music: An Historical Sketch. London: Elliot Stock; New York: Scribners. $1.75.
Horne, H. P. The Binding of Books. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.: New York: Scribners. $2 50
Hubbard, Elbert. Forbes of Harvard. Poston: *Arena* Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Jókai, Maurice. In Love with the Czarina. F. Warne & Co. 50 cents.
Justice, Maibelle. Love Affairs of a Worldly Man. F. T. Neely.
Kelvin, Baron. Popular Lectures and Addresses. Vol. II. Macmillan.
Knauff, T. C. Athletics for Physical Culture. J. Selwyn Tait & Sons. $2.
Knight, F. A. By Moorland and Sea. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Kroeh, Prof. C. F. How to Think in Spanish. Hoboken, N. J.: The Author.
Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XXXVIII. Milman—More. Macmillan. $3.75.
Leland, C. G. Elementary Metal Work. London: Whittaker; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Lillie, Arthur. Modern Mystics and Modern Magic. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.50.
Littell's Living Age. Jan.—March, 1894. Boston: Littell & Co.
Louis, Henry. A Handbook of Gold Milling. Macmillan. $3.25.
Mayer, Jacob. German for Americans. 4th ed. Philadelphia: I. Kohler. $1.
Mérimée, Prosper. Chronique du Règne de Charles IX. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 25 cents.
Moule, H. C. G. The Epistle to the Romans. [Expositor's Bible.] Armstrong. $1 50.
Murray, J. A. H. A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles. Last part of Vol. III. Everybody—Ezod. Oxford: Clarendon Press: New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
O'Brien, R. B. The Autobiography of Theobald Wolfe Tone, 1763—1798. 2 vols. London: Unwin; New York: Scribners. $7.50.
Parkhurst, D. B. Sketching from Nature. 2d ed. Orange, N. J.: The Author.
Penniman, J. H. The School Poetry Book. Philadelphia: The Author.
Phyfe, W. H. P. Seven Thousand Words Often Mispronounced. 3d ed. Putnams. $1.
Plunkett, Mrs. H. M. Josiah Gilbert Holland. Scribners. $1.50.
Prothero, G. W. Select Statutes and Other Constitutional Documents Illustrative of the Reigns of Elizabeth and James I. Oxford: Clarendon Press: New York: Macmillan.
Ranhofer, Charles. The Epicurean: A Complete Treatise of Analytical and Practical Studies on the Culinary Art. Illustrated. The Author.
Reibrach, Jean. Les Lendemains. Paris: Paul Ollendorff: New York: Charles Eitel.
Saltus, Edgar. Enthralled. American News Co.
Scott, Sir W. The Betrothed and the Highland Widow. [Dryburgh Edition.] Edinburgh: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Stevens's Facsimiles of MSS. in European Archives relating to America. 1773—1783. Vol. XX. London: B. F. Stevens.
Weyman, S. J. Under the Red Robe. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Vandérem, Fernand. La Cendre. Paris: Paul Ollendorff; New York: Charles Eitel.

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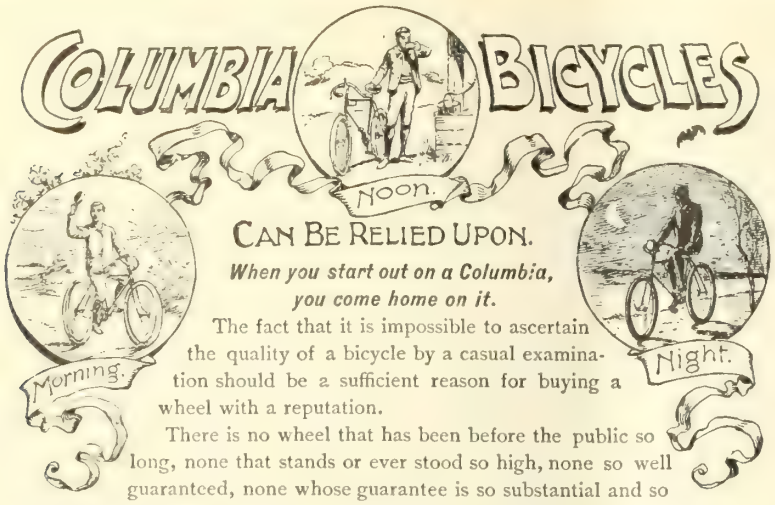

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COURSES OF LECTURES.

A.—ECONOMICS.

Prof. H. C. Adams, Ph.D. (*Director*), University of Michigan.

Economics and Social Progress.

I.—Prof. Henry C. Adams, Ph.D., University of Mich.

a. Historical Basis of Modern Industries (5 *Lectures*). *July* 12–17.

1 Relation of Industrial History to Economics. 2. Social and Industrial Results of Textile Inventions. 3. Social and Industrial Results of Steam Transportation. 4. The Legal Basis of Modern Industries. 5. Industrial Significance of Corporations.

b. Relation of Economic Theory to Social Progress (4 *Lectures*). *July* 18–21.

1. An Interpretation of "English Political Economy." 2. An Interpretation of the "Historical School of Economy." 3. An Interpretation of 'Socialism" as a Social Theory. 4. The Ethical Function of the State in its Relation to Industry.

c. The Transportation Problem (3 *Lectures*). *Aug.* 13–15.

1. Sketch of Railway Development in the United States. 2. Railway Rates as a Factor in Social Development. 3. Commissions as a Solution of the Railway Problem.

II.—Pres. E. Benj. Andrews, LL.D., Brown University.

Civilization and Money: Their Relation Illustrated by the History of Money (3 *Lectures*). *July* 23–25.

1. Monetary History before 1800. 2. Monetary History from 1800 to 1870. 3. Monetary History from 1870 to the Present Time.

III.—Prof. J. B. Clark, A.M., Amherst College.

The Ethics and the Economics of Distribution (3 *Lectures*). *July* 26–28.

1. The Economic Standpoint of Distribution as compared with the Ideal. 2. Abnormal Influences in Distribution. 3 Future Distribution as Indicated by Present Tendencies.

IV.—Prof. Franklin H. Giddings, A.M., Bryn Mawr College.

The Social Functions of Wealth (3 *Lectures*). *July* 30–*Aug.* 1.

1. The Relation of Wealth to Evolution. 2. The Relation of Wealth to Popular Welfare. 3. The Relation of Wealth to Social Reorganization.

V.—Prof. Richmond Mayo-Smith, Ph.D., Columbia College.

Ethnical Basis for Social Progress in the United States (3 *Lectures*). *Aug.* 2–4.

1. Theories of Mixture of Races and Nationalities and Application to the United States. 2. Assimilating Influence of Climate and Intermarriages. 3. Assimilating Influence of Social Environment.

VI.—Dr. E. R. L. Gould, Ph.D., Johns Hopkins University.

Practical Problems in Municipal Economy (3 *Lectures*). *Aug.* 6-8.

1. The Liquor Problem. 2. The Housing of the Poor. 3. Public Recreation.

VII.—Prof. J. W. Jenks, Ph.D., Cornell University.

Relation of Political and Industrial Reform (3 *Lectures*). *Aug.* 9-11.

1. The Scope and Nature of Political Economy and of Politics compared. 2. The Effect upon Politics of the Present Industrial Organization. 3. The Political Reforms that would be of most Benefit to Industrial Society.

B.—ETHICS.

Prof. Felix Adler, Ph.D. (*Director*), New York.

Ethics and the Labor Question.

I.—Prof. Felix Adler, Ph.D., New York.

Outlines of Economic Ethics (12 *Lectures*). *July* 12, 14, 18, 21, 24, 26, 28, 31, *August* 2, 9, 13, 15.

Historical Introduction; An Ethical Theory of Society needed to determine the Economic Ideal; Outline of an Ethical Theory of Society; Applications to the Individual, to the Family, to the Trade and Profession; How to bring about Progress towards the Ethical Ideal of Society.

II.—Prof. Woodrow Wilson, Ph.D., Princeton Univ.

The Ethical Function of the State (2 *Lectures*). *July* 13, 16, 17.

1. The Nature of the State and Its Relation to Progress. 2 The Organs of the State and Its Means of Advancement. 3. Political Liberty, Political Expediency, and Political Morality in the Democratic State.

III.—William M. Salter, Philadelphia.

The Ethical Ideal of the State (3 *Lectures*). *July* 19, 20.

IV.—Pres. James MacAlister, LL.D., Drexel Institute Philadelphia.

The Relation of the School to the Labor Problem (*3 Lectures*). *Aug. 6, 7, 8.*

1. The Industrial Relations of the School. 2. The Political Relations of the School. 3. The Ethical Relations of the School.

There will be a conference of educators and teachers during this week, August 5th to 11th inclusive. The relation of various forms of educational activity to ethics will be considered by leading educators, and opportunity will be afforded for full and free discussion.

The conference will be in charge of the following committee:

Samuel T. Dutton, Supt. of Schools, Brookline, Mass.
Prof. Paul H. Hanus, Harvard University.
Miss Lucy Wheelock, Chauncy Hall School, Boston, Mass.
Rev. Endicott Peabody, Groton, Mass.
James A. Page, Master Dwight School, Boston, Mass.
Ray Green Huling, Master English High School, Cambridge, Mass.

Subject for discussion and the names of speakers will be announced later.

V.—Mrs. Anna Garlin Spencer, Providence, R. I.

The Relation of the Family to the Labor Question (3 *Lectures*). *July* 23, 24, 25.

1. The Ancient Family and the Modern Family; the Old and the New Workshop. 2. The Work of Women and of Children outside the Home; Problems and Suggestions. 3. What Distinct Contribution may the Modern Home make to the Solution of Labor Problems?

VI.—Rev. Robert A. Holland, S.T.D., St. Louis.

Christianity and Social Reform (3 *Lectures*). *July* 26, 27, 28.

VII.—Stanton Coit, Ph.D., London.

Socialism and the Labor Movement (4 *Lectures*). *July* 30, *Aug.* 1, 3, 4.

1. The Beginnings of Socialism in this Century. 2. The Positivist Theory of Labor and Capital (Auguste Comte). 3. Socialism in Germany, or Karl Marx and Ferdinand Lasalle. 4. Present Day Socialism in England.

C.—HISTORY OF RELIGIONS.

Prof. C. H. Toy, LL.D. (*Director*), Harvard University.

The Church and the Labor Question.

I.—Prof. C. H. Toy, Harvard University.

The Old Testament (6 *Lectures*). *July* 12–18.

1. The Industrial Life of the Hebrews. 2. Wages; Debts; Shemitta; Sabbatic Year. 3. Land Tenure; Year of Jubilee. 4. Charity Laws; the Family; Independence of the Citizen; Dignity of Labor. 5. Alleged Socialism. 6. Influence of Religious Ideas.

II.—Prof. Henry S. Nash, Cambridge Episcopal Theological School.

The Early Church (6 *Lectures*). *July* 19–25.

1. The Early Church laid the foundation of modern political history. 2. Contributions of Greek Philosophy, Roman law, and the Bible to the campaign against privilege. 3. The first three centuries; emancipation of the individual; duty in place of privilege; charities. 4. The Church established; makes a definition of man which was bound to create the social question;communism of the fathers. 5.The barbarians; monastic moralization of labor; hostility to taking interest; liberty, equality, fraternity in monasteries. 6. End of the period; Charles the Great; potential democracy; theory of proprietorship.

III.—Prof. Toy.

Islam (6 *Lectures*). *July* 26–*Aug.* 1.

1. Treatment of Labor in the Koran; Moral-Religious Principles affecting the Question. 2. Social Organization under the Bagdad Califate; Modification of the Persian System. 3. Spain. Contrast between the Labor Conditions of the Visigothic Kingdom and those of the Moslem Rule. 4. Industrial Conditions in Egypt under the Pharaohs, the Greeks, and Romans, the Arabs, the Mamluks, the English. 5. Present Industrial Movements in Turkey. 6. Conflict of Religious Systems in India; Industrial Condition of the Mohammedan Population.

IV.—Prof. W. J. Ashley, Harvard University

The Mediæval Church (6 *Lectures*). *Aug.* 2–8.

1. Transition from slavery to serfdom. 2. Rise of trade and industry. The Canonist teaching the first body of economic doctrine 3. Fair price and reasonable wage. Postulates of Canonist economics. 4. History of doctrine of usury down to the sixteenth century. 5. Why the church clung to the doctrine of usury. Discussion of its policy. 6. Attitude of Reformers and Catholic Theologians towards economic questions. Alleged relation between religious changes and the growth of pauperism.

V.—John Graham Brooks, Cambridge.

The Modern Church (6 *Lectures*). *Aug.* 8-15.

I. The Church and Modern Democracy. 2. The Catholic Church and the Le Play Societies. 3. The Pope and the Encyclical. 4. The Actual Social work of the Catholic Church. 5. (a) The Social Movement in the Protestant Church. 6. (b) The Social Movement in the Protestant Church.

Sunday Afternoon Lectures.

July 15.—*St. Francis of Assisi.* Rev. S. M. Crothers, St. Paul.

July 22.—*Savonarola,* Mr. Thomas Davidson.

July 29.—*Meister Eckhart.* Prof. Josiah Royce, Harvard University.

August 5.—*William the Silent.* Rev. Dr. Hodges, Dean of the Cambridge Episcopal Theological School.

August 12. *Gregory the Great.* Rev. Thomas Shahan, Catholic University, Washington, D. C.

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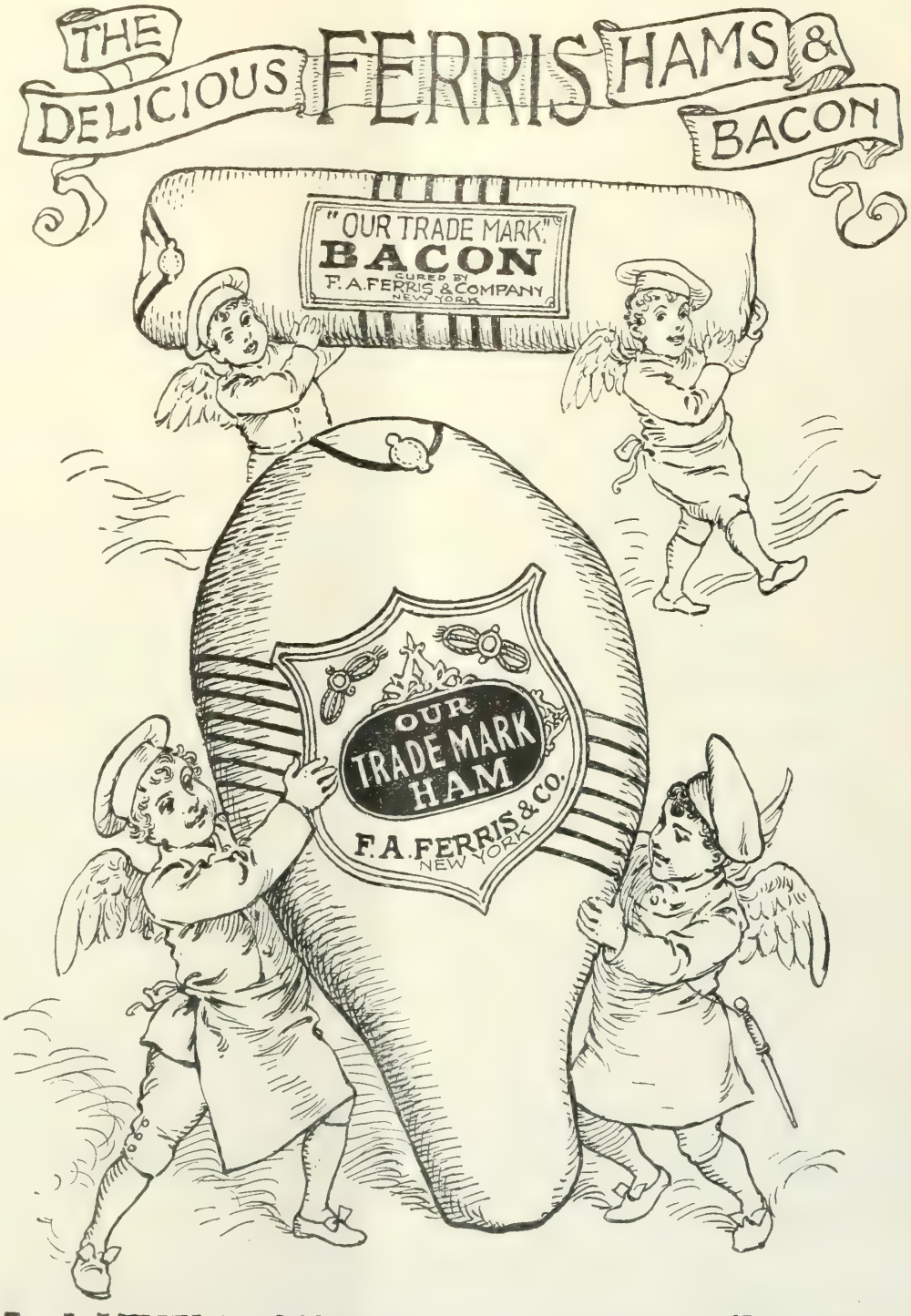

A LITTLE HIGHER IN PRICE, BUT-

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 26, 1894.

The Week.

A PENNSYLVANIA "idee" of the way to settle the tariff and the currency at one stroke is clearly a-hatching. Senator Cameron rather muddily outlined it in his speech on Wednesday week, in which he insisted that "the tariff and silver are two sides of the same issue," and declared that it was "easier for Republicans to take this ground than their opponents, who have destroyed silver." But it is in the April *Textile Record*, published in Philadelphia, that we find the grand scheme clearly described. Says this precious journal:

"Why should not all American interests stand together and make common cause against the common enemy? No sane man in this country desires silver monometallism; but if the choice were given to manufacturers, of gold monometallism with the Wilson tariff bill or silver monometallism with the McKinley tariff, who can d ubt that the latter alternative would be preferred by an overwhelming majority? The gold monometallism which is impoverishing our Western farmers has the same British origin as the free-trade policy which menaces our manufacturers with deadly hurt. The two evils belong together and work to a similar end, namely, destruction of American interests for the advantage of British interests. Surely there is some ground upon which the protectionists can meet the friends of silver remonetization and can arrange to work together for the defeat of the assault now made upon its industries."

We invite the attention of New York Republican editors to this reckless and incendiary talk. The truth is, that our greatest financial peril just now lies in the surprising way in which Eastern Republicans are falling over each other in their haste to encourage and inflame the silverites. What with Lodge and Cameron and Gallinger and Walker going out of their way to stir up the silver agitation afresh, we shall soon be able to wrest the palm for financial lunacy from the South and West. The present attitude of these Republicans is a striking confirmation of the view that the whole silver folly got its life as a branch of protection, while their willingnes to wreck the finances of the country in order to save the protective system shows what desperate and unscrupulous men that system begets.

The *Quarterly Journal of Economics* has done well to get an article from President Andrews explaining the motives and morals of his new silver crusade. Nothing could be more timely or needed, for nothing has been more stupefying and incomprehensible than the starting up at such a time of such a movement in such a place, backed by such men. But unfortunately President Andrews's explanation only makes the whole thing even more stupefying and incomprehensible. The great object which he and his friends are working for, it seems, is to prevent the "silver craze" from being "intensified." There was great danger, he writes, after the repeal of the Sherman law, that the silver-men of the West and the South would go wildly ahead and land us in silver monometallism. This even President Andrews thinks would be "unsafe," though in almost all other respects "our Western friends" have "the facts, the logic, the ethics of the situation with them." So he pictures himself and his bimetallic committee as coming to the help of the country against silver monometallism. As a consequence, he says, "the power of the extreme silverites is broken." He knows this through "numerous communications received from the West." If "the gold papers" will now turn in and help the Boston committee do a little placating of the currency cranks, all will be well, and we shall escape the silver basis and land safely in the Elysian Fields of international bimetallism.

Now, what could be a more grotesque misreading of the facts? The power of the extreme silverites did, indeed, appear to be broken at one time, but that was last October, when they were routed in their last stand on the Sherman law. It did look then as if the silver craze were at an end, and business men breathed easier than they had since 1878. The silver-men themselves could nowhere see a ray of hope, and had not even spirit enough left in them to prophesy what would happen "when the people rose in their might," etc. But what has changed all this, and put the breath of life under the ribs of death? Ask Senator Wolcott, who rises in the Senate to say that the bimetallic leagues in the East are doing "an infinite amount of good" and hastening on the time when we shall go to the silver basis without any ridiculous waiting for other countries to go there too. Read for an answer the rabid silver journals of the South and West, which are filled with exultant references to the Boston bimetallists as a living and irrefutable proof that the silverites were right all along. "The committee does not propose to make use of any political agency," says the innocent Andrews, not seeing that he is doing all in his power to prolong the terrible evil of keeping our standard of value at the mercy of politicians for another indefi nite period of uncertainty and alarm. And the crowning fatuity of the whole is to suppose that this is the way to check the "silver craze"! When you tell a crazy man that "the facts, the logic, the ethics of the situation" are all with him, except in one or two unimportant particulars, unless you are crazy yourself you cannot expect him to do anything but tell you that you are altogether wrong about those particulars, and that you yourself had better get into the asylum, too, without loss of time.

A week ago Saturday the export of gold from this country to Europe, which had been going on spasmodically since the middle of December, began again, and it was continued by further shipments on Saturday last. All told, the fortnight's export of specie amounts to $7,500,000, of which approximately $3,000,000 was furnished from the gold holdings of city banks, while $4,400,000 was taken in exchange for United States notes from the federal treasury. Each of our recent brief gold-export n ovements has been occasioned by a temporarily sharp demand for capital in some foreign financial centre. In December, and early in the present year, the completion of the Austrian Government's resumption plans called for supplies of gold, most of which were drawn from Berlin, but part of which came indirectly from New York. This month the demand for capital has arisen in Paris, where a $40,000,000 municipal lottery loan has just been opened for public subscription. This loan is offered at the unusually low interest rate, for a European city, of 2½ per cent.; but such is the demand for high-grade investments, and such the supply of idle capital, that the advance subscription for this loan, which it had been expected would be covered almost wholly in France, came very largely from London. The London capitalists thus subscribing found that, of all the world's great money markets, our own showed the largest surplus of unemployed capital subject to their orders. During and after last year's acute financial strain, a very large amount in loans was negotiated in London by our bankers and corporations. Upwards of $48,000,000 gold was shipped to us on this account. When panic had subsided, and hoarded money flowed back into our banks, the local money market became again exceptionally easy, and last summer's loans from European bankers, as they matured, were paid off and renewed with local institutions. This left the foreign bankers with a large supply of absolutely idle capital on their hands in New York city. So long as the foreign markets continued equally flat, the credits were left in New York city. But that these funds, which now in large measure draw no interest whatever, and which are at present useless here, should have been transferred through shipment of gold to Paris, as soon as a new invest-

ment field had opened there, was surely no matter for either agitation or surprise.

Senator Smith's speech against the income tax last week was both weighty in substance and admirable in manner. It was, in fact, the most effective assault on that measure which has been made in Congress. Particularly telling was the New Jersey Senator's demonstration of the needlessness of the tax as a revenue measure, and of its sectional and socialistic animus and form. We wish we could believe that the arguments of the speech would have any practical effect; but unfortunately the question appears to be already settled without argument, so that close observers at Washington consider the income tax certain to become a law. That it will be odious and ineffective in operation is clear, but that the outlook for its early repeal on that ground may be said to be good, he would be a rash prophet who should assert. What assurance have we that the Republicans, if they control the next Congress, would dare offend the Western members of their party who are strong for the income tax? Any one who recalls how they have knuckled under to their silver allies would be slow to say that they would surely take a higher tone with their Populist allies. If the tax proves as "popular" in the West as now seems likely, no party as such can be depended upon to oppose it.

It is reported that an effort will be made in the Senate to amend the income tax so as to minimize its socialistic aspect—that is to say, to bring down the limit of exemption to $1,500 or less. That is the only honest way to levy an income tax. All the economic writers who speak of such a tax as the most equitable of all in theory, mean the tax in a form which does, indeed, distribute its burdens among all classes in society having an income more than adequate to the bare necessaries of life. No country that has such a tax thinks of letting off the smaller incomes for the sake of hitting the large ones alone. The honest income tax goes on the theory that there are necessary public expenditures which can be met in no other way, and which therefore rest fairly upon all the people, and are to be met by taxing all impartially. But the income tax now before the Senate is confessedly unnecessary as a revenue measure, and is defended exactly because it does not tax the people equitably. The movement to amend it into some semblance of fairness should be pressed. It will doubtless fail, but it will at least accomplish the unmasking of the champions of the socialistic form of the tax. During the war, when the income tax was regarded as a burden which should be patriotically borne, and which was, in fact, laid upon all classes in proportion to their ability to bear it, the tax was paid cheerfully and brought in large returns. But as soon as it became clearly unnecessary, and, after 1870, an undisguised attack on the rich, it became so odious and fruitless that its repeal followed speedily.

There could hardly be a better illustration of the audacity, we were going to say depravity, of Senator Lodge's demagogy, than the phrase, "when not in contravention of any existing treaty," in his resolution in favor of putting discriminating duties on British products to compel England to change her standard of value. It would not be surprising if Peffer, or Simpson, or Coxey introduced such a resolution, because they probably know nothing about existing treaties or about the obligation of treaties. But Lodge knows perfectly well that we are bound by the treaties of 1794 and of 1815 not to impose on British goods any duties which we do not impose on those of other nations. It was to learn such things that he was sent to Harvard College, and he is presumed to know them by everybody who reads his reform articles in the magazines. Consequently his resolution is a simple appeal to the most ignorant Anglophobia and silverism, very probably in the belief, which he shares with Hill, that the Presidency can be won by trickery and knavery. Moreover, even if British commerce were not protected by existing treaties, it would be protected by England's power of retaliation. Any one who supposes that an attempt by foreigners to coerce a great nation into a change in her own currency, would not cause the people to rise as one man into passionate resistance, must be as great a fool as Lodge pretends to be. Our exports to Great Britain last year amounted to $361,000,000, the breadstuffs alone to $70,000,000. There is hardly an item in them in which other countries do not compete with us. The smallest duty on them would therefore drive us out of that market and make the Western and Southern silverites howl worse than ever. The contributions of Massachusetts and Harvard College to federal politics during the past two years in the persons of Lodge and Quincy really seem like a freak of nature, and we respectfully call the attention of the Board of Overseers to the phenomenon.

The debate in the House on the diplomatic and consular appropriation bill has been a dreary and disappointing affair, degenerating into personalities and the usual vindication of party virtue by asserting that "we are as good as you are, anyhow." Mr. Hitt made a slashing attack on Quincy, but "made no criticism as a Republican." That is to say, he assented to the doctrine that the consuls should be turned out ruthlessly and the business and honor of the country let go to the dogs to make places for political hangers-on, and only objected to somebody else having the dirty work to do instead of himself. In so far, Mr. McCreary's retort on Mr. Hitt, referring to his own experience and record as an assistant secretary in the State Department, was a fair enough *tu quoque*. But his own defence of Mr. Quincy was received with such marked coolness by the House that he was glad to drop that and resort to the time-honored method of arousing applause by confessing his belief "that the party in power, whether it be the Democratic or Republican party, should be represented in all the offices by the men who reflect the views of the dominant party." After this we know what weight to attach to his belated admission that the whole system needs "revising." In neither party is there any indication of a serious purpose to do anything to remove the crying disgrace and outrage of our consular system.

The decision of the South Carolina Supreme Court that the dispensary law is unconstitutional cannot surprise anybody who has followed the controversy over the statute. The decision is based upon the principle that the law gives the State a monopoly of the liquor traffic, and that the Constitution gives the State no right to assume such a monopoly of any business. Furthermore, the court holds that the act cannot be regarded as a police regulation, and, even if it could be, such police power does not include the power on the part of the State to engage in carrying on such business. The court consists of three judges—two anti-Tillmanites and one Tillmanite, for such is the only way of defining the political attitude of men in South Carolina at present. Although its decision was not unexpected, Gov. Tillman seems not to have been prepared for it—or, at least, not ready to announce his programme for the future. As a change in the membership of the court will occur in July, when the majority will shift to Tillman's side, a rehearing of the matter may be asked, with a view to securing a decision then sustaining the law. There is also talk of an extra session of the Legislature, though it seems questionable whether that body could pass any law which would meet the fundamental objection of a majority of the judges to the statute just annulled. In any event, there must be a period of doubt and uncertainty, with an apparent likelikood that "free rum" will for a while be the rule.

The attorney-general of New Jersey decided last week that the "referendum" cannot be adopted in that State without an amendment to the Constitu-

tion. This is in line with the similar decision of the Massachusetts Supreme Court. It seems obvious enough that no State constitution ever contemplated direct legislation by the people, and that such legislation could be had only by a dangerous stretching or evasion of the constitutional provisions. Attorney-General Stockton also intimated that the Constitution of the United States might possibly be interpreted so as to prohibit such legislation in any State. When we consider the almost insuperable difficulties in the way of amending a State, and particularly the federal, Constitution, it seems clear that the champions of the referendum in American politics have a hard road to travel.

For the second time within six months, a negro has been lynched by a white mob in Ohio. Gov. McKinley expresses deep regret, but says that he can do nothing about it. In the previous case he wrote letters to those whose business it was to investigate the matter, and the judge gave sharp instructions to the jury, "but nothing came of it." One thing, however, has come. The Republican newspapers of Ohio have read fewer lectures to the South on the proper treatment of the negro during the past six months than used to be their habit.

The fight between Bragg and Naftel in Alabama, in a private room, in which Bragg was killed and Naftel dangerously wounded, arose out of Naftel's saying that Bragg at a meeting had not acted like a gentleman, by, in some manner, obstructing his view. It is unfortunate that Bragg should have thought it necessary to kill Naftel for this statement. But the criminal code of gentlemen at the South is one of appalling severity. Draco could not hold a candle to them. They constantly inflict capital punishment, without trial, for mere trifles, a hasty word or an inadvertent push. The duel, or regular fight before witnesses, has now gone out of fashion, some of the papers say, but the "difficulty" continues. On the whole, however, the duel was better than the "difficulty." For a duel "friends" were needed, who, if adepts in their art, always tried to arrange matters without a fight, and the condemned man always had time to settle his affairs and bid good-bye to his family. The "difficulty," on the contrary, may come to the most peaceable man at any moment, and there is no earthly mode of escape. A has some slight dispute or trouble with B, and perhaps thinks no more about it. But he suddenly hears that B has condemned him to death, or, in Southern parlance, said "he would kill him on sight." There is then no alternative. A must go armed and open fire on B whenever he sees him coming. The best of it is that the news that the "difficulty" exists soon gets about the town, and the whole population is then on the *quivive* to see what will happen when the men meet, and the newspapers keep the press waiting and the reporters on the alert. Sometimes, as in the Bragg-Naftel case, the combatants simply visit each other in a private room and blaze away there. What civilized man would not sooner fight a duel than go through this agony of expectation?

Naftel's recovery is doubtful, but even if he does recover, he will not suffer. Southern society forgives everything to a man who has had a "difficulty," even if he is a minister, elder, or a churchwarden. But this fighting in a private room recalls the case of Maj. Campbell, the English army officer, who had a "difficulty" with Capt. Boyd of his own regiment in 1807 at the mess-table. They differed about a certain word of command given by Campbell, which Boyd said was not correct. Campbell felt that he must kill Boyd for taking this view, so he got him to fight him with pistols twenty minutes later, in a small room, and shot him through the body. Before his death Boyd declared that he wanted to wait for friends, but Campbell would not. Campbell was tried for murder, convicted, and hanged one week later, in spite of the agonized entreaties of his wife, addressed to the King in person and all the royal family.

Secretary Gresham's despatch to Minister Willis, stating that "an American citizen who voluntarily takes an oath to support and bear true allegiance to a foreign power, contemplating participation in its affairs, probably abandons his right to claim protection from the United States," is held by the *Tribune's* Washington correspondent to spring from a "sinister motive." Its effect will be, he says, "to prevent a number of Americans from taking part in the coming election to select delegates to the Hawaiian Constitutional Convention." But most people will say that it is high time to put an end to the monstrous farce of American citizens overturning a foreign government and setting up another in its place, and going throughout on the principle that, if they are successful and get all the offices and the spoils, they are Hawaiians, but if they fail and are in danger of hanging as rebels, they are Americans. As to the international law of the case, the Secretary is guarded, as he should be in a matter not clearly settled. The doctrine of perpetual allegiance would be a curious one for us to set up now after our long disputes over it with England and her final abandonment of it and coming over to our own view. The question is whether renunciation of American citizenship is implied in the oath to support the Hawaiian Government and bear arms against its enemies. It may be a nice point to decide, legally, and Mr. Gresham's "probably" shows that he is fully aware of this. But on grounds of common sense and decency there cannot be two opinions. If Americans set about running the public affairs of another country, they ought to be compelled to do it without the coward's shield of allegiance to another government to use in case of danger.

Several times during the last two years we have had occasion to indicate the municipality of St Denis as a happy spot where the social revolution was having free course and glorifying itself in the eyes of mankind. Its course, in fact, has been of almost exactly two years' duration, dating from the elections of 1892. The socialists set out at that time with a programme that promised marvels. Taxes were to be lowered, the octroi suppressed, public works undertaken and pushed to completion, and everybody was to have more butter than bread. The municipality was to enter upon a state of bliss far above that of the Earthly Paradise, and the Happy Hunting-Grounds, and Lubberland, rolled into one. They elected their mayor, as all the world has had some reason to know, and he has just come to the end of his term of office, with results which are not exactly those that were predicted to the Dyonisian voters.

Imposts have not been lowered, but raised; some of them, doubled. The market people pay twice as much for a license as they did before. The octroi is not suppressed; five new bureaus for its collection have been created. Taxes have been augmented, and the good work of increasing them is still going on, as a new project, just submitted to the Municipal Council, shows. Wine is to pay 50 centimes more the hectolitre; cider, 25; beer, 55; alcohol, 3 francs. Rabbits (which are largely consumed by the poorer classes) are to pay a tax increased by 2 francs the hundred kilos; *charcuterie* is to pay 1 franc more; the tax on oysters is doubled; charcoal is to pay 8 centimes more, hay 20, straw 15, oats 15. All materials of construction—brick, plaster, tiles, window-glass—have been treated as if by our own McKinley. But Tammany rather than McKinley seems to have been in the minds of the socialists when they were laying out their public works. The construction of these was given out by chance or favor, without advertising; some of them have needed repairs before they were finished, and all of them have cost twice what they should. Such is the pretty balance-sheet that the outgoing Mayor of St. Denis and his party have to show.

THE ORGANIZED TRAMP.

EX-PRESIDENT HARRISON still keeps thinking deeply about public questions. He has not lost, he says, "his convictions on public affairs." He has been much impressed, in particular, by Coxey's army. He observes:

> "We are witnessing now a spectacle that our country has never witnessed before—a so-called industrial army gathering from all quarters of the country and hurrying to Washington to endeavor to impress by their presence upon the members of Congress certain political views—men who go to tell our Representatives that the workm n of the country are in distress and need relief. It is a new spectacle. I believe that if the Republican policies of administration had not been threatened, we should not have witnessed this sad, almost appalling manifestation. But I did not intend to discuss political matters."

To the eye of the general public, the "industrial army" is a collection of tramps and criminals, who deliberately refuse work every day of their lives, and enjoy marching through the country in mobs and living on the farmers and villagers. To the more perspicacious gaze of the ex-President, they are citizens hurrying to Washington "to impress on members of Congress certain political views." To differ with a thoughtful ex-President seems a serious matter, and yet we will hazard the assertion that there is not a "view" in the whole army. What the army wants is bacon, whiskey, hominy, pie and the like, without working for them, and we warrant that they are perfectly indifferent whether these blessings come to them under the McKinley bill or under the Wilson bill. Moreover, they will, we are sure, exempt any Representative from the necessity of listening to their opinions on the present financial situation for a silver dime, or any Senator for a quarter.

To our minds this talk of the ex-President, coupled with the impunity which has attended "the army" on its march, is characteristic of the weakness and irresolution which seem to have overtaken all public bodies, from Congress down, and a great many public men in all parts of the country. They all seem too feeble and vacillating to deal with any social or political problem of the slightest moment. At this season every year the tramps in all parts of the country start out on their summer rambles. They are always more numerous than usual after any social or financial convulsion. They were very numerous after the war, and are always numerous after a panic, for the simple reason that there is always a large number of men in the community who will work if jobs are thrust upon them, as they are apt to be in prosperous times, but will not work at all if they have to seek them. This class of strolling beggars, with the tastes and manners of savages, has been increasing for years. They lodge in the almshouses in winter and rove through the country in summer. Hitherto they have done this singly, or in twos or threes, and were thus exposed to contumely at the hands of the police or the farmers, and to the bites of dogs. Coxey's discovery that they could be got together and made to march in large bodies which could overawe the neighborhoods through which they pass, and probably secure respectful treatment from the local authorities, was the most valuable one ever made for the vagabond population. In fact, it has done what nobody would have believed two months ago could be done by any human agency, raised the profession of tramp into a certain respectability. For instance, no tramp ever dreamed that he had "views" on the tariff until he heard of it from Gen. Harrison, or that when meandering through the country robbing orchards and henroosts and frightening women, he was really acting as a deputation to Congress to oppose the Wilson bill. Consider what a delightful prospect this opens up to this whilom lonely wanderer.

Now let us say in all seriousness that if this "army" business be not now somehow put an end to, nothing is more certain than that it will become a regular part of the summer programme in the whole tramp world. "Armies" will be formed South, East, West, and North every year in April or May, to "march on" Washington or some other city, in numbers large enough to enable them to seize trains, overawe the local police, and levy contributions on the farming population. For it must not be imagined that the provisions Coxey's men get from the people on the way are charitable donations. They are blackmail paid by the frightened people to induce the army to leave their neighborhood. The submissiveness of some of the railroads, combined with the inability of the authorities to know what to do, has, of course, aggravated the evil every day. If there be no Federal legislation to put a stop to it, there should be, and would be if Congress had not fallen into "innocuous desuetude." The march of large bodies of men, with no regular occupations and no lawful object in view, through the country to the terror of the inhabitants, ought to be peremptorily prohibited. Coxey would be in jail by this time and his followers dispersed if we really had a government.

Senator Hawley made some excellent remarks in the Senate, on Friday, on Peffer's proposal to give the various "armies" which are marching on the capital a cordial official reception. It is pleasant to read such talk at a time of great froth, foam, and wind, "ethical" and other. We hope it will awaken some reflection in the minds of ethical, bimetallist, silverite, socialistic, and communistic philosophers touching the paths in which they are now trying to induce this nation to travel. But even in Gen. Hawley's speech there was a little "politics." He confined himself rigidly, apparently, to the impropriety of trying to overawe Congress by a display of physical force at the capital. But he fell in with the assumption that these armies are composed of the genuine "unemployed"—that is, of men who desire work, have vainly tried to get it, and are real citizens of a thinking turn, who have "views" to which it is desirable that legislators should listen. Yet all accounts agree that both the districts from which these men come and those through which they are passing are suffering seriously from want of labor for which good pay can be had. There is also strong evidence that the "armies" are mainly composed of tramps—that is, of men who never work at all or seek work, but live by begging and stealing, and who are simply following their usual manner of life under more favorable circumstances. They are doing *en masse* what they ordinarily do individually. In "armies" they do not fear arrest or dogs, and, instead of stealing a ride on the trains, they are able to seize the trains. We are sorry that no one in the Senate had the courage to utter these notorious truths.

THE QUORUM TROUBLE.

THOSE who are rejoicing so much over the fact that Speaker Crisp has had to adopt the methods of Speaker Reed in the matter of securing a quorum of the House for the transaction of business, would do much better to weep over the fact that it is now demonstrated that neither party can be depended on to discharge its legislative duties under the Constitution. We are having at Washington precisely the experience we have been having at Albany. The theory of parliamentary government is, that when one party offends the public in any particular, either of conduct or of policy, the other party may be relied on to correct its errors, and that, by the simple process of a transfer of power, the machinery of state may be kept in good working order. This theory has broken down to some extent both at Albany and in Washington. When we elected a Republican Legislature in this State, we thought we were putting in power the Opposition which disapproved of the Democrats and would reverse their policy and correct their abuses. But we found, when the Legislature met, that it apparently agreed with the Democrats, and saw no abuses to correct. The past three months have been spent in denouncing the Republicans for this way of looking at themselves, and trying to remind them that their mission is to upset what the Democrats have set up. It is only now, on the very eve of the adjournment, that this abuse has had any effect on them. If let alone by the press, they would apparently have gone home with

their salaries in their pockets without any attempt at legislation worth mention. In fact, when they met, they were apparently "in with" the Democrats, and were joining them in mocking the constituencies which elected them.

Very much the same state of things exists in Washington. The Democrats were elected to undo what the Republicans had done, by repealing the Sherman act and reforming the tariff. When they met in Congress, it was found that they did not desire to do either the one or the other. They were, on their side, so to speak, "in with" the Republicans. It was with the greatest difficulty that they were induced to repeal the Sherman act, and they are still holding over the reform of the tariff, and have stuck into the bill framed for that purpose, the income tax, which was never mentioned in the canvass, and which nobody who voted for them in this part of the world ever thought of as part and parcel of the Democratic programme. When Speaker Reed was trying to make a quorum by the use of very arbitrary methods four years ago for the benefit of the McKinley bill, the provisions of the bill were so atrocious that there was some sympathy with the minority which refused to help the majority to pass it. At that time the Republican majority held well together in support of their measures. People therefore supposed that when the Democrats came into power, they would hold well together in defence of *their* measures. Nothing of the kind. The Democrats refuse to make a quorum in order either to embody their own ideas in legislation or to reverse the policy of the Republicans. A large number of them hardly seem to think attendance in Congress necessary at all. They draw their salaries and attend to their private affairs in various parts of the country. In other words, they refuse to discharge their duties under the Constitution. Consequently, at Washington as well as at Albany, the parliamentary remedy for abuses of power seems to have failed.

For twenty years after the war, the Democrats were so completely discredited by that event that there was no possibility of putting them in power on any of the actual issues of the day. The Republicans had everything their own way. There was, therefore, practically no remedy for their misconduct, and this immunity thoroughly debauched them. The country at last got tired of one-party government, and resolved, sink or swim, to try the Democrats. Well, they have tried them, and we see the result. We have little doubt the experiment of one-party government will now be tried again, and will be tried for a long time, but it must end in the same way. No party can long bear the possession of power which they feel sure will not be taken away from them.

Those who think they see the decline of representative institutions all over the world will take a good deal of comfort in the spectacle we now present. One hundred years may be said to have made an end of real parliamentary government, for the English Parliament, before the Reform Bill, cannot be considered a representative body. The tendency is, everywhere in Europe, to break parties up into little groups, armed with "fads," who give no steady support to any ministry, and therefore make the carrying out of any consistent policy impossible. Our plan is simply to stay away from the legislative halls, and leave the Speaker to hammer and search for legislators; or else to join the Opposition in refraining from legislation. Both systems bring representative government into contempt. A good deal of pity has, during the last fifty years, been expended on the Romans for not having discovered the plan of representation. But we fancy it will now be more and more a question whether, if they had discovered it, they could ever have founded and maintained their empire. They were governed through the Senate for 700 years by their fittest men, who were always "in their places" when important business was done. If Cato or Cicero were to come back to earth, we doubt much whether his imagination would be fired by the spectacle which either Congress or the New York Legislature just now presents.

CONCERNING "GOING TO EUROPE."

MRS. STEVENSON, a Philadelphia lady, the president of the Civic Club in that city, delivered an address to the club some weeks ago on its work of reform, in which we find the following passage:

> "There seems to exist a mysterious, unwritten law governing the social organism, which causes a natural and wholesome reaction to take place whenever tendencies, perhaps inherent in certain classes, threaten to become general and thereby dangerous to the community. A few years ago, for instance, with the increasing facilities for foreign travel and the corresponding increase of international intercourse, Anglomania had become so much in vogue as to form an incipient danger to the true democratic American spirit that constitutes the real strength of our nation. It was fast becoming a national habit to extol everything European—from monarchy and its aristocratic institutions down to the humblest article of dress or of household use—to the detriment of everything American; and from the upper 'four hundred' this habit was fast extending to the upper forty thousand. But just as our wealthy classes were beginning to make themselves positively ridiculous abroad, and almost intolerable at home, a reaction set in, and upon all sides there sprang up patriotic associations of a social order—'Sons and Daughters of the Revolution,' 'Colonial Dames,' etc.—which revived proper American self-respect among our people by teaching us to rest our pride, if pride we *must* have, where it legitimately should rest—upon good service rendered to our own country."

This seems to be a shaft aimed at the practice of "going to Europe," for the decline of "the true American spirit" and the growth of Anglomania are ascribed to the "increasing facilities for foreign travel," and "the corresponding increase of international intercourse." If the charge be true, it is one of the most afflicting ever made, because it shows that "the true democratic American spirit" suffers from what the world has hitherto considered one of the greatest triumphs of modern science, and one of the greatest blessings conferred on the race—the enormous improvement in oceanic steam navigation; that, in fact, American patriotism is very much like the Catholic faith in the Middle Ages—something naturally hostile to progress in the arts.

If, too, the practice of going to Europe be dangerous to American faith and morals, the number of those who go makes it of immense importance. There is probably no American, who has risen above very narrow circumstances, who does not go to Europe at least once in his life. There is hardly a village in the country in which the man who has succeeded in trade or commerce does not announce his success to his neighbors by a trip to Europe for himself and his family. There is hardly a professor, or teacher, or clergyman, or artist, or author, who does not save out of a salary, however small, in order to make the voyage. Tired professional or business men make it constantly, under the pretence that it is the only way they can get "a real holiday." Journalists make it as the only way of getting out of their heads such disgusting topics as Croker and Gilroy, and Hill and Murphy. Rich people make it every year or oftener through mere restlessness. We are now leaving out of account, of course, immigrants born in the Old World, who go back to see their friends. We are talking of native Americans. Of course, all native Americans cannot go, because, even when they can afford it, they cannot always get the time. But we venture on the proposition that there is hardly any American "in this broad land," as members of Congress say, who, having both time and money, has not gone to Europe or does not mean to go some day or other. So that if Mrs. Stevenson's account of the moral effects of the voyage were true, it would show that the very best portion of our population, the most moral, the most religious, and the most educated, were constantly exposing themselves by tens of thousands to most debasing influences.

But is it true? We think not. Americans who go to Europe with some knowledge of history, of the fine arts, and of literature, all recognize the fact that they could not have completed their education without going. To such people, travel in Europe is one of the purest and most elevating of pleasures, for Europe contains the experience of mankind in nearly every field of human endeavor. They often, it is true, come back discontented

with America, but out of this discontent have grown some of our most valuable improvements—libraries, museums, art galleries, colleges. What they have seen in Europe has opened their eyes to the possibilities and shortcomings of their own country. To take a familiar example, it is travel in Europe which has done most to stimulate the movement for municipal reform. It is seeing London and Paris and Berlin and Birmingham which has done most to wake people up to the horrors of the Croker-Gilroy rule, and inflame the determination to end it as a national disgrace. The class of Americans who do not come back discontented are usually those who had no education to start with.

——"Knowledge to their eyes her ample page,
Rich with the spoils of time, did ne'er unroll!"

So, even when standing on the Acropolis at Athens or in the Tribuna at Florence, they feel themselves sadly "out of it." They think longingly of Billy or Jimmy, and the coffee and cakes of their far Missouri or Arkansas home, and come back cursing Europe and its contents. No damage is ever done by foreign travel to the "true democratic American spirit" of this class.

And now as to "Anglomania," a subject to be handled with as much delicacy as an anarchist bomb. Anglomania in one form or other is to be met with in all countries, especially France and Germany, and has shown itself here and there all over the Continent ever since the peace of 1815. The things in which it most imitates the English are riding, driving, men's clothes, sports in general, and domestic comfort. The reason is that the English have for two centuries given more attention to these things than any other people. No other has so cultivated the horse for pleasure purposes. No other has devoted so much thought and money to suitability in dress and to field sports. No other has brought to such perfection the art of living in country houses. In all these things people who can afford it try to imitate them. We say, with a full consciousness of the responsibility which the avowal entails on us, that they do right. It is well in any art to watch and imitate the man who has best succeeded in it. The sluggard has been exhorted even to imitate the ant, and we say boldly that any one who wishes to ride or drive well, or dress appropriately, or entertain in a country house, ought to study the way the English do these things, and follow their example, for anything worth doing is worth doing well. It is mostly in these things that Anglomania consists.

Mrs. Stevenson, we fear, exaggerates greatly the number of Anglomaniacs. A few dozen are as many as are to be found in any country, and any government or polity which their presence puts in peril ought to be overthrown, for assuredly it is rotten to the core. There is nothing, in fact, better calculated to make Americans hang their heads for shame than the list of small things which, one hears from "good Americans," put our institutions in danger. We remember a good old publisher in the days before international copyright who thought we could not much longer stand the circulation of British novels. Their ideas, he said, were dangerous to a republic. An Anglomaniac can hardly turn up his trousers on Fifth Avenue without eliciting shrieks of alarm from the American patriot. And yet a more harmless creature really does not exist.

These matters are worth notice because we are the only great nation in the world whom people try to preach into patriotism. The natives of other countries love their country simply, naturally, and for the most part silently, as they love their mothers and their wives. But to get an American to do so, he has, one would think, to be followed around by a preacher with a big stick exhorting him to be a "good American," or he will catch it. But nobody was ever preached into love of country. He may be preached into sacrifices in its behalf, but the springs of love cannot be got at by any system of persuasion. No man will love his country unless he feels it to be lovable; and it is to making it lovable that the exertions of those who have American patriotism in charge should be devoted.

For this purpose we should advise the examination of the Bad Americans on the wharf after their arrival from Europe as to the things which shock or disappoint them when they land on their native shores. Their answers will, we think, as a general rule, reveal the fact that, though Bad Americans, they are good citizens. They will tell you that the American newspaper, after mortifying them abroad, has disgusted them utterly on reaching home; that they are pained by the dirt and shabbiness of the New York streets; by the sight of the scum of the population figuring as mayors, magistrates, and commissioners; by the brutal manners of the expressmen, hackmen, *et hoc genus omne;* by the seedy appearance of the men of the country in their shoddy McKinley clothing, and so on. These, to some people, may seem trifles, but they are what really make two-thirds of the Bad Americans who come back from Europe. Every Good American may take comfort in the fact that very few people indeed of any social or political value who have once lived in America ever want again to live in Europe, unless they go for purposes of study or education. For there is no question that there is no country in the world in which the atmosphere is so friendly, and in which one is so sure of sympathy in misfortune, of acceptance on his own merits independently of birth or money, and has so many opportunities of escape from the slings and arrows of outrageous fortune, as America. These are the things which, after all, in the vast majority of cases, win and hold the human heart; and a country which has them can well afford to let its citizens travel, and even let some of them "be early English if they can."

PROFESSOR WILLIAM ROBERTSON SMITH.

London, April 17, 1894.

We have lost in William Robertson Smith, who died at the age of forty-seven on the 31st of March, the most learned and perhaps the most remarkable man that either Cambridge or Oxford could show. To the English public generally his name was little known, or remembered chiefly in connection with the episode of the theological controversy and ecclesiastical trial of which he was the central figure in Scotland fifteen years ago. But on the Continent of Europe and by Orientalists here he was looked upon as the foremost Semitic scholar of Britain, and in Cambridge the appreciation of his brilliant abilities was universal.

He was born in the quiet pastoral valley of the Don, in Aberdeenshire, where his father was a minister of the Scottish Free Church, and received his education at the University of Aberdeen, whence he went to spend a semester or two at Göttingen and Bonn. When only twenty-four, he became professor of Oriental languages in the College or Divinity School of the Free Church at Aberdeen, and two years later was chosen one of the revisers of the Old Testament, a striking honor for so young a man. A little later he became, first, assistant editor and then editor-in-chief of the ninth edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' For some years this great undertaking occupied most of his time. He was exceptionally qualified for it by the range of his attainments (whereof more anon) and by the extreme quickness of his mind, which rapidly acquired knowledge on any subject. He took infinite pains to find the most competent writers, and was able to exercise a real practical supervision over a very large proportion of the articles. The high level of excellence reached in this latest edition is chiefly due to his industry and discernment. Not a few of the articles on subjects connected with the Old Testament were from his own pen; and they were among the best in the work.

The appearance of one of them—that entitled "Bible," which contained a general view of the history of the canonical books, their dates, authorship, and reception by the church—became a turning-point in his life. The propositions it laid down regarding the origin of parts of the Old Testament, particularly the Pentateuch, excited alarm and displeasure among those who in Scotland had failed to keep abreast of the progress of modern criticism. The article was able, clear, and perfectly fearless—plainly the work of a master hand. The views it advanced would not now be thought extreme; they are, in fact, accepted to-day by many writers of unquestioned orthodoxy in Britain and a (perhaps smaller) number in the United States. In 1876, however, they were new and startling to those who had not studied in Germany or paid special attention to the writings of such men as Ewald, Kuenen, and Wellhausen. The Scottish Free Church had

prided itself upon the rigidity of its orthodoxy; and while among the younger ministers there were a good many able and learned scholars of what may be called "advanced views," the mass of the elder and middle-aged clergy had gone on in the old-fashioned traditions of verbal inspiration, and took every word in the five books to have been written down by Moses. It was only natural that their anger should be kindled against the young professor, whose ideas seemed to them to cut away the ground from under their feet. A prosecution was instituted before the Presbytery of Aberdeen, which found its way thence to the Synod of Aberdeen, and ultimately to the General Assembly, and which, in one form or another (for the flame was lit anew by other articles), lingered on for five years. So far from yielding to the storm, Robertson Smith defied it, maintaining not only the truth of his views, but their compatibility with the Presbyterian standards as contained in the Confession of Faith and the Longer and Shorter Catechisms. In this latter contention he was successful, proving that the divines of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries had not committed themselves to any specific doctrine of inspiration, still less to any dogmatic deliverance as to the authorship of particular books. In the end, finding it impossible to convict him of any deviation from the standards, and thereby to deal with him as a minister of the church, his adversaries were obliged to deprive him, by an arbitrary vote, not of his clerical status, but of his professorship, on the ground of the alleged unsettling character of his teaching.

Meanwhile, however, there had been an immense rally to him of the younger clergy and of the more enlightened laity. The main current of Scotch popular thought and life since the Reformation has flowed in an ecclesiastical channel; and even now a theological or ecclesiastical question excites a far wider and keener interest in Scotland than a similar question would do in England. So in Scotland for four years "the Robertson Smith case" was the chief topic of discussion outside as well as inside the Free Church. The sympathy felt for him was heightened by the energy and courage with which he defended his position, showing a power of argument and repartee which made it plain that, in any assembly whatever, he would have held a distinguished place. If his debating had a fault, it was that of being almost too dialectically cogent, so that his antagonists felt that they were being foiled on the form of the argument before they could get to the issues they sought to raise. But while he was an accomplished lawyer in matters of form, he was no less an accomplished theologian in matters of substance. Although the party of repression triumphed so far as to deprive him of his chair, the victory virtually remained with him, not only because he had shown that the Presbyterian standards did not condemn the views he held, but also because his defence had recommended those views to the great majority of thoughtful laymen. The trial has been a turning-point for the Scottish churches. Opinions formerly proscribed are now freely expressed. The doctrinal prosecutions that have been subsequently attempted have, with scarcely an exception, failed; and the failure of one or two of the latest has led the rigidly orthodox section of the Free Church, which is now almost confined to the Highlands, to think of seceding from the main body.

Having no longer any tie to Scotland, as he had never desired a pastoral charge there, since he felt that his vocation lay in study and teaching, he was hesitating which way to turn, when the vacancy of the Lord Almoner's Readership in Arabic, which was offered to him in 1883, determined him to settle in Cambridge. He had travelled in Arabia a few years earlier, and added a colloquial to his grammatical mastery of the language, in whose literature he took a very keen interest. His spirits had not been affected by the attacks made upon him, and he had resisted the temptation, to which strong controversialists are prone, of going further than they originally meant and thereby damaging the position of their friends. But he was a little weary of controversy and pleased to see before him a prospect of learned quiet and labor, although the salary of the Readership was less than £100 a year. Fortunately he had come to a place where gifts like his were sure to be appreciated. The Master and Fellows of Christ's College elected him to a fellowship with no duties of tuition attached to it—a wise and graceful recognition of his merits which did them the more credit because they had very little personal knowledge of him, while he had possessed no prior bond with the University. Christ's is a small college, but has almost always had men of distinction among its fellows, and has maintained a high standard of teaching. In the list of its alumni stand the names of John Milton, Isaac Barrow, and Charles Darwin. Robertson Smith lived in it for the rest of his days, entering into the social life with great zest, for he was of an extremely sociable turn, and the College became proud of him. In 1889, on the death of his friend, William Wright, he became full professor of Arabic. His efforts to build up a school of Oriental studies on the foundations laid by Wright, and with the help of an eminent Syriac scholar, Bensley, were proving successful, and a considerable number of zealous and able young men were gathering round him, when the hand of disease fell upon him, obliging him first to curtail and during the last few months to intermit his lectures. Bensley also is now gone, and it may be feared that the best days of the school are over.

What with work on the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' with the years occupied by his trial, with the time spent in oral teaching, and with the physical weakness of his last few years, Smith's leisure available for literary production was not large, and the books he has left do not adequately represent either his accumulated knowledge or his faculty of investigation. The earlier books—'The Old Testament in the Jewish Church' and 'The Prophets of Israel' (the latter a series of lectures delivered at Glasgow)—are comparatively popular in handling. The two later—'Marriage and Kinship in Early Arabia' and 'The Religion of the Semites'—are more abstruse and technical, and also more original, dealing with topics in which their author was a pioneer. Of the last named only the first volume has appeared, but this volume is a striking and permanently important contribution to a very obscure subject, and has excited the admiration of the few Oriental scholars whose knowledge entitles them to speak with authority. What struck one most in his writing was the easy command wherewith he handled his materials. With perfect lucidity and a natural unstrained vigor, there was a sense of abounding and overflowing knowledge which inspired confidence in the reader, making him feel he was in the hands of a master. On all that pertained to the Semitic races, ancient and modern, he was the highest authority in Britain, not only as respects the width of his knowledge, but also its accuracy and thoroughness, and he often did good service in exposing the uncritical assumptions and loose hypotheses of less careful though more pretentious students. But Oriental lore was only one of many subjects in which the highest distinction was open to him. His mathematical talents were remarkable, and for a short time he taught with conspicuous success the class of Natural Philosophy in the University of Edinburgh as assistant professor. He had a competent acquaintance with not a few other practical arts, including navigation, and once, when the compasses of the vessel on which he was sailing in the Red Sea got out of order, he turned out to be the only person on board who could set them right. In metaphysics and theology, in ancient history and many departments of modern history, he was thoroughly at home. Few, indeed, were the subjects that came up in the course of conversation on which he was not able to throw light, for the range of his acquirements was not more striking than the swiftness and precision with which he could bring knowledge to bear wherever it was wanted.

One is always apt to think of men of learning as oppressed by their learning, and therefore likely to be dull, heavy, pedantic. With Robertson Smith the effect seemed to be exactly the opposite. Because he knew so much, he was interested in everything, and threw himself with a joyous freshness and keenness into talk alike upon the most serious and the lightest topics. He was somewhat combative, apt to traverse a proposition when first advanced, even though he might come round to it afterwards; and a discussion with him taxed the defensive acumen of his companions. Yet this tendency did not make his society less agreeable, because he never seemed to seek to overthrow an adversary, but only to get at the truth of the case, and his manner, though sometimes positive, had about it nothing either acrid or conceited. His stature was small, almost diminutive; his eyes singularly bright and keen; his speech rapid; his laugh gay and ready, for he had a strong sense of humor and a great power of enjoying life. Such an unusual combination of qualities as has been described made him a very marked personality, whom all his friends thought of as being quite unlike any one else, and who, therefore, held a conspicuous place in their interest. Such men as he, if they are likeable, have many friends, because we all find pleasure in what is exceptional. Smith was eminently likeable. The geniality, purity, and simplicity of his character gave him a great hold on those who had come to know him well. Few men, leading an equally quiet and studious life, have inspired so much regard and affection in so large a number of persons; few teachers have had an equal power of stimulating and attracting their pupils. He loved teaching hardly less than he loved the investigation of truth, and he was the most faithful and sympathetic of friends—one of those whom their friends feel to be unique while they live and irreplaceable when they have departed.

The courage he had shown in confronting his antagonists in the ecclesiastical courts did not fail him in the severer trials of his last illness. The nature of the disease of which he died was disclosed to him by his physician in September, 1892, while the Congress of Orientalists, in which he presided over the Semitic section, was holding its meetings. A great dinner was being given in honor of the Congress the same afternoon. Robertson Smith simply remarked, "This means my brother's death"

—one of his brothers having died of the same disease a few years before. He went straight to the dinner, and was the gayest and brightest of the guests throughout the evening.

BARANTE'S MEMOIRS.

PARIS, April 10, 1894.

THE fourth volume of the 'Souvenirs' of Baron de Barante begins with the formation of the first cabinet of the July monarchy, whose principal members were the Duc de Broglie, M. Guizot, Baron Louis (Treasury), Marshal Gérard (War), Count Molé (Foreign Affairs), Sébastiani, MM. Lafitte, Casimir Perier, Dupin. The ministry divided at once into two factions, the party of resistance and the party of movement—such was the phraseology of the time, and it requires little explanation. The press, the clubs, were very troublesome; there were constant manifestations in the streets in Paris and in the provinces. The foreign cabinets were all more or less adverse to the July Revolution, and entertained for a moment the idea of forming anew the Holy Alliance. A revolution broke out in Belgium, and the Belgians established a provisional government and proclaimed their independence. The King of Holland asked for the intervention of his allies, in the name of the treaties of 1815; the French Government proclaimed the principle of non-intervention, and M. de Werther, the Prussian Ambassador, was notified by M. Molé that if a Prussian army entered Holland, a French army would occupy Belgium. At the same time, M. de Talleyrand, who had been sent by Louis Philippe to London, declared to the English Government that France had no idea of annexing Belgium or even of establishing a French prince there. The solution of the Belgian question was submitted to a conference of the great Powers, which was to take place in London.

The Duchesse de Dino had accompanied Talleyrand to London, and writes interesting letters to Barante. She remarks on the absence of any sign of revolution in England, but sees ample material for one in the social conditions about her, on the eve of the introduction of the Reform Bill. M. de Barante was sent in October, 1830, as ambassador to the King of Sardinia; at Turin, he kept up a correspondence with the Duchesse de Dino, Pasquier, Molé, Decazes, with the Duchesse de Broglie. Barante found himself at Turin in the most reactionary court in Europe. The King of Sardinia was the brother-in-law of Louis Philippe, being married to Marie-Christine, a daughter, like Marie-Amélie, of Ferdinand I., King of the Two Sicilies. "The King," writes Barante to Count Sébastiani, "is surrounded by men who have all the pride of aristocracy and are odious to the people; he is impervious to all advice, he hates business and the smallest cares of government. . . . The ministers are sometimes two months without seeing the King." On the occasion of a marriage of the King's daughter with the King of Hungary, Barante sees the four chamberlains, who came to Turin: Count Borromeo, Count Oppizoni, Marquis d'Adda, Count Greppi. He says of them: "They seem to me much more Italian than Austrian. Without seeking conversation with them, I have not avoided it, and I have found them taking great interest in the affairs of France, with which they connect the future of Italy, reading habitually our papers, and filled, as are all the Milanese, with the memories of the kingdom of Napoleon. However, their talk was very guarded."

Barante was much preoccupied with the preponderance of Austria in Italy and with the influence exercised by the Austrian Government at Turin, at Parma, at Modena. He did not much like his post, but he observed everything with great care. He saw clearly that in Turin there was already in 1831 an Italian sentiment, but it was almost hidden. One day Colobiano, the King's secretary, was talking to him about the pressure of Austria. Colobiano told him that to some demands of the Austrians he had answered: "Do you take us for the porters of Italy? We are ourselves; we have our own interests and our own affairs." Cavour could not have spoken better, but the Court was very Austrian in sentiment, and considered Austria as the defender of conservatism against France, which was a centre of revolution. On the 15th of February Barante does not hesitate to write to Count Sébastiani: "I think the time has come to concentrate troops at the frontier as an indispensable precaution in case of war. The passage of the Alps may depend on it; in case of peace, the influence of France needs this support." He said to M. de la Tour at Turin: "We consider the state of Sardinia an independent state," and objected to an Austrian intervention in Italy; La Tour ended by saying: "Intervention is a question of fact; people intervene when they think it indispensable, when they are strong enough to do so, when they are required to do so. Better a war than a revolution." It is clear that the Austrian Government was pressing Sardinia very hard; the King said that he could dispense with Austria's help, but he was obliged in return to promise that he would make no popular or constitutional concessions.

Barante made a little journey to Milan, and writes:

"Milan offers a striking aspect, and, if I had not gone there, no account would have given me an idea of such a situation. It is the most complete separation that could be imagined. I have seen Paris occupied by foreign troops; it was a striking spectacle; it was less so than what is seen in Milan. It is not only among the lower middle classes that this repugnance is manifested; one could not find in Milan a man whose hatred for Austria has been diminished, whatever may have been the marks of favor or honor conferred upon him or his family. The high aristocracy, which has been humored, which has been decorated with ribbons and chamberlains' coats, is as national in its sentiments as the popular opinion."

In Turin the friends of Austria took advantage of every incident which tended to represent France as being in the hands of the revolutionary party. In February, 1831, the Church of Saint-Germain-l'Auxerrois was attacked by a Parisian mob, and the building in which the Archbishop resided was sacked and destroyed. Barante wrote to Pasquier that such incidents were very detrimental to French policy. He complained of the language in which the French Government had spoken of these incidents. The Minister of Foreign Affairs, in an official despatch addressed to the agents of France, had thrown all the responsibility for the event on the Legitimist party.

"The disorders have all been directed against a clergy which is considered by the people to be an enemy of existing institutions and of the new dynasty, not against religion. . . . No personal outrage has to be deplored. . . . The people has destroyed, it has not plundered; if it has been led away by anger, it has not abandoned itself to any shameful or cruel passion. The Revolution has preserved the character of generosity and humanity which honors it even in the eyes of its enemies. . . . France alone, perhaps, could have given this new example of moderation."

This extraordinary despatch was written, says M. Claude de Barante, the editor of his grandfather's memoirs, by M. Mignet under the inspiration of M. Thiers. Gen. Sébastiani has always been credited with having contrived to make it disappear from the archives of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and of almost all the embassies and legations.

Casimir Perier formed a new cabinet in March, 1831; he represented chiefly the party of order and of resistance to the revolutionary elements. He proclaimed also a pacific policy. War was almost imminent when he took the administration in hand. "He will be eminently pacific," writes Pasquier to Barante on the 15th of March. "Adopt that as your rule, and it must be so, for, I declare to you, with war, everything here will go to the devil!" Casimir Perier crushed the party of disorder in Paris; and the King, in order to avoid a European war, supported the candidacy of Leopold of Saxe-Coburg to the new throne of Belgium. His policy was a mixture of moderation and of strength. He obtained from the great Powers who had proclaimed the neutrality of Belgium the demolition of the fortresses of the north which had been built along our frontier. Dom Miguel in Portugal resisted some just reclamations of France; a French squadron entered the Tagus and Dom Miguel had to submit. The Austrians occupied Bologna; at the request of France they had to evacuate that city.

In Turin, Charles Felix died on the 27th of April, and the Prince of Carignano became King, under the name of Charles Albert. During the restoration, Charles Albert had spent several years in France, in exile; he had served in the French army, and had taken part, in the uniform of a grenadier, at the storming of the Trocadero, during the Spanish expedition. "It is a memory," he said to Barante, presenting his credentials, "which is dear to me." Charles Albert was, at heart, an Italian patriot, but he was condemned by his position to a policy of subserviency to Austria, which was then omnipotent in Italy. He had all the instincts and ambitions of his race, but he was obliged to temporize, and his powers of concealment were so great that his friends as well as his enemies could never quite understand him or fathom his intentions. Public opinion expected much from him, "but," says Barante, "this public opinion is here an occult force. There is no kind of publicity. Even conversations are incredibly prudent. So the King receives little support, little impulse from without. He makes the mistake, a very grave one in my opinion, of maintaining all the etiquette of the Sardinian court. This isolates him. He knows nothing of a familiar life, of easy conversation. . . . He has no relations except with the servants of his court and his ministers."

The whole of this fourth volume of Barante's Memoirs is given up to the affairs of Italy, and it is very interesting to see how, in his post at Turin, in a sphere entirely new to him, Barante rapidly became master of all the details of a very intricate and in many points even mysterious situation. He clearly perceived that the domination of Austria was becoming insupportable to the people, that the temporal power of the Pope had its chief support in the Austrians; he understood that the House of Savoy, though its authority was exercised only in a narrow territory, had a great potential force, and was looked upon by Italian patriots all over the peninsula as the possible saviour and liberator. Count Sébastiani was stricken with an attack of apoplexy, and Casimir Perier assumed for a moment the portfolio

of foreign affairs. The Austrians once more invaded the Pontifical States, under pretext of protecting their possessions in the north of Italy against the revolutionist propaganda. They were occupying Parma and Modena. In his despatch of January 31, 1832, Barante recommended as a counter-demonstration against Austria the occupation of Ancona by French troops. "To see again the French flag in Italy would make a vivid impression." Casimir Perier, who was a man of great energy, adopted the idea, and orders were sent to the French squadron of the Mediterranean. The French troops were landed on the 23d of February, and Ancona was taken by force. This demonstration had great importance. It did not provoke a war between Austria and France, but it showed clearly that France was becoming tired of Austrian preponderance in Italy. The occupation of pontifical provinces and towns on one side by the Austrians, on the other by France, showed that the Papal troops were incapable of defending the Papal dominions. "At the present moment," wrote Barante, "we disturb as little as we can the European equilibrium, for fear of seeing everything fall; but later, if the occasion arises, we may force the Austrians backwards and enlarge the Sardinian states, which, for a hundred and fifty years, has always been the object of a sound policy." Barante's correspondence is truly prophetic, and we find in it the germs of Magenta and Solferino.

Correspondence.

A WARNING FROM RUSSIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The experience of the United States in giving full legal-tender power to both silver and gold, when the silver dollar is worth intrinsically about one-half of its nominal value, with the result of inducing counterfeiters to issue silver dollars at full weight and fineness, and yet making a large profit, is paralleled by the experience of Russia, where an attempt was made by the Imperial Government, in the last century, to establish a bimetallic system of copper and silver, giving full legal-tender power to both metals; silver being at that time the standard of value throughout Europe. Ample details of that disastrous experiment are given by Henri Storch in his 'Cours d'Économie Politique,' published at St. Petersburg in 1815, vol. vi , pp. 91–103.

"As long as the copper money kept its nominal value, the circulation was inundated with counterfeit money made in neighboring countries. According to the Memoirs of Count Münnich, in addition to the four millions of copper money coined in the empire there were also more than six millions of that kind of money imported from abroad."

N. N. T.

Cambridge, April 16, 1894.

FICTION FUNNIER THAN TRUTH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mrs. Alice Morse Earle has produced, under the title of 'The Sabbath in Puritan New England,' a very entertaining volume, made up very largely of authentic materials; so largely, indeed, that the whole book must inevitably pass for authentic with many readers. The book being so nearly and so apparently historical, it seems a duty to challenge as absolutely untrue this scandalous and injurious statement on pages 270 to 271:

"As late as 1825, at the installation of Dr. Leonard Bacon over the First Congregational Church in New Haven, free drinks were furnished at an adjacent bar to all who chose to order them, and were all 'settled for' by the generous and hospitable society."

I pass the incidental error of naming an institution which never existed. "The First Church of Christ" in New Haven never accepted a sectarian title. It is an institution absolutely coeval with the town and holding itself of not less dignity, and superior to the nomenclature of sectaries. A careful exploration of all sources of information within reach completely negatives a reproach which would almost be resented if brought against a candidate for the Legislature in Idaho. A negative, undoubtedly, is hard to prove, but it is less difficult when, as in the present case, a most courteous inquiry for the authority upon which the accusation is based receives no answer whatever. It is undoubtedly true that the council of clerical and lay delegates from churches of the same order, near and distant, was, according to custom, liberally entertained by the society upon whose business they were come, and that, as in the case of any dinner of gentlemen at that time, there was an ample supply, not only of food but of wine. Until, however, some authority is produced for the utterly different and grossly dishonoring statement which I have quoted, it is submitted that the volume containing it had better be looked upon as a means rather of entertainment than of instruction.

There are other passages in the same volume equally unauthentic, and into which the author has apparently been misled by taking for antique some recent imitations of antiquity. There are students of archæology who are capable of being misled by the ingenious device of simply spelling the definite article with a "y"; and if besides that there is now and then an irregular spelling, the genuineness of the document becomes beyond question. The clownish story, at pages 276-8, of the dedication dinner at Lynn could never have deceived an investigator of less generous credulity.

Is it not a pity that a book containing so much that is both entertaining and true should be disfigured, with apparently no regard for historical verity, by an intermixture of what is neither true nor truthful? T. B.

Rochester, April 18, 1894.

WOMEN AND THE JURY-BOX.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The letter of Mr. Stille in the *Nation* of April 12 brings up an argument for the double standard of morals in men and women which is often urged, with a great appearance of justice, namely, that when a married woman introduces her child by adultery into her husband's family, "the wrong done to the husband is immensely greater than that done to the wife" by the husband's adultery. In Anglo-Saxon times the father, by symbolic forms, could acknowledge his natural child, and give him a place and protection within his household; to-day the husband may, and often does, support a separate establishment out of his property (which justly belongs to his lawful family as much as to himself), and thus wrong his legal wife fully as much as she can wrong him, except as to inheritance—and even as to that, as the husband is sole master of the property, under the laws of most States, he can make gifts to his unlawful family during his lifetime amounting to as much as or more than the estate he leaves at death to his lawful wife and her children. Only in the case of entailed property and titles is there any justice whatever in this argument. But even if sound logically, it rests on an outworn financial conception of the family and of the reasons for sexual morality.

These reasons are the same for both sexes—self-respect, and a refined ideal of love and of the self-controlled life, and, perhaps most important from a sociological standpoint, the pernicious effect of social indulgence in either parent upon the offspring. It is because women are becoming aware of the right of every child to be well born that books like Helen Gardiner's and Mme. Sarah Grand's, exaggerated as they may be, have met such a heartfelt response of welcome.

As to the breach-of-promise case, if there had been women on the jury, would Col. Phil Thompson have made his infamous appeal to low masculine prejudices?

Florence Griswold Buckstoff.

Oshkosh, Wisconsin.

GREEN BAY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Prof. Butler of Madison, Wis., only the other day drew my attention to the name "B. Verte" as appearing on the Hennepin map of 1697 (in *Nation, ante*, p. 289) as facsimiled in vol. iv., p. 251, of my "America." I had never noticed it before, and find, by referring to the original map from which the facsimile was made, that the words "B. Verte," "Michigan," "ou Pepin," and some other minor changes are made in old manuscript in the map, which came from Paris to Harvard College Library over fifty years ago; and I should say that the writing had then been on the map a long time. It would have been well if my note to the map had called attention to these additions. As it happens, the "B. Verte" is the only addition in the facsimile that does not carry its own evidence of being done with the pen. Justin Winsor.

CLAYPOLE AND CROMWELL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent S. T. A., quoting from a letter of Benjamin Franklin's, in which Franklin announces the death of George Claypole, and states that he was "a descendant of Oliver Cromwell," asks whether any reader can say if the George Claypole referred to was a descendant of the Protector.

He was not. Mark Noble, author of the great book 'Memoirs of the Protectoral House of Cromwell' (1787), which is, some few errors excepted, final authority on the birth and death records of the Cromwell family, and James Waylen, author of 'The House of Cromwell' (1891), a good book, though badly arranged, enable me to give the facts as follows: Elizabeth Cromwell, the Protector's daughter, born 1629, was married to John Claypole in 1646. Three sons and one daughter were born to them: I. Cromwell Claypole, born about 1647. He died unmarried in 1678. His possessions were left to his cousin, as there was no surviving brother or sister, but only a half-sister, from Claypole. II. Henry, died unmarried. III. Oliver, died in childhood. IV. Martha, died young and unmarried.

It will be seen that this branch of the Protector's family became extinct with the death of Cromwell Claypole in 1678. Waylen says: "True it is that ever and anon persons of the name of Claypoole or Claypole are found cropping up to claim descent through that channel.

But descent from John Claypoole is not enough, since he married a second time. Claypooles inheriting the blood of Cromwell through the Lady Elizabeth are no longer in existence."

Very respectfully, S. H. C.

PITTSBURGH, PA., April 21, 1894.

Notes.

THE title of Mr. Andrew Lang's new book which Longmans, Green & Co. will publish shortly is 'The Cock-Lane Ghost and Common Sense.' In it the author applies to the ghost stories of the past the method which gave value to his study of folk-lore and myth.

Macmillan & Co. have in press 'Architect, Owner, and Builder before the Law,' by T. M. Clark, Fellow of the American Institute of Architects.

Count L. N. Tolstoi, in a recent interview with a Russian journalist, gave some information as to a new book which he has in hand. It will treat of, or at least is based upon, the late Franco-Russian fêtes at Paris and Toulon. Tolstoi will develop in it his well-known views of the incompatibility of Christianity with patriotism, and will point out, not for the first time, how "the peoples, in spite of frontiers and of diversity of manners and intelligence and language, draw towards each other, moved by an instinctive love." Hence his hope, and even his sure belief, in the speedy coming of a new era of peace and love, which is predestined to succeed our age of hatred and war. One cannot help regretting that he has no firmer basis for his visions than is afforded by the hollow-sounding demonstrations at Paris and Toulon.

The thirty-eighth volume of Sidney Lee's 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) carries the great work on from Milman to More. General Monck, Simon of Montfort, Sir Thomas More, and Milton are among the longer articles, the last from the pen of Leslie Stephen, whose literary criticism is incidental and avoids a summing up. To Mr. Stephen's temperate hand fall also Lady Mary Wortley Montagu and Hannah More; the sketch of Tom Moore is by another writer. One has often to admire in this Dictionary the frank dealing allowed, and we may cite an example in the present volume, where, under Lord Houghton (Richard Monckton Milnes), it is faithfully but moderately recorded that "he had many fine tastes and some coarse ones." John Mitchel's pro-slavery career in this country is not blinked, though the unctuousness he gave to his devotion to the peculiar institution goes unexpressed. He paid for it in the sacrifice of two of his sons and the maiming of a third as Confederate soldiers. The Rev. Jonathan Mitchel, a new England worthy, and Gen. Montgomery are the chief American names in this volume.

A recent noteworthy addition to the "Ex-Libris" series, printed at the Chiswick Press, London, for George Bell & Sons, is "The Little-Passion" of Albert Dürer. Of this masterly sequence of thirty-seven woodcuts, 5 inches by 3⅞, executed in the years 1509–1510 in the famous house by the Thiergärtner Thor at Nuremberg, there have been several English editions, but all have been incomplete in some particular. The present edition is printed from stereotypes of the original blocks, the majority of which have, after many vicissitudes, found a resting-place in the British Museum. It repeats, as nearly as possible, Dürer's own edition of 1511, which was dedicated to his friend Pirckheimer, and sold to his fortunate contemporaries for the modest sum of a quarter of a florin. The metrical Latin commentary, written at Dürer's request by a Benedictine monk named Chelidonius, for the edition of 1511, accompanies the cuts here also. The latter, however, tell their story to the eye without need of aid from the letter-press. The volume is preceded by an introduction from Mr. Austin Dobson, and is uniform with another interesting reprint in the same series, Holbein's "Dance of Death," also with an introduction from the same indefatigable pen.

With neither pretence nor attainment of literary skill, Mrs. Ellen M. Firebaugh represents in 'The Physician's Wife' (Philadelphia: F. A. Davis Co.) the life of one in an Illinois village. There the physician himself is habitually addressed by his patients and fellow-citizens as "Doc."; the social atmosphere is leaden and the social scenery gloomy. The practice of medicine under the conditions described is not attractive; the woman who watches and waits as is here told, deserves the sympathy she does not ask for, and, were there any doubt of all this, the forty-odd sketches from life that illustrate the narrative would make it plain.

The persistence of the scarlet-fever cause and its power for evil is not sufficiently recognized. Houses, particularly in cities, once infected, are liable to give the disease to successive tenants, and to be infected by them in turn. Clothing stored for thirty-five years has spread infection at the end of that time. Infection is carried by letters, and it may be borne at least a mile by a steady wind. Since scarlet fever is very dangerous to life, frequently inflicts grave disabilities short of death, and is distinctly an unnecessary disease, it would appear that our health boards might lay more stress upon sanitary education regarding it. As the scourge of childhood particularly, it is brought to mind by the great volume of 'The American Text-Book of Diseases of Children,' edited by Dr. Louis Starr (Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders), whose 1,200 pages are appalling in their display of the pitfalls that beset the beginnings of the path of life. The book is a serious professional, not popular, work, wherein sixty-odd contributors present the current practice of advanced teachers and practitioners.

After Shelley and after Burns the least likely British author to have a French biographer is surely the writer of the Peter Plymley letters, yet M. A. Chevrillon has just published 'Sydney Smith et la renaissance des idées libérales en Angleterre au xix^{e} siècle' (Paris: Hachette; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer). It is true that the book is a study rather of the development of British institutions during the middle of this century than a critical study of Sydney Smith as a man of letters; still, its publication is significant of the awakening interest of the French in other nationalities—an interest which has obviously expanded tenfold in the past twenty years.

The Hubbard Publishing Co., Philadelphia, send us several parts ("portfolios") of 'Picturesque Hawaii,' of which there will be eight in all. Ex-Minister Stevens and Prof. W. B. Oleson of Honolulu are responsible for the text, which makes no literary pretensions, though it has an undisguised political aim, viz., to further annexation. The best feature of this publication is the plates of scenery and population, with portraits of the senior editor, of the late Capt. Wiltse, of the ex-Queen, of President Dole, etc. These should interest anybody.

A firm which contributed from its own list a full tenth of the model library of 5,000 volumes exhibited by the American Library Association at Chicago last summer, might well think it worth while to publish a special catalogue apart from that issued under the auspices of the Bureau of Education. This is what Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have done in their 'Descriptive List, etc.,' a neatly printed pamphlet of 78 pages, in which the 548 titles are classified and supplied with brief critical notices or descriptive annotations which will be helpful to purchasers.

The Academy of Inscriptions and Belles-lettres has just instituted a new publication, entitled "Monuments et Mémoires publiés par l'Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-lettres." It will consist of a series of fascicules of irregular periodicity in which will appear interesting documents and plates, hitherto unpublished, relating to antiquity and the Middle Age. The funds for this publication are supplied, at least in part, by a legacy which the Academy received from the estate of M. Eugène Piot, who died in 1889. This falls in very luckily, as France, since the disappearance of the *Gazette Archéologique*, has been rather behind her neighbors in the development of archæological studies. In the list of contributors to the first number of the "Monuments" the names of MM. Heuzey, Maspero, Héron de Villefosse, and other scholars of high repute are to be noted. The plates accompanying the text are also noteworthy.

An important announcement comes from Germany that after October next the well-known *Philosophische Monatshefte*, now edited by Prof. Natorp of Marburg, will become a quarterly with the title, *Archiv für Systematische Philosophie*. The new *Archiv* and the existing *Archiv für die Geschichte der Philosophie*, edited by Prof. Stein of Berne, will be under one management, and together will be known as *Archiv für Philosophie*. The newly named journal will devote particular attention to the systematic review of new philosophical literature. How well this important work will be done may be judged from the following list of names: Theory of knowledge, Prof. Natorp; metaphysics, Prof. Eucken of Jena; psychology, Prof. Benno Erdmann of Halle; logic, Prof. Riehl of Freiburg i. B.; ethics, Prof. Jodl of Prague; sociology, Prof. Tönnies of Kiel; philosophy of law, Prof. Stammler of Halle; æsthetics, Prof. Lipps of Munich; philosophy of religion, Prof. Baur of Münsingen; pedagogics, Prof. Ziegler of Strassburg.

The *Virginia Magazine of History and Biography* concludes with the April number its first volume, which is provided with an index. The frontispiece shows the war residence of Gen. Lee, now the home of the Virginia Historical Society, whose activity is highly to be commended. The *Magazine* has established itself in the front rank of similar periodicals in this country.

The second number of the Bulletin of the Geographical Club of Philadelphia contains an account of a journey to the Grand Falls of Labrador by Henry G. Bryant. These are situated about two hundred and twenty miles from the mouth of the Grand River on the southern edge of the great central plateau. Few incidents marked the ascent of the river, and the falls were reached on September 2, 1891, a month after the departure from the coast. Accurate measurements were taken showing them to be 316 feet high by 150 broad. The country about was exceedingly desolate, and the explorers sought in vain for "some sign of the presence of bird or animal." Occa-

sionally dwarf firs or stunted pines were to be seen, but the great table-land seemed to be nearly treeless, its scant soil being covered with "caribou moss, Labrador tea plants, blueberry bushes, and thousands of boulders." The travellers were agreeably disappointed in the temperature, which "during the day was found to be delightful—just cool enough to be stimulating; while the average minimum temperature registered during the forty-one nights of the journey was ascertained to be but forty-two degrees Fahrenheit." There are several interesting illustrations and two maps, and in an appendix some of the scientific results of the expedition are given. We may add that Mr. Bryant's narrative of the places passed on August 8 and 9 does not tally exactly either with the map of the river or the table of meteorological notes.

The article on Australia, with which the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for April opens, is by Miss Flora L. Shaw, the special correspondent of the London *Times*. It is chiefly devoted to discussing, in her characteristically clear and incisive way, the fundamental questions of land and labor. The great lesson which the Australian workman has learned from the labor struggle that preceded the financial crisis is the necessity of substituting coöperation for competition under the guidance of their leaders, who now say, "Strikes are useless; we must take up land on our own account and enjoy the fruit of our own labor." The men who have hitherto crowded the labor market and lowered wages by competition with each other, "now propose to coöperate, and, by putting their labor together upon land of their own, look forward to securing for themselves the whole profit of their exertions." The Government, aware that the wealth of the country is in its land, are enabled, by recent acts, to aid actual settlers by money loans secured by mortgages on the land. An interesting account is given of the manner in which the mallee country of Victoria, consisting of some eleven millions of acres, is being rapidly converted into wheat fields. This is done principally by means of the "mallee-roller," which, drawn by twelve or sixteen oxen, rolls down the low-growing scrub and snaps the slight trunks off at the roots, and the "stump-jumping plough," which ploughs without the necessity of removing the stumps from the ground. An encouraging sign, both in the grain country in the south and in the sugar districts of the north, is that the demand is "for the multiplication of small holdings rather than for the maintenance of large estates." Mr. A. S. White describes, mainly by statistics, the situation in Algeria, illustrating his paper by a series of beautiful maps, historical and physical. He emphasizes the fact that, notwithstanding the length of time since the supposed pacification of the country, "a profound gulf separates the natives from the Europeans," and that the former "still hate the European intruder as much as they dare."

We have received a prospectus of the Summer Parliament of Religions to be held for the first time at Long Beach, L. I., by the Long Beach Association, which has acquired the well-known hotel and outlying cottages, and proposes to make a resort "combining many of the best features of Ocean Grove and Chautauqua." The first week, July 8-14, will be one of "literary and musical entertainment."

—The new British quarterly, *Bibliographica* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons), begins bravely, and its first number is most appetizing. In choice of paper, in size and proportion of page, in selection of type, in appropriate initials and tail-pieces, in ink and press-work, the new review is all that a magazine should be that appeals to those who love books as books and for their mechanical merits quite as much as their spiritual virtues. One of the papers is printed in French, namely, that on "La Bibliophilie Moderne," by M. Octave Uzanne, who again sets forth his views on the forthcoming revolution in bookmaking for the little knot of book-lovers. Mr. Andrew Lang contributes a carelessly readable essay on "Names and Notes in Books," written in his characteristic rambling and piquant manner. And, for the rest, the contributions are largely technical, although revealing a higher average of literary merit than merely technical bibliophilistic writing usually has. There are papers on "A Copy of Celsus from the Library of Grolier" (with a reproduction in colors of the cover), on "Christina of Sweden and her Books," on "The Accipies Woodcut," and on "The Books of Hours of Geoffroy Tory" (from the competent pen of Mr. A. W. Pollard). Add to these an acute review of M. Thoinan's recent "Relieurs Français," by Miss S. T. Prideaux—who does not, however, seem to have fallen in with M. Bosquet's adverse criticism of M. Thoinan's labors. As has already been noted, *Bibliographica* is self-limited to three years of life, during which period it will publish papers by Mr. Austin Dobson, Mr. William Morris, Dr. Garnett, M. Béraldi, and Mr. Tedder—all experts in different departments of book-craft.

—Miss Claypole's paper on the "Action of Leucocytes towards Foreign Substances," which received the first prize of the American Microscopical Society for original work in histology, is reprinted in part in the *American Naturalist* for April. The experiments described go to show that the function of the white corpuscles of the blood as devourers of injurious foreign substances, which they eliminate by becoming themselves thrown off from the organism as waste products, has not been exaggerated by Metshnikoff and his adherents. These experiments were made upon healthy animals which were kept in purely normal conditions. The mud-puppy and the hell-bender were the animals chosen, on account of the large size of their white corpuscles; and lamp-black mixed with a solution of gum arabic was introduced into the abdominal cavity. In the mud-puppy, which breathes by gills, the progress of the taking up of the carbon grains by the leucocytes could be watched from day to day by examining with the microscope the blood as it passed through the gill filaments. At the end of about ten days, when the animal was killed and its different organs carefully examined, it was found that no free carbon remained in any part of the body; the only cells which contained carbon were the leucocytes, except in the spleen, where the true splenic cells also contained it. The carbon-laden leucocytes were found in large numbers on the surface of the stomach, the lungs, and the skin, and in the excretory organs, as well as in the blood-vessels. This last result throws light on the vexed problem of what becomes of the white corpuscles which are constantly being poured into the blood from the lymphatics; it would seem to be beyond question that they act as true scavengers, and sacrifice themselves in the interest of the organism as a whole.

—No so intimate a revelation of the inmost soul of Balzac has ever been made as is shown in the letters of his which have been recently appearing in the *Revue de Paris*. They were written to Mme. Hanska, with whom (as hardly needs to be said) he was long in love, and whom, years afterwards, he married. All the letters of his that we have had before, those to his sister and to his friends, are, in comparison with these, perfunctory and distant. In these he simply pours his whole self out—not only his state of soul, which makes a precious "document humain," but also multitudinous details of his daily life and work, which, mingled as they are with many critical appreciations of his own books, combine to make a most valuable historical and literary document also. New light is thrown on several points in Balzac's life which have hitherto been obscure. For instance, it has never been known, until now, under what circumstances he first became acquainted with Mme. Hanska. It has been supposed that they met by chance in Switzerland in the fall of 1833. But now it appears that, at that time, they had been in correspondence for almost two years. Mme. Hanska, a clever and sympathetic young woman, who had been moved to enthusiasm by the 'Scènes de la Vie Privée,' was much disturbed by the turn which the mind of the author took in the 'Peau de Chagrin,' and addressed a letter to him through his publisher, which he received on February 28, 1832. Other letters followed, all with the signature "L'Étrangère," and for a while he was asked merely to acknowledge their receipt by a newspaper advertisement. By January, 1833, the two were in full correspondence. Balzac's first letter shows plainly that the *Étrangère* had made an impression upon his fancy, at the least, and also, probably, upon his feelings. It happened to be a favorable moment—an opportunity to catch his heart on the rebound, perhaps—and in a very brief space of time he was as simply and romantically in love, though he was then thirty-three, as any youngster ever was. The fact of this romantic attachment appears, at least to one critic, to be proof positive that Balzac must no longer be classed, as an artist, among the realists. It is not quite positive proof, and Mr. Frederick Wedmore seems somewhat hasty in his exulting. Writers cannot be so definitely classed and labelled as fossils are in a museum, and, even if they could be, it would seem to be a very odd conclusion to come to, that, because an author preferred a somewhat dry and literal artistic method, he could not in actual life ever have seen visions or dreamed dreams.

—As in the run of kindred works, there is no little surplusage in Mr. Jesse Salisbury's 'Glossary of Words and Phrases used in S. E. Worcestershire.' Still, it will be found to contribute materials not to be overlooked when that shall be done for dialectal English which Dr. Murray and Mr. Bradley are doing for the English of general literature. Interesting are such survivals as those now instanced in *acold*, 'cold,' *agate*, 'going on,' *anant*, 'opposite,' *bottom* (of yarn), *brim*, 'a boar,' *bursten-bellied*, 'ruptured,' *disgest*, 'digest,' *dout* (do out); 'extinguish,' *flannin*, 'flannel,' *gawn*, 'a gallon-measure,' *inchmeal* (like *piecemeal*), *most an end*, 'almost,' *opiniated*, 'opinionated,' *pun*, 'to pound,' *starven*, 'starved,' *stomachful*, 'obstinate,' *tind*, 'to kindle,' *trusten*, 'to trust,' *unked*, 'lonely,' *urchin*, 'a hedgehog,' and *yat*, 'a gate,' with the archaic pronunciations *faut*, 'fault,' and *goold*, 'gold.' Noteworthy, too, are the abstract forms *feelth*, *swelth*, and *warmship*. In *naight* (*ait* or *eyot*), *naint* (aunt), *nalls*,

'belongings,' *noaf*, *noration*, and *nuncle*, the *n* of the indefinite article *an* is prefixed; in *score*, 'core,' and *scrawl*, 'crawl,' as in the Suffolk *snotch*, 'notch,' the initial *s* is unetymological; while, with a letter dropped, *anointed*, becomes *nineted*, 'notoriously bad,' and *elections* becomes *lections*, 'probabilities.' Quaintness is seen in *book of hard names*, 'an account-book,' *oos-bird* (whose bird?), 'an illegitimate child,' *two folks*, 'at variance,' *scowl o' brow*, 'judgment by the eye, not by actual measurement'; heartlessly perverted humor, in saying that a man has *shut his knife*, or *stuck his spoon in the wall*, for 'died'; and what is equally detestable, in *louse-kiver*, 'hat,' 'cap,' and *louse-pasture*, 'scalp.' As in East Anglia, to go no further, so in S. E. Worcestershire, we meet with *to pass the bell for*, 'to toll the passing-bell for,' *skep*, 'a basket,' *tempest*, 'a thunderstorm,' *terrify*, 'to torment,' and *whinnock*, 'to whine.' Among provincialisms current in the same quarter with these, which have been more or less naturalized in the United States, are *biddy*, 'a fowl,' *I'll be darned*, *heft*, 'weight,' *nation*, 'very,' 'very much,' *as odd as Dick's hatband*, *peart*, *get shut of*, *sliver*, *to play tag*, and *yarb*, 'herb.' There remains to mention, in this connexion, but certainly as a mere accidental coincidence, the substantive *nast*, a back formation from *nasty*, like the Scotchy *greed* from *greedy*, Dr. Thomas Fuller's verb *pillor* from *pillory*, our housewives' *jell* from *jelly*, and the new-fangled *burgle*, from *burglar*. The 'Glossary' here noticed is published by T. Salisbury, 48 Fleet Lane, London.

—Wiltshire is not very remote from Worcestershire, but in the glossary of 'Wiltshire Words' just issued by the English Dialect Society (London: Henry Frowde) only one of the peculiar locutions above cited is to be found, viz., *unked*. This word is, perhaps generally, aspirated in Wilts, and gives the editors occasion to remark that the cockney misplacing of *h* is a recent and acquired habit, due to "the spread of education and the increased facilities of communication" with the source of corruption—what in Surrey they call "in the smoke," *i. e.*, London. *Sinful-ordinary* is applied in Wilts to a homely person; a lover goes "a *rumsy-voosing* down the lane to meet his sweetheart" by French appointment; a laborer absents himself from church because he has nothing but his *dishabille*, or working clothes, to wear, whereas, in the more poetic dialect of Surrey, a neglected churchyard is "all in *dishbill*." In Wilts, again, a woman in confinement "bin an' fell about laas' night"; in Surrey, her labor pains are called "increasement"; and in Northumberland (for we have a third glossary from the Dialect Society) the lying-in is called a "groanin" or a "cryin-oot." Surrey should be the native country of Mrs. Malaprop, as appears from Mr. Leveson Gower's amusing instances, "*domesticate* [masticate] his food," "*putrefied* [petrified] with cold," *dispensaria* for dyspepsia, "warming *apparition* [apparatus]." And parallel with these is *comical*, 'capricious,' 'uncertain,' applied to the weather. A *harmless* price between buyer and seller is one fair to both parties. A "*one-eyed* place" is an out-of-the-way, neglected spot. "Too big for my fireplace" is 'beyond my means.' In Surrey, as on the Sea Islands of Carolina and Georgia, to inform is to "make sensible" (*sensibble*, as stressed by the blacks). The Northumberland glossary takes us to Bewick's country, shows us the *hippin-stones* across a stream he was so fond of depicting in his vignettes, and teaches us to pronounce the Eltringham and Ovingham of his Memoirs with a soft *g*, and the Chillingham associated with his masterpiece of the Bull with a hard *g*.

—Of the prospects of the Dialect Dictionary to which we have alluded, something may be learned in the seventeenth report (for 1890-'92) of the Dialect Society prefixed to the 'Northumberland Words.' To begin with the Society itself, it had prepared its euthanasia in 1892, but was convinced that its work was by no means at an end, and concluded to remove its headquarters from Manchester to Oxford, thus bringing it in contact with the great Dictionary of the Philological Society, already well advanced. A natural change of officers makes the Rev. A. L. Mayhew, one of the soundest philologers, honorary secretary and literary director. The Society's library, however, numbering nearly a thousand volumes, remains at Manchester, and the librarian "reports that the volumes have been well used by the readers for the projected English Dialect Dictionary." At the Society's annual meeting on June 12, 1893, the last to be held at Manchester, Mr. Crofton "hoped at Oxford a crown would be put upon their work by the publication of the Dialect Dictionary, which was the principal object in starting the Society, and which was proceeding slowly but satisfactorily." "Few printing clubs," we read, "have received more loyal and generous support," under difficulties and disappointments. In twenty years the Society has spent £4,029 in printing sixty-seven books, two catalogues, and sixteen annual reports, and something more than £1,000 for carriage, postage, and commissions. "The whole of the remaining expenses of management have been covered by an expenditure of about £10 a year." Sales to outsiders have furnished a considerable income.

LANG'S HOMER AND THE EPIC.

Homer and the Epic. By Andrew Lang, M.A. Longmans, Green & Co. 1893.

Mr. Lang's book is a real and important contribution to the Homeric question. The poets, from Goethe to Matthew Arnold, have often already pronounced their verdict in favor of one Homer as against a group or series of casual minstrels; but they have not given a reason for the faith that is in them. Mr. Lang takes the side of the poets, and furnishes them thoroughly with the reasons which they have never condescended to give. He offers here, in fact, the most complete and masterly discussion of the literary evidence in the case that has yet been presented; he does this, moreover, with a thorough understanding of the arguments commonly urged by scholars of the Wolfian school. The outcome of his work, although not decisive for the "unitarians," is an illumination of the whole question, and a satisfactory brushing aside of many cobwebs spun in the brains of learned criticasters. Of these Mr. Lang says, with an irreverence which is partly justified:

> "It has been said that no man can criticise a novel fairly who has read it, not for pleasure, but with the set purpose of reviewing it. Much more is this true in Homeric criticism. They who pry into the inconsistencies of this or that passage, they who actually have a professional motive, and a name among the learned to win by discovering a slip or blunder, are as remote as mortals can be from the position of Homer's original hearers. For them, for warriors, he sang; not for spectacled young German critics on their promotion."

To the ordinary unsuspecting reader the 'Odyssey' is a delightful romance of adventure and fairy legend designed, woven, and completed by the same master mind. Its episodes as well as its continuous narrative, its story of Telemachus, its wheel within wheel of adventure, he finds equally agreeable, consistent, and artistically wrought to a thrilling climax. This was remarked by Grote, and this impression of the reader is rather confirmed by the slight results of the criticism of Kirchoff and of Wilamowitz, who profess to disengage the 'Odyssey' into its elements, and to ascribe it to various authors of various dates. They show you that if you take out the mortar and strike out the joints, the structure falls to pieces. Mr. Lang replies that all large poems, such as 'Paradise Lost' or 'Marmion' or 'Don Juan,' must have mortar and joints. They are not the results, like a lyric poem, of a single breath of inspiration. The vice of the Kirchoff-Wilamowitz criticism of the 'Odyssey' is that it presupposes a more rigid plan, more rigidly carried out, than we find in modern long poems, or even in modern novels. It assumes, too, a modern critical audience, and allows nothing for slight developments and alterations of the plan as it works out in the author's mind. It allows nothing for mortar and fitting and joints. These critics are ready to dislodge and dislocate and transpose large portions of the narrative, and to assume various poets and redactors, because of discrepancies so slight as the following. In book 16, Odysseus plots with Telemachus to remove the armor from the palace hall out of reach of the suitors, but to reserve for their own use two swords, two spears, and two shields of ox-hide to be used when need comes. He expects, also, that the suitors will inquire for the armor, and he places an answer in his son's mouth. As a matter of fact, in the 22d book, this scheme is fully carried out, except that the suitors ask no questions, and that the shields for the use of Odysseus and his son are not reserved. But what are such trifles compared with the real defects of plan which Scott himself confesses and explains in the 'Lady of the Lake'? The German criticism could be used to prove that 'Marmion' was composed of a number of lays by the help of various botchers, imitators, and redactors; moreover, both the critics we have mentioned are quite ready to ascribe to the "botcher" or "redactor" some of the sublimest touches, and to assume that these various hands equally commanded the grand style.

Another canon of this school of criticism is that the recurrence of lines, either identically or with slight modifications, gives ground for suspecting that one of the passages is the original and the other borrowed by a later imitator or botcher. The work of the so-called botcher may be beautiful, may be in the grand style; but, just the same, he is assumed to have stolen from the older master. To this Mr. Lang replies that repetition is a note of all the earlier poetry—of the 'Kalewala,' of the 'Song of Roland,' of the Celtic Sagas. The minstrel in each of these has a formula for all recurring events, as, mooring ships, setting banquets, retiring to bed, etc., which he repeats verbatim; he repeats also textually all messages and speeches. This economy of expression is used by Homer as by his brethren of the craft; it goes so far that he hardly ever uses a fresh mode of stating a fact if he can repeat a formula. It is a habit peculiar to this period in the development of the epic—a habit as restful to the minstrel as it is fascinating to his simple-minded audience.

In matters of this kind, demonstration, as Mr. Lang says, is impossible. The literary

critics of the nicest and surest taste are satisfied of the unity of the 'Odyssey'; certain others, microscopically examining, see in it a patchwork of various hands and dates. With them "organic unity, general harmony of design, leading up to a predetermined conclusion," do not weigh—are apparently not perceived. Such critics could certainly, on their own principles, analyze and resolve 'Ivanhoe' into an earlier "kernel," with later accretions and transformations wrought by various hands, "the group of Rebecca and Isaac of York being interwoven with the older story, as late as the end of the nineteenth century, when the sufferings of the Jews in Russia were notorious." It would not be difficult to try one's fancy and ingenuity in like manner in assigning the 'Paradise Lost' to a great poet with a gift for the sublime and for expressing the charm of "bowery loveliness," redacted by a theologian and a domestic prig.

Such critics assume that the Greek epic is not the creation of a poet, but is an accretion of short preëxisting lays, so loosely thrown together that they can detect the joinings. Against this theory Comparetti, the Italian editor of the 'Kalewala,' declares himself in an opinion which ought to have great force because of his sane literary judgment, his breadth of view, his learning, and his special experience. Comparetti edited the 'Kalewala,' which is known to have been strung together by a "redactor" in precisely the method which the German critics claim for the 'Iliad' and 'Odyssey.' The redactor in this case was Lönnrot, an enthusiastic poet and scholar, who in 1830 set himself to the task of collecting and dovetailing the Finnish songs in the manner which Wolf ascribes to Pisistratus. The result is the 'Kalewala,' a very different congeries from the 'Iliad' or the 'Odyssey.' The details of these differences Mr. Lang sums up; the important distinction between the poems is that emphasized by Comparetti. The 'Kalewala' has no organic unity; although it contains beautiful poetry, it is marked by the ballad style. Comparetti therefore declares that the mark of the 'Iliad' and 'Odyssey' is the fusion of popular tales and poems into a higher unity by the creative action of a master poetic mind. It is not a synthesis—it is a new creation, with a new and loftier style of its own. This is the conclusion of an editor who sums up the result of minute editorial labors, while retaining a sound literary judgment. Let any one glance at the 'Mahâbhârata,' and see what formless chaos, what a wilderness and a jungle, can arise from a nucleus surrounded by an accretion of floating popular poems.

There is no doubt, to the mind of any sensitive literary critic, of the value of this canon of Comparetti's. The 'Odyssey,' on the whole, stands this test admirably. Can the 'Iliad' do the same? There is a great difference between inconsistencies which are invisible to the naked eye and inconsistencies that fly in one's face. Those of the 'Odyssey' are microscopic or imaginary; those of the 'Iliad' strike any reflective reader at once. Mr. Lang himself abandons the small Æneid in the twentieth book, and a portion of the funeral games in the twenty-third; he makes only a half-hearted defence for the adventures of Dolon and Odysseus in the tenth, and he is willing to admit that the books on fighting from the eleventh to the sixteenth "have not improbably suffered somewhat in the course of the ages." He admits the Odyssean style and phrase of the last two books, but finds them so fitted to close the poem that he includes them with the rest in the 'Iliad' as one epic by one hand. He makes a bold and perhaps successful stand for the Embassy and the Speech of Achilles (book ninth), which, in connection with book sixteenth, Grote and Mr. Leaf and the German critics generally find a stumbling-block of the first magnitude. The obduracy of Achilles, his inexorableness, which will not be appeased, which insists upon revenge for a single woman, "though many a man has accepted ransom for his brother or his father slain," Mr. Lang defends as consonant with his character, as necessary to the evolution of the catastrophe. It is his point of honor, which, in fact, brings on his Nemesis. Prof. Jebb, in his recently published lectures, has a strange remark on this behavior of Achilles: "That his feelings are, in themselves, violent and excessive, results from the effort of poetry, in a simple and vigorous age, to express human nature in its highest intensity: Achilles must be peerless in action; he must be unique also in vehemence of emotion—of anger and of love." This seems to us metaphysical and improbable. We should say rather that this trait results from the fidelity of the poet in painting a character which he had carefully observed and fully conceived in his mind. "We must take Achilles," says Mr. Lang, "as we find him—that is, with the passions of an early age. He is not a Christian. He has a touch of the Maori or the Iroquois. He does not hesitate to break the bruised reed." Yet even here Mr. Lang has misgivings about the presence of Phœnix, with his meandering speech. In general, though he makes very good sport of the detailed attempts of scholars to explain the interpolation and precise relations of the books between the first and the sixteenth, he himself fails to establish the organic consistency of this larger portion of the poem. It remains, as Mr. Leaf remarks, an unexampled digression, admirable in many of its details, but marring the unity of the narrative.

As to the personality of Homer, Mr. Lang favors the hypothesis of "one great peerless original poet"; yet he is too good a scholar not to have waverings on this point. He is willing, at times, to concede the 'Odyssey' to another hand, and he admits that a considerable part of the 'Iliad,' as well as the conclusion of the 'Odyssey,' show signs of the intrusion of still other workmanship and other hands. This is a large concession from a "unitarian." We are naturally led to the supposition of a separate poet for the 'Odyssey,' and one for the bulk of the 'Iliad,' plus some others. This is a position different from the heresy of those hewers and hackers who serenely imagine that any "redactor" is capable of deviating into the grand style. Mr. Lang's faith in one "great peerless original poet" seems to us improbable and unwarranted by the facts of history in the epochs which we know. It is very unlikely that an age which produced the 'Iliad' should not have produced more than one remarkable poet. It is not reasonable to imagine for the heroic period and the art of Mycenæ a dark background illuminated by one sole preternatural minstrel. At no period that we know of has genius flowered singly. To confine ourselves to Greece alone, Archilochus is followed within a century by Sappho and Alcæus, Simonides is not badly matched with Pindar, and then we have, in rapid succession, Aeschylus and Sophocles and Euripides. Is it likely that there were no such groups or successions among the minstrels of the heroic period? Suppose the three great dramatic poets of Athens born out of due time and relegated to some century which produced the Vapheio cups or the art of Mycenæ. They would all have written epic poetry—each would have been capable of the grand style; Euripides might at any rate have deviated into it. We might thus provide for our nucleus of the 'Iliad,' for the 'Odyssey,' and for any additions to the 'Iliad' which the popularity of an Achilleid and of the tale of Troy might demand.

Mr. Lang thinks the love of fame and the natural jealousy of the "genus irritabile vatum" would secure the title and the property of each bard against usurpation and confusion. But at this early date, how is the bard, even supposing his poem is written, to protect himself and his property after his death? How is any successor to protect his own individual name and rights—particularly when we reflect that it was the fashion to call upon the minstrel for separate lays or episodes, such as the tale of the wooden horse? Is it probable that a poem written in the eleventh century A. C., and enlarged by a minstrel living within a hundred years of that date—a poem known only from recitation and sometimes recited in portions—could preserve securely the tradition of its joint authorship and the record of the precise original ownership and partitions in the property? The Brahmins could accomplish such a feat of transmission by the continuity of their order, and by the aid of anathemas and religious sanctions; but the so-called Homeridæ and the rhapsodes were more likely to be innovating than conservative, and, indeed, Mr. Lang puts very little faith in the legend of their existence.

Again, as to style. It is quite true that one poetic star differs from another in glory; that we do not easily confound Shakspere with Marlowe, nor the manner of the "Agamemnon" with that of the "Antigone" or the "Medea." Yet there is the "Rhesus," which has been assigned by various critics to Euripides, to Sophocles, or again to an imitator of Sophocles and Æschylus. How easy would it be for a similar mystification to insinuate itself into the loose-jointed 'Iliad,' which does, in fact, present some decided inequalities of style.

In closing, we should remark that although Mr. Lang disclaims the attitude of a philologian or a profound Grecian, yet there are some fields in which he is more at home than the most learned philologists. In questions of folk-lore and early myths and customs, he writes with the familiarity of an expert, and sheds an unexpected light on many controverted points. His introductory chapter on "Homer's place in literature" is a delightful piece of enthusiasm, which makes one ashamed to confess any infidel scruples as to the one supreme and indivisible poet. It warms one's heart, in these utilitarian days, to hear Mr. Lang chant his pæan in praise of Homer. He is a devotee who knows whereof he sings. If any one asks—if some president of one of our universities, for instance, should ask—what is Homer to us that we should read him, or read about him and the obsolete questions of his age? Mr. Lang, replying, takes fearlessly the highest ground, from which it will be an awkward matter to dislodge him. "To forget Homer, to cease to be concerned and even curious about Homer, is to make a fatal step towards a new barbarism. Mankind exists, or should exist, not to live only, but, as Aristotle defines it, to live nobly. A noble and enjoyable life demands an imaginative participation in all that the human race has done, or said, or thought, which is excellent." There is something inspiring in the sound of these words; they ought to be repeated again

and again to that new type of person we are developing in our technical schools—that strange creature which, like the weasel, trains its eye to follow steadily and unweariedly, looking neither to the right nor to the left, the narrow gilded track that leads to wealth, or at any rate to bread and butter.

CAJORI'S HISTORY OF MATHEMATICS.

A History of Mathematics. By Florian Cajori. Macmillan & Co. 1894.

A BRIEF sketch of the course of human activity in a way that has been of more avail than many a more showy trade in moulding men's daily lives and sentiments into what they are to-day, this book will attract the attention of every youthful student of any mathematical science or of engineering. For any man in such a line, who has the ambition to be more than the merest specialist, needs to be familiar with as much of the history of mathematics as can be crammed into one moderate volume. Others, students of humanity, to whom nothing can be more interesting and even entertaining than mathematical history, will find profit in this work unless it is too small for their purposes. We noticed a few years ago a volume on the same subject by Walter W. Rouse Ball, entertaining enough, but not a careful nor competent work. That contained perhaps 900,000 words; and the present compendium has, we estimate, about two-thirds of that number. It is too brief, but economizes space pretty severely.

The mathematics of the nineteenth century was treated by Ball not too seriously. His chapter on the subject, sooth to say, had an old-fashioned English flavor, and about as much thoroughness as one would expect in a collection of Lives of Eccentric Personages. Prof. Cajori, on the other hand, treats recent mathematics worthily, giving to it, as was proper, a quarter of his whole space. In this part at least his work is distinctly of a higher grade than Ball's and has evidently cost him original labor. While excessively condensed, as the fair proportions of his whole history required, it fulfils well enough the needs of students before the fascination of a deeper study of the history of thought has drawn them further into its vortex. We will not say an extraordinary, but a satisfactory, degree of discrimination and accuracy marks this section of the work.

Room could be made for this expanded account of the achievements of this century only by an extra turn somewhere upon the hydraulic press with which the rest has been baled. The part which seems to have been chosen to undergo the extremest compression is the period from Descartes to Euler. One cannot but regret this, for in some respects it is the most important period of all; and no other, certainly, calls more for those elucidations of the historian which show the inexperienced student in what the extraordinary advance of different steps in the progress of thought consisted. The main facts are given by Cajori, and often more correctly than by Ball; but there is no room to suggest reflections, and reflections make the worth of history. Take, for example, that truly gigantic reasoner, Fermat. One of his exploits was a method of ascertaining that value of a variable that renders the value of a given function the greatest or least in that vicinity—a method which, in the opinion of some of the greatest judges, constitutes Fermat the author of the differential calculus. Cajori states the matter so very briefly that the young reader will fail to perceive that the method is almost exactly the same as that pursued in the best modern treatises. The following are the steps of the process: (1) to the variable is given an increment which is assumed to be such that the value of the function before the variable is thus increased can be equated to the value after the increase; (2) by development and transposition, the increment is shown to be a factor of the whole equation; (3) the equation is divided by this increment, which will, in general, leave some parts of it independent of the value of the increment and some parts not so; (4) the increment is put equal to zero, and the value of the variable is then deduced. This is open to the objection that if the increment equals zero, we have no right to divide the equation by it. This objection is flanked in modern works by supposing the increment *is not* zero, but diminishes so as to have zero for its limit.

How very clever Fermat's method was is a thing the beginner needs to have pointed out. It was an idea sufficiently clever to change the whole face of the globe, with our daily mode of living and of philosophizing, to such an extent that the Egyptian under Khufu lived and thought more like a sixteenth-century man than the latter like us. For that all modern science has grown out of the germinal idea of the differential calculus we hold to be most surely true. The ἀγεωμέτρητος, as Plato used, it appears, to call the twaddler in thought, may laugh, not seeing how a prolific conception can assume a guise so humble. He would have a great idea essentially warm, picturesque, colored. He refuses to take seriously a pure intellect, whose forms are as applicable to a game of dominoes as to the struggles of world forces. We instance these as examples of the sort of reflection which, whether finally accepted or rejected, a good history of any wide branch of human thought ought to suggest, if not to discuss.

The above was not Fermat's greatest contribution to the art of reasoning. The greatest was the Fermatian inference, characterized by Prof. Cajori as "an inductive method," but that is quite to miss its essential peculiarity. We find Fermat's not publishing his work ascribed to an "uncommunicative disposition"; but this is thoroughly unjust.

We meet reiterated here for the thousandth time that tasteless objection to Pope's monumental couplet on Newton, to the effect that the important steps of discovery do not take the world by surprise, but were led up to so gradually as to be made almost unawares. It is the worst of German taste to criticise such a couplet because it does not accord with profound historical researches, so long as it expressed what seemed to ninety-nine out of a hundred of Newton's contemporaries to be the truth. Moreover, the theory of intellectual development on which the objection proceeds is in silliest conflict with psychology and with history. No doubt a very large part of the progress of science is accomplished by industrious hammering away at plain jobs. But there is a part which cannot so be accomplished. To say no great strides are ever taken is in flat contradiction to the record. It is by no means as yet proved that even biological evolution always advances by almost imperceptible differences. It is a recognized principle of modern biology that the nature of the history of the evolution of the race may be judged from that of the evolution of the individual. Now, besides the daily growth of individuals, we see them passing through wondrous and sudden transformations. Of course, there is no absolute breach of continuity, but for that no man contends.

Be the matter as it may in the natural world, the development of thought being open to study, from both outside and inside, from the world's history and from the individual's experience, men of sense and observation ought by this time to have reached some settlement of opinion on this point; and so, perhaps, they have. Doubtless there are men who are never surprised, but whether the wise count them among their number is not so clear. At any rate, he who attempts to expound the history of science, and à fortiori the history of mathematics, without recognizing that great, startling, and revolutionary discoveries from time to time get made, will have but a wrenched, unjointed, and enfeebled account of it to offer to his readers. We sometimes hear such facts as the knowledge of the intoxicating property of ether before Morton, of a few observations of spectra before Bunsen and Kirchhoff, and the like, put forward to show that no great discoveries are startling. But these instances, if they prove anything, prove just the reverse. They show that, as Whewell said, observations are nothing to a mind unstored with appropriate ideas, and thus emphasize the importance of originality of mind, of which novelty is the product.

Prof. Cajori furnishes a list of one hundred works on the history of mathematics that will be very welcome. These are the works of which he has made use. We notice he has not had the advantage of using Boncampagni's *Bulletino*, nor the *Bibliotheca Mathematica*, as he would have done if he had worked in New York, where it is for the interest of the public that men devoted to the history of mathematics should be stationed. The Astor Library is particularly rich in this direction. We do not find on his list Weissenborn's book on the introduction of the Arabic numerals by Gerbert (1892). We remark, by the way, that one class of events to which some attention might well have been paid is that of the establishment of the several journals of mathematics.

Prof. Cajori's transliteration of Arabic is irregular and puzzling. Speaking of the celebrated algebra of Muhammed ibn Mūsā, the Khivan, he says: "The name of the author, *Hovarezmi*, has passed into *Algoritmi*, from which comes our modern word *algorithm*." The appellation he refers to as the "name of the author" is *al-Khwarizmy*, meaning 'the native of Chorasmia, or Khiva.' He writes *al-jebr* (algebra) in the form "aldshebr," putting *dsh* for the letter *jīm*; but for the native of Khojend, or the Khojendy, he writes *Al Hogendi*, using a soft *g* for the same purpose; and in writing *Abul Gud* and *Abu Gafar Al Hazin* (where "Gafar" is the Ja'afer so familiar in the Arabian Nights) he makes a hard *g* serve. He also writes *Ulug beg* where the English *g* stands in place of a second and a third letter of the Arabic alphabet (the last being the Persian gāf). This cognomen of Muhammed Tarāghāy is best written Ulugh Beyg. It means "the great lord." We read: "Creditable work was done by *Fahri des Al Karhi*, who lived at the beginning of the eleventh century." Now, there was an Abū Ghālib at that time, who was surnamed Fakhr al mulk, "glory of the realm." After this high personage, the mathematician Abū-Bekr-Muhammed-ibn-alhusain, called Al-Karkhy, named a book 'Al-Fakhry,' where the final *y* is equivalent to our termination *-ian*. It amounted to a dedication. As for Cajori's "*des*," we can see in it nothing but the German genitive article.

But these are trifling faults. What we have

a right to expect in such a handbook is an agreeable narrative of the most material events in the history of mathematics, and this Prof. Cajori incontestably supplies. The book was much wanted.

Religion. By G. de Molinari, correspondant de l'Institut, rédacteur en chef du *Journal des Économistes.* From the second (enlarged) edition. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. 1894.

THE "Philosophy at Home" series, to which this book belongs, appears to be a series without an editor and without any definite sympathies. The volume now in hand gets an amusing interest from its translation by a devout English churchman and by its dedication to a Canon of St. Paul's. It is nothing strange to find a churchman sympathizing with an author who is hot for disestablishment, seeing that state control has been abominable to the High Church party from the Oxford Movement until now, but when a churchman can welcome such a Danaan as M. Molinari bringing gifts to the imperilled church, it would seem that either he must consider the situation desperate, or have faint appreciation of the actual contents of the casket he so gratefully receives.

It is true that M. Molinari affirms the reality of religion, and also its necessity to the social order, while for God and immortality he has words of generous appreciation and belief. But it is also true that the general contents of religious systems, ancient and modern, are for him purely fanciful. Generated by popular needs, they are good for their perennial satisfaction, subject to the law of universal change, which must not be too rigorously abetted by the men of light and leading who understand the hollowness of the given cult and dogma. Now there is something inexpressibly funny in the circumstance of a devout churchman assisting at a function of this sort, in the naïve unconsciousness of incongruity with which he sometimes opposes a clerical dictum to M. Molinari's free-and easy rationalistic vein. This sort of thing reaches its climax where the translator explains in a note that he has taken the liberty of writing M. Molinari's sacred names and pronouns referring to the Deity with capital letters, and hopes that he has not by so doing impaired the scientific character of the author's work.

M. Molinari is a political economist, and he is subject to the temptation proper to the enthusiast in any line of work. The geologist who endeavored to explain the pyramids as geological formations was one of many who believe in their own nostrum as a universal panacea. M. Molinari's temptation is to treat religion as a branch of economics, and to account for its origin and changes mainly by economic forces. His book is not therefore valueless. It will be useful as a corrective of other theories, each insisting too much on a particular cause as if it were exclusive of all others. Economic considerations have, no doubt, played an important part in the development of religion, especially in the earlier stages. But the full-grown phenomenon is exceedingly complex, and is to be accounted for only by the operation of many causes. M. Molinari always has "the good of the consumer" in his eye, and he does not think that a cheap religion implies cheap men. The expensiveness of religion has been, he thinks, one of its greatest evils. The cheapness of Christianity, as compared with paganism, did much to recommend it when it was first on trial. That disestablished religion would be much cheaper, is one of many things that recommend it to him; not one of the least.

Such broad and rapid generalizations as M. Molinari's must have many doubtful features, but his have more because of his confidence, so characteristic of the scientific man, in fields where he is least at home. In treating Judaism and Christianity he continually throws back the developed theory upon the initial stages. Those who know how slightly Satan figures in the Old Testament, and that he is nowhere in it identified with the tempting serpent of Eden, will read M. Molinari's pages on the theology of the Old Testament with blank astonishment, nor with less his fastening on the New Testament of dogmas which had no existence before the eleventh century, when Anselm was their begetter. But if M. Molinari knows little of theology, he knows even less of the sceptical temper of the time, if he imagines it will be seriously affected by his arguments for religion, God, and immortality. He has written for the ignorant and the cowardly, and not for men of honest and athletic minds. His terminology is a shifting scale, and while he opposes those who, denying the reality of religion, would maintain it for its police effect, he is practically one of them, seeing that the religion on which he relies as the sanction of morality is not religion in its reality, but religion in its panoply of dogma and superstition which have no reality. He has much to say about the progress of religion, and yet

"The old religions, it may be, are founded on legends, but new ones can but be founded only on guesses, and legends are at least authenticated by tradition and lapse of time. Moreover, the religions and the sects of the world are to be counted by millions [*sic*]. Would it not be but a meagre progress to invent one more?"

From such arguments for the *status quo* religion has, perhaps, much more to fear than from either the dogmatists or iconoclasts. These frequently are both able and sincere, and M. Molinari's book, though not without some soundness and suggestiveness, is neither able nor sincere. Clericalism — the habit of the priestly politician—he cannot abide, and the practical outcome of his book is clericalism pure and simple.

A Year among the Persians. By Edward G. Browne. Macmillan. 1893.

AFTER Curzon's encyclopædic volumes, one wonders at first at the boldness of a new author who so soon offers us nearly six hundred more pages on the same subject. At the end of fifty of them we are not favorably impressed. The introduction strikes us as unnecessary and rather foolish; then we discover that our writer is not only generally diffuse, but also badly addicted to the particular sin of inexperienced travellers, that of telling us each time he was generous to a beggar, or found it hard to sleep, or had melons for lunch. He also mentions the names of his native acquaintances in such profusion that we are totally unable to remember them apart.

However, in spite of these faults, which, after all, are venial, the book has more value than many a more readable one of its sort. The writer knew Persian before he started on his journey, and he consorted with the natives from the beginning. If some of the conversations he repeats are trivial and wearisome, they show far better the real character of the Persians than can the French speeches of a few partly Europeanized officials at the capital or polite messages through an interpreter, which is all that the ordinary traveller can report in the way of intercourse with the inhabitants of an Eastern country. Mr. Browne was not only interested in the people, but evidently willing to meet them on a footing of equality, with little of the reserve and superiority usually maintained by Europeans in their dealings with Orientals. He even went so far in becoming one of them that he came near growing into a confirmed opium-smoker, and, but for his servant, he might never have mustered the energy to leave the country. To be sure, he put up with much familiarity, not to say impertinence, but what he gained was worth it. His Persian friends seem to have talked truthfully and freely and to have been really attached to him—witness their readiness to lend him money. Their sorrow when he departed appears to have been genuine as well as openly expressed:

"'O thou who art buried in this land, . . . why should you leave this place, since you like it so well?'

"'Because,' I replied, 'I must be back at the University of Cambridge early in the autumn. My leave of absence is nearly at an end, and they have summoned me to return.'

"'I spit on the University of Gímbrij' (so he pronounced it), answered the Sheykh; and to such revilings he continued at intervals to give vent throughout the evening."

The book is of particular value to those who, like the author, are interested in religious questions. He devoted himself especially to the sect of the Babis, with many of whose members he had repeated and earnest theological discussions, and about whom he has written in previous works. The splendid courage with which the disciples of this remarkable movement have undergone the severest persecution, and the purity of life of many of them, fill one with admiration. It is possible that they may play an important part some day, as their numbers are said to be increasing (they have been estimated at one-fifth of the population). Curzon in his book has referred to their remarkable success in converting Jews. They represent a reaction against the degeneracy of Persian Mohammedanism, admitting Mohammed as the Mohammedans do Christ, but claiming that he has been superseded by the latest and greatest prophet. Curiously enough, the great majority of them regard the Bab himself (put to death in 1850) as only a John the Baptist, while they accept as their real lord his disciple Beha, who lives at Acre in Syria. The more metaphysical and mystic parts of the creed are by no means easy to get at or understand, so that the great mass of the believers have little or no idea of them. We also catch a glimpse of the Zoroastrians, a feeble, oppressed remnant clinging to a faith that for centuries was that of the whole country, and we note a curious belief among them that Zoroaster was identical with Abraham.

Although 'A Year among the Persians' is but little concerned with political matters, it contains some conclusions on social and economic questions, besides enabling us to draw more for ourselves. The author judges the natives with less severity than most people do who have seen anything of them, and he brings out a number of their good traits. Certainly all virtue cannot be gone out of a land that produces such men as some of the Babis. He has little sympathy with the schemes for introducing Western civilization into the country:

"I think that the jealousy with which the Persian people are prone to regard these railways, tramways, monopolies, concessions, and companies, of which much has been heard lately, is both natural and reasonable. These

things, so far as they are sources of wealth at all, are so, not to the Persian people, but to the Shah and his ministers on the one hand, and to the European promoters of the scheme on the other. People who reason about them in Europe too often suppose that the interests of the Shah and his subjects are identical, when, in fact, generally they are diametrically opposed."

And again: "It is more irrigation, not railways and factories, that Persia needs to increase her prosperity."

Whatever may or may not be the degeneracy of these people, they are still a highly-gifted race. It is pleasing to learn from a competent judge that, "as far as my experience goes, there is no country where knowledge commands such universal respect as in Persia"; also, "It is the fashion with some scholars to talk as if literary and poetical talent were a thing of the past in Persia. No mistake could possibly be greater. . . . It may confidently be asserted that the present century has presented a group of most distinguished poets, whose works will undoubtedly, when duly transfigured by the touch of antiquity, go to make up 'parcels and portions' of the 'glorious past.'"

If nothing else, these subjects of the Shah are at least eminently quick-witted:

"One is amazed at the ready repartees, brilliant sallies of wit, bon-mots, and 'chaff' which fly about on all sides in a convivial gathering of Persian literary men. . . . Their contempt for the duller Turks is well shown by the following story. 'It is related . . . that once the ass complained to God, saying, "Why hast Thou created me, seeing that Thou hast already created the Turk?" Answer came, "Verily, We have created the Turk in order that the excellency of thine understanding might be apparent."'"

Leadwork, Old and Ornamental, and for the most part English. By W. R. Lethaby. With illustrations. Macmillan & Co. 1893.

It is a little singular that a substance so facile as lead, and so receptive of the refinements of decorative form, should need an advocate in our labor-saving and much decorated day. Yet Viollet-Le-Duc, we believe, had much difficulty in working out the ornamental use of it in France, and Mr. Lethaby's clever book has the air of a special plea. Doubtless its very facility, and the fact that it is such a ready servant of all work, has tended to bring it into contempt, besides that wear quickly robs it of the delicacy of form of which it is peculiarly susceptible. But inasmuch as it is so susceptible, and at once finer and stronger than plaster, freer in working than iron or bronze, and practically imperishable when it is not exposed to wear, one might think that, artists' attention once recalled to it, they would be tempted often to put their own handwork into it. In past times there has been an enormous use of it in every kind of decorative work, from the lucarnes and spires of cathedrals to the equestrian statue of George I. and the figures on Louis XI.'s hatband. England, the great producer of lead, was conspicuous for her use of it, and Mr. Lethaby has accumulated in a small volume a great deal of interesting information about this use. It would be still more interesting but for a resolute division into small categories, that robs the story of some of the attractiveness which is the due of Mr. Lethaby's direct and animated style. The abundant illustrations are serviceable as diagrams, though they often fail to suggest the charm that he finds in the originals.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Addyman, F. T. Agricultural Analysis. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Astor, J. J. A Journey in Other Worlds: A Romance of the Future. Appletons.
Barrett, Frank. Found Guilty. Lovell, Coryell & Co.
Clark, W. L., jr. Hand-Book of Criminal Law. St. Paul: West Publishing Co.
Dumas, A. Chicot the Jester. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Examination Questions in Drawing. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 25 cents.
Francis, H. R. 'Junius' Revealed. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Green, Ralph. Green's Receipt Book. Portsmouth, N. H.: The Author. $1.25.
Harrison, J. E. Greek Vase Paintings. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Century Co. $10.
Iverach, Prof. James. Christianity and Evolution. Whittaker. 75 cents.
Jesse, J. H. Memoirs of King Richard the Third. 2 vols. Francis P. Harper. $2.50.
Kanazin, N. N. The Two-Legged Wolf. Rand, McNally & Co. $1.
Larned, J. N. History for Ready Reference. Vol. I. A to Elba. Springfield, Mass.: C. A. Nichols & Co.
Lytton, Earl of. Lucile. New ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.
Marryat, Florence. How Like a Woman. Lovell, Coryell & Co.
Milman, H. D. Mr. Lake of Chicago. Street & Smith. 50 cents.
Nicolay, J. G., and Hay, John. Abraham Lincoln's Complete Works. 2 vols. Century Co.
Phelps, W. L. Selections from the Poetry and Prose of Thomas Gray. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Reed, J. D. The Muhammadans. 1001—1761. [Epochs of Indian History.] Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Report on Governmental Maps for Use in Schools. Henry Holt & Co. 30 cents.
Steell, Willis. In Seville, and Three Toledan Days. Hillier, Murray & Co.
Stevens, C. E. Sources of the Constitution of the United States. Macmillan. $1.50.
Stockton, Frank R. Ardis Claverden. Scribners. $1.50.
Swinton, William. First Lessons in Our Country's History. Revised ed. American Book Co. 48 cents.
The Annual American Catalogue, 1893. *Publisher's Weekly.*
Tomkinson, Lieut.-Col. William. The Diary of a Cavalry Officer in the Peninsular and Waterloo Campaigns. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Torr, Cecil. Ancient Ships. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Wallace, Prof. William. Hegel's Philosophy of Mind. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Walsh, J. H. Higher Arithmetic. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 75 cents.
Walsh, J. H. Intermediate Arithmetic. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 40 cents.
Ward, Mrs. Humphry. Marcella. 2 vols. Macmillan. $2.
Wenckebach, Prof. Carla. Ausgewählte Meisterwerke des Mittelalters. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.30.
White, Percy. Mr. Bailey-Martin. Lovell, Coryell & Co.

Zimmermann's Botanical Microtechnique.

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Crozier's Dictionary of Botanical Terms.

By A. A. Crozier, Secretary of the American Pomological Society. 8vo, 202 pp. Price $3.00.

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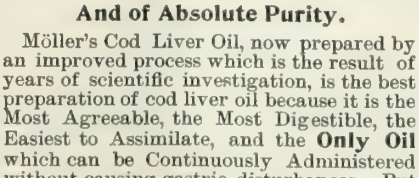

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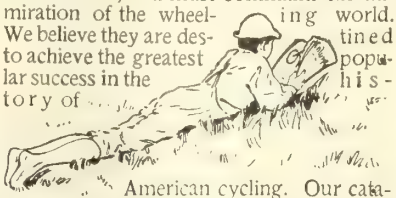

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 3, 1894.

The Week.

SENATOR HOAR has written a—for him—remarkably sensible letter to one Swift, a Massachusetts Coxeyite leader in the march of the "armies" to Washington. This passage in his letter we particularly like:

"The persons who belong to your company or to the company of Mr. Coxey, so far as they are decent and well-intentioned American citizens, are entitled to all the privileges of American citizenship. But I cannot recognize their title to speak for the American people. Five or ten thousand men have no right to dictate to the other 65,000,000, or to dictate to the Government which the other 65,000,000 have established. I hold a commission from the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, as do my colleagues in the Senate and the House of Representatives, and we have the sole title to express the will of the people of Massachusetts in national legislation until, in the exercise of their constitutional rights, they select others to supply our places. We can recognize no master except the Commonwealth itself. Certainly no body of men less than a majority of the entire people can call upon us to act otherwise than in accord with our own judgments."

The only criticism we can make on this is, that it is a pity Senator Hoar did not find out sooner that he acted for a majority of the entire people, and not for 5,000 or 10,000 men. Since 1861, there have been twenty-six changes made in the tariff, all increases. Now nearly every one of these changes was made, not at the request of 65,000,000 people, but of small parties of men, sometimes solitary individuals, sometimes of little delegations representing one industry. Every one of them Senator Hoar approved of, either in the House or Senate, although he knew well at whose instance the tinkering took place. They were also approved of by all the Republican organs.

The talk about further changes and compromises in the tariff bill, particularly in the income-tax clauses, doubtless has some foundation, but mainly foreshadows what will be done in the conference to which the bill will ultimately be sent, and in which the final form will be given it. These minor details do not greatly matter at present. In any conceivable form the bill will have valuable features and be a great improvement over the McKinley bill. It will doubtless be thickly scarred also with weak "concessions" and absurdities. But the passage of even a sadly imperfect bill will have the effect of breaking down the hideous superstition to which the Republican party has enslaved itself, and tried to enslave the country, for the past dozen years. Manufactories will not be hermetically closed. Farmers will continue to cultivate the soil and merchants to buy and sell, and railroads and steamships to go on with the business of transportation. After a brief experience of the fact that the industry of man and the national resources of the country can produce prosperity and happiness independently of the all-wise fiats of a McKinley or a Harrison, it will be possible to discuss questions of taxation and settle its details like rational beings, and not like frightened savages cutting themselves with flints before an ugly idol. It is because tariff-reformers look confidently forward to such a time that they are comparatively indifferent to the imperfections of the bill that will usher it in.

The dignified Senate gave another exhibition of horse-play on Friday, when the two parties took to applying the methods and phraseology of gamblers to each other. It is idle to inquire which side got the best of the ignoble contest, as it was discreditable to both alike. The only conclusion to be drawn from the schoolboy defiances and taunts hurled back and forth between the venerable leaders of debate is, that neither party is ready to go about the work confided to them in a businesslike manner. Not a single paragraph of the tariff bill has yet been brought to a vote, though, under pretence of discussing the first clause, Senator Higgins was allowed on Thursday to work off a long and belated speech on the Hawaiian question. No one called him to order or insisted that he should speak to the question. Such a stultification of itself by a body elected to transact the country's business it would be hard to parallel. Happily, there is a good prospect now that the instinct of self-preservation will do for the Democratic Senators what reason and a sense of duty should have done long ago, and that they will soon flounder out of their slough of despond. Soult used to complain that he could not whip the English, in spite of the efforts of their generals to help him do it, and the Republicans will soon have to admit that they could not beat the tariff bill, even with the aid of the Democratic leaders in the Senate.

That was an excellent protest against the gerrymander which ex-President Harrison made in his speech before the Indiana Republican State Convention on April 25. There ought to be, as he said, "equality of men at the ballot-box, the abolition of all legislation that tends to enhance the power of one man by abstracting from the just power of another," which is the effect of the last redistricting of the State by the Democrats. But it is greatly to be feared that Republican indignation against gerrymandering tactics in Indiana will cool if the party carries the State next fall and gets a chance to pass a redistricting bill of its own. Such has been the experience of the Ohio Republicans. They could not express their horror at the injustice shown by the Democrats when the latter gerrymandered the congressional districts four years ago, but they are now carrying through the Legislature a bill redividing the State into judicial districts, which is so framed as to give their party tremendous advantages. At the last election the Republican vote was only 10 per cent. larger than the Democratic, but under this bill the Democrats could secure only thirteen out of the seventy-seven judges, the counties being so arranged that it would require 31,700 Democratic votes to elect a judge, and only 6,500 Republican.

The Indiana Republicans patriotically denounced the "hauling down the American flag at Hawaii," despite the fact that the good Republican President who "disavowed" the action of his minister in raising it, was present in the convention. Apropos of this, the Honolulu correspondent of the Boston *Transcript* gives the following account of an incident which took place in connection with the hauling down:

"Mr. Blount served one of them just right when the Hawaiian-born white citizen called on him and, after other inappropriate and disrespectful language, said, 'But you have hauled down our flag.'

"'I never have touched your flag; there it is,' pointing to the ensign of Hawaii; 'that is the flag under which you were born; you are an old man now; that is the flag under which you have always lived; and there is the door.'"

We wish to make an appeal for American sympathy for the heroic band of patriots in Hawaii. They need it now far more than they did when the flag which was not theirs was hauled down. Stevens said that incident produced the most intense feeling among them, but when asked to specify manifestations of the feeling, said that it was "intense silence." That silence is broken by our old friend, the Rev. Sereno E. Bishop, who tells a moving tale in last week's *Independent* about the "stormy outlook" before the Oligarchs. They have arranged a nice little constitutional convention, to which eighteen elected delegates will be admitted, over against nineteen of themselves who are to sit without any election. As an added safeguard, no one can vote for delegates, and no delegate can take his seat, unless he makes oath to do whatever the Oligarchs order. This is a fine stroke of constructive statesmanship, but the real difficulties lie elsewhere, the Rev. Sereno tells us. The sugar planters are insisting that there must be no anti-Chinese laws, and "sugar dominates." On the other

hand, all the young imported patriots are insisting that the Chinese must go, and so also are the Portuguese, who naturally hate all foreigners. Then there is a "strong third party" making trouble—the Japanese. They insist upon their right to vote under their treaty, but "their contention is strongly opposed." How to draw up a constitution to suit all these fighting factions is no slight problem, nor is it easy to get such a constitution accepted by popular vote. All this leads the Rev. Sereno to say: "It is easily seen why we have so earnestly desired to become at once a Territory of the United States, which would apparently have obviated the present difficulties."

The Populist Governor of Kansas is now in trouble with "Labor," notwithstanding all his demagogism. There is a bureau of labor statistics, and the commissioner has just issued his annual report. He seems to have regarded it as his duty to be a "calamity shrieker," and he has devoted most of his space to an attempt at showing that farming in Kansas does not pay. The State Federation of Labor is disgusted with his course. It has issued an address "arraigning" Gov. Lewelling for not keeping his promise to appoint as commissioner the "candidate having the preponderance of endorsement of the organized workingmen of the State," and instead turning the bureau over to "a mere political striker"; and condemning this striker for having totally disregarded the true purpose of the bureau, and issued a report which tries to make out that the chief industry is a failure, and which is consequently calculated to repel immigration and discourage the investment of capital in the State. Worst of all, no member of a labor organization has a place in the bureau, and it is "strictly a non-union establishment." For all of which reasons the Federation calls upon workingmen to "do their duty by themselves by endeavoring by their votes and influence to prevent the renomination and election of L. D. Lewelling."

The Governor of Indiana has made a humiliating exhibition of himself. Indiana has laws under which the leaders of the Coxeyites could have been arrested on entering the State, and the band could have been broken up. Yet Gov. Matthews publicly announced that the proper policy was to treat the army "in a manner that will hurry it out of the State as soon as possible," and leave some other State to deal with the gang of loafers and thieves. Naturally enough, the Coxeyites grow more overbearing as the authorities grow more truckling. "General" Aubrey said to an Indianapolis reporter: "We're getting along all right. The people are giving us what we need now, some of them just for the fun of the thing, and by and by they'll give to us because they have to."

The Gospel was preached to the people of Davenport, Ia., on Sunday week by the Rev. A. M. Judy, a Unitarian clergyman, in a way to open the eyes of the careless and indifferent. A division of Coxey's army was approaching the city, and Mr. Judy seems to have considered that the highest obligation of Christianity was the proper treatment of these men. He pointed out that this organization was levying forced tribute on the country, raising means by a menace, and that everybody who contributed to their support was guilty of promoting anarchy. He insisted that whatever help was to be given to them must be given to them as private individuals, when they were ready to break ranks and go to work—not while they remain massed as an army. He denounced Council Bluffs and Des Moines as having been "disloyal to the flag of their country, and so selfishly truculent that they helped on a mischief which they knew to be a mischief," and expressed the hope that the city of Davenport would not "stain her fair name by following in their contemptible footsteps." He enforced the lesson by appealing to the example of Christ, who "did not complacently help on what he believed to be wrong, but hurled at it his terrible anathema." Altogether Mr. Judy gave the timid politicians a good deal to think about.

The Indian Rights Association has addressed a strong protest to the House committee on Indian affairs against the proposal to abolish the office of superintendent of Indian schools, and to cut down the force of inspectors and special agents charged with making reports to the secretary of the interior on the condition of the Indian service. The proposal is understood to have sprung out of Congressman Holman's perverse habit of economizing in the wrong place for the sake of wasting elsewhere. It is peculiarly absurd at the present moment, coming so soon after the President's admirable appointment of a superintendent, Dr. W. N. Hailmann. He has already gone to work with the energy and ability that his former career as an educator gave promise of, and it is the Association's belief that, if he is continued in office, the Indian schools will soon compare favorably with the "best public-school systems of the country." It would certainly be the height of stupidity, if we are to continue the Indian schools at all, to cripple if not destroy their efficiency by taking away their competent superintendent.

It is seriously to be hoped that the bill now before the Senate of the United States "to set apart certain lands, now known as the Pacific Forest Preserve, as a public park, to be known as the Washington National Park," will become a law. It is hardly too much to say that this proposed park will in course of time be even more famous and more frequented as a resort for pleasure and health than those other two great national parks, the Yellowstone and the Yosemite. For the new park will have for its centre of attraction Mt. Tacoma, presenting in its isolated grandeur a more imposing spectacle than any group of Swiss mountains. The Appalachian Club of Boston and the American Geographical Society of New York have promised their coöperation, and the San Francisco Sierra Club has drawn up a memorial in which the attractions of the proposed park are well summed up. The time to save this region in all its beauty and grandeur is now, before vandals and speculators have marred any part of it; for although Mt. Tacoma is only sixty miles away from the cities of Tacoma and Seattle, there are as yet no hotels or roads or even trails, and a trip to the park involves a camping outfit and "roughing it." A proposed new railway will, however, bring the park within two hours' ride of these cities. The proposed park will be about forty miles by thirty-eight, including about a million acres, making it somewhat larger than Rhode Island.

Judge Nott's recent decision that the President may lawfully sign a bill after Congress has adjourned, provided he does so within the ten days allowed him by the Constitution for consideration, has recalled the fact that the original Constitution of New York contained a provision on this subject almost identical with that of the federal Constitution, and that the court of last resort ruled that the Governor could exercise the power after the adjournment of the Legislature. Indeed, it was held in this State that he could give his approval not only within the period of ten days, but up to the end of the term for which the Legislature had been elected. The Buffalo *Courier* finds that bills were thus approved by the executive and became laws several months after adjournment. This license gave the Governor a great power, which was obviously open to abuse, particularly when he was a candidate for reëlection; and the power of approval was, therefore, restricted by one of the constitutional amendments of 1874, which contains the provision that no bill shall become a law after the final adjournment of the Legislature unless approved by the Governor within thirty days after such adjournment.

The *World* is doing almost the most valuable work that any newspaper can

now do for this city in publishing biographies of leading Tammany men. It had one of "Barney" Martin on Sunday, filling a page, which we advise everybody to tear off and stick up in his office or in his workshop. It contains also pictures not only of "Barney," but of persons with whom he is said to have associated at one part or other of his checkered career, such as "Red" Leary, "Billy" Porter, "Jack" Irving, "Red" Kate, "Bill" Vosburgh, "Shang" Draper, and John Walsh, the portraits having come mainly from Superintendent Byrnes's collection. Nothing is so necessary for the city at this crisis as Tammany biographies. Nothing does the gang fear so much, for most of them sprang into public life from the gutter or the jail. Impunity has caused them to throw off restraint. Both Grant and Gilroy, thinking the public did not care, laid aside all disguise, called the riffraff around them, and made judges and commissioners and what not, of the worst of them, and snapped their fingers in the faces of the people. They are beginning to run away now, and, as Dr. Parkhurst has well remarked, the fleeing "wicked make better time when some one is after them." The *World* biographies, if kept up with the fulness, accuracy, and pictorial embellishment displayed in this last one, will develop, we solemnly believe, a "two-forty gait" in the whole crowd.

Gen. Swayne is credited, in an interview in the *Times* on Thursday, with the following remark:

> "Mayor Gilroy is probably as good a man as any one could find in Tammany Hall. He is an honest man personally, and has done as well in the mayoral chair as any man could do who was trying to serve two masters."

We were very sorry to see this, for probably nothing could better promote the rascality and general wickedness from which this city is suffering than a definition of dishonesty which would confine it to the actual stealing of money out of the treasury. It is only in abstaining from simple theft—that is, embezzlement or petty or grand larceny—that Mayor Gilroy can be called "an honest man personally." Is not the abuse of a great trust for the basest purposes one of the lowest forms of dishonesty? What kind of dishonesty is it which is not "personal"? Was not the appointment of a man like Barney Martin to the place of deputy commissioner of public works just as dishonest as to steal Barney's salary and hand it over to him? Was not the appointment of Mike Daly to be commissioner of public works, in all probability with an understanding that he would divide his salary with some one, a fraud on the public treasury? Was not the placing of Martin on the judicial bench a fraud of the grossest kind on the public, and especially the poor of this city? Was not the reward of Scannell, the murderer, with a fire commissionership a swindle on every decent man in the community? Can a man live for years in close intimacy with Croker, knowing his character, knowing the sources of his income, and doing his bidding, and be called "an honest man personally"? Can any man live on the inside of Tammany Hall and form part of its management without daily winking at crimes against God and man of the most shocking character? Nothing does more for our degradation than the readiness of men like Gen. Swayne to condone the lives of these deplorables when they call themselves mayors and commissioners. Politeness towards them is, however, an offence against the State.

Lord Rosebery has again been expressing himself on the Irish question in a way to alarm the anti-Parnellites and to delight the suspicious and implacable Parnellites. To speak of England's being "weary" of the long discussion and struggle, and to hold out a bait to the Liberal Unionists, is to fly in the face of Irish tactics and the policy of Mr. Gladstone. The Irish and Mr. Gladstone have contended that England would have to keep on being wearied with the Irish question until it was settled in a way to still the Irish agitation and obstruction, and have dwelt upon English weariness and rage over the Irish difficulty as the great argument why some comprehensive settlement must speedily be sought. Lord Rosebery appears to be feeling around for some stirring English issue which will give him back the Birmingham Liberals and, if possible, a majority independent of the Irish. That he is counting upon substantial help from the Radicals and Socialists seems clear, but he will find aid from that quarter most illusory. Sir Charles Dilke, in the course of his rather patronizing comments on Lord Rosebery's Government, in the May *North American*, has a truer eye for the probable future when he says: "The Independent Labor party are no doubt destined to weaken the Liberal party at the moment, and to upset it in the long run."

The disestablishment of the Welsh Church has for some time been a fixed article in the Liberal programme, but this did not prevent violent attacks on the bill for that purpose introduced on Thursday by Mr. Asquith. To describe the bill, as it was described by one outraged Tory, as a bill for "the legalization of sacrilege and plunder," speaks more for dread of the bill as the entering wedge of total disestablishment than for its immediate effects. Even the partial "church census" of Wales could not make out that the Established Church had more than a ludicrously small hold on the people of Wales. Mr. Asquith stated the exact truth when he said that the vast majority of Welshmen looked upon the Church of England in Wales as an "aggressive and sectarian power." Its disestablishment is sure to come before long, as its disestablishment in England seems certain to come in the long run, when the new English democracy takes the bit in its teeth; but whether it can pass the Lords in the present Parliament is pretty doubtful.

The worst charge against protectionism is not that it forces people to buy goods which they do not want, and raises prices on the poor, but that, as Burns said of licentiousness, "it hardens a' within, an' petrifies the feelin's." It makes men unscrupulous and audacious, and unblushing in confessions of their helplessness and dependence. We have seen within a few days the readiness of some of the Philadelphian protectionists to make common cause with the silvermen and Populists, in return for help in defeating the Wilson bill; which is probably the lowest depth to which they have yet gone. But another curious illustration of the same thing has just occurred in Paris. The failure of the State to protect authors and painters is a grievance which the manufacturers have never taken up. America is, in fact, the only country which has sought to protect its authors and artists against foreign competition, but it has done so in a very feeble and halting way. In France nothing has been done, and the authors have at last begun to bestir themselves. The Authors' League have just addressed a long letter to the Minister of Public Instruction, setting forth the oppression under which they labor at the hands of publishers, and calling attention to the enormous number of admirable things in literature and in science which have probably been lost to the world for want of a publisher, or the means of doing without a publisher. They therefore ask that the Government shall take sole charge of the *Bulletin de la Bibliographie de la France*, a sort of trade journal containing the publishers' announcements, and shall print and publish it at the public expense, and insert therein gratuitously all announcements of books which the authors may send, and shall require the insertion of its contents, also, in all the journals of the country once a week. The *Temps* suggests that if this gratuitous advertising be furnished to authors, it should also be furnished to vine-growers and all persons doing a poor business, and asks why the authors do not demand the printing and publishing of the works themselves by the Government—which would, in fact, be a very effective mode of protection, provided the proceeds of the sales went to the authors.

THE REPUBLICAN TWEEDLEDUM AND THE DEMOCRATIC TWEEDLEDEE.

THE old-fashioned remedy for abuses or mistakes—turning one party out and putting the other in—is no longer open to the American people. In whatever direction we look, we seem to find both parties advocating or promoting the same things. When we gave the Democrats a majority in Congress, we thought we were securing a considerable reduction of the tariff and putting a stop to silver purchases, and generally to the silver craze. As soon as Congress met, we got for our pains a small reduction of the tariff and a heavy income tax, or, in other words, a continuation of our burdens in a new shape. We thought, too, we had, with the repeal of the Sherman law, got rid of the silver craze, but hardly had this been done when the Republicans, who were supposed to be our main reliance against the craze, revived the agitation for it under the name of a demand for bimetallism. Nothing is more necessary to-day for the revival of our prosperity than the restoration of foreign confidence in our securities, and the return of foreign capital to our shores. Nevertheless, both parties seem to be engaged in a neck-and-neck race to see which shall do most to shake the confidence of the civilized world in the stability of our institutions and the strength of our government.

Nothing crazier or more anarchical has probably ever been produced in a civilized legislature by a responsible, educated man than Senator Lodge's proposal to discriminate against English imports, in order to coerce England into changing the standard of value under which she has done business, and almost carried on the commerce of the globe, for one hundred years. It sounds like some of the decrees of the French Convention directed against "Peett and Cobourg." This might have passed, however, as the trick of a solitary demagogue casting around for votes in troublous times. But the Republican convention of Indiana has actually caught Lodge's idea and improved on it. "We believe," say these sages,

> "in a currency composed of gold, silver, and paper, readily convertible at a fixed standard of value and entirely under national control; and we favor the imposition of increased tariff duties upon the imports from all countries which oppose the coinage of silver upon a basis to be determined by an international congress for such purpose."

This, of course, is pure wind, but abroad it will pass as the well-considered resolve of influential thinkers, because it was preceded by a speech from no less a personage than ex-President Harrison, in which he again calls for an international agreement to assure the "continued equality" of silver with gold, and assures his audience that he sees signs that England and Germany are coming over to his view. No wonder the delegates thought that, under these circumstances, it would be a good thing to apply custom-house pressure to England and all others like-minded. President Harrison boldly avows his continued belief in the anthropomorphic view of silver, for he wants to restore it to "a place of honor among the money metals of the world." Every intelligent man knows what mischief this view has done. It is impossible to make a good standard of value of anything which, besides being used as a measure, has to receive "honor" and "justice" like a sentient being. To have an elderly lawyer who has filled our chief magistracy producing it, of course makes every man all over the globe who knows anything of trade or finance shake in his boots, if he has money invested in America. If the world heard that the worship of the yardstick, as a fetish, was common among American legislators, who would send goods here to be sold by measure?

There is every sign, in fact, that the Republicans are now bent on making friends with the Western and Southern silver-men, in return for support of the tariff, and are ready for any absurdity which may seem necessary for this purpose. They are all for bimetallism, they say, and are as good "friends of silver" as the silver-men themselves. There is a good deal of alarm through the country to-day over the Coxey movement. That movement means that the enemies of property and order are learning to make organized attacks on both, and they will be encouraged by finding that they have to deal with two parties, too eager for their votes to offer them any serious resistance, and with governors and sheriffs who think they have a political future. To those who "view with alarm" this state of things, let us say distinctly that bimetallism differs in no respect as a maker of mischief and a promoter of anarchy from pure silverism or pure greenbackism. Coxeyism has been produced by thirty years of protectionism. The workingmen of America have been taught in eight Presidential canvasses that their wages depended on their vote, that their prosperity depended on legislation to raise prices.

This was bad enough, but what causes these "armies" to march on Washington and seize trains to help them on their way, is the belief that Congress can make money, or, in other words, can give value, for purposes of exchange, to things which have no value, and raise the value of things which have some value. This is what greenbackism and silverism and Populism and Coxeyism mean. These tramps are going to Washington to make Congress issue paper money or silver money. Those who think they can be appeased by offering bimetallism, and demanding European coöperation in making bimetallism, are singularly ignorant of delusions which their own preaching has begotten. The poison which produces all these financial fallacies—the belief that the Government can give value to valueless things, and keep things of small value on an equality with things of large value—is to be found in the bimetallic cup in just as large quantities as in the greenback and silver cup. Once you convince a Coxeyite or a Populist of that, your proposals to wait for foreign coöperation, and your doubts about the effect on foreign exchange of any lowering of our standard, become in his eyes so much vapor. Hardly any of these inland statesmen know anything about foreign exchange, or about the laws which regulate the movements of specie. It is not many years since a man, afterwards a judge of the United States Supreme Court, asked, talking of this very matter, "What have we to do with abroad?" We doubt very much if ex-President Harrison to-day sees, any more than Coxey, what foreigners have to do with our money, and why we should not have truly American money for our own people.

Now that our currency has got firmly into politics, and that the great delusion is spreading over the world that the standard of value can be settled by the popular vote, and 50 per cent. be added to the value of any commodity by international convention, there is only one thing for the friends of civilization to do, and that is to oppose Government meddling with the metallic currency in any shape or form, except to stamp and weigh. We shall probably come to this eventually through great hardships and convulsions. But this is the way in which democracy learns its lessons about nearly everything as well as currency.

WHO IS RESPONSIBLE FOR COXEY?

A CONTROVERSY was sure to arise as to which of the two parties was responsible for the "industrial armies" now in the field, and it has arisen. According to the Republicans, the "armies" are distressed and thoughtful citizens who have been thrown out of work by the Wilson bill, and are coming to Washington to lay before Congress their "views" on the existing financial situation. This way of looking at them has been prominently produced by ex-President Harrison, and was really endorsed by the thirteen Republicans, including Hawley, who voted with the four Populists last week in favor of a motion that a committee of nine be appointed to meet the Coxeyites on their arrival, as a number of citizens in an organized body coming to Washington "for the purpose of personally presenting to Congress their views with respect to pending and prospective measures of legislation." Stronger encouragement to tramps to march on Washington in armies could not be given, short of appropriating money to feed them on the way.

The Democratic view, on the other hand, is that the Coxeyites are bands either of lazy men or of men unavoidably

out of work, who march to Washington because they have been taught by the Republicans that the Government ought to take care of them, and that there can be no prosperity in this country without Government aid. The *Tribune* naturally resents this theory bitterly, and stigmatizes Secretary Morton as a "reckless demagogue" for calling the Coxey army a "large kindergarten class in protection." It says "the Republican party is not responsible for the present outbreak of lawlessness, social restlessness, and socialistic discontent in nearly every State in the Union." Now, if the large-minded editor of that paper would allow it to answer questions, its responses to the following would, we are sure, bring out the truth, and the truth would be as clear a case against the Republican party as was ever laid before a jury:

(1.) Have you not, ever since 1865, been telling the workingmen all over the country that the amount of their wages depended on the result of the Presidential election, and that, in voting for your man, they would be putting money in their pockets?

(2.) Have you not, through every form of human expression, also taught them that it was the most solemn duty of Congress to lay such taxes and to pay such bounties as would enable all sorts of business to make good profits; and have you not represented to them that, in default of such Government aid, no business could prosper; that, in short, the chief function of Government was to enable industrial enterprises to employ plenty of men at good wages?

(3.) Have you not, since the present crisis began, ascribed it wholly to the belief that Congress would modify the McKinley bill, thus making it appear that without the McKinley bill the country would go to the dogs?

(4.) Has not your chief, ex-President Harrison, declared within a few weeks, in one of his thoughtful speeches, that it was the duty of the Government to find work for the unemployed?

(5.) Have you not also maintained for thirty years that when a manufacture did not flourish in America, it was because it did not get enough help from Congress, and have you not always advised the owners of such enterprises to go to Washington, see the committee, and get the prices raised?

Were we allowed to go before a jury in support of these charges, we would produce such overwhelming proof from *Tribune* articles and from Congressional speeches that conviction would be certain. Is it not, therefore, absurd to blame the workingmen or the tramps for going to the place, and to the body, from which only, you have always assured them, comfort and prosperity could come? It must not be forgotten, too, that this tendency of everybody who is "down on his luck" to go to Washington for relief is not an American tendency at all. It never showed itself before the period of high tariffs. From 1789 to 1860 we had a large population of pioneers along our Western border undergoing extraordinary hardships, but the last thing they thought of was asking anything from the Government except a good title to their farms. When they found their toil inadequately requited, or a fit of restlessness came over them, far from marching on Washington, they plunged deeper into the Western wilderness, without other dependence than their rifles and their axes. In truth, the strong individual courage and independence of the American was the most famous trait of the national character. Thirty years of protection have made him an irrational, whimpering nursling of Congress and the Department of the Interior.

We ought not to conclude without reminding our readers that they will find, in nearly all the tariff-reform publications since 1865, warnings of the change which the protective system would work in the popular attitude towards the Government, and of the intensely socialistic tendency of protectionist teachings. What we are now witnessing, both in the Populist movement and in the Coxey marches, has been predicted with more or less clearness in them all. If the people could have listened to the protectionist orators and editors for two generations, and have believed them, without concluding that the Government owed them a living, it would show that the human mind in America had undergone a great change. But it has undergone no change. The protectionist gospel has worked its natural and legitimate results. If it is a true gospel, we ought to be all in Washington to-day loading up the Republicans with our "views."

SOCIALISM AND THE CLERGY.

A GREAT many clergymen have been preaching and writing about socialism of late. This is only natural and indeed commendable. Nothing more clearly marks the pulpit of the day than its humanitarian spirit, and it would be truly strange if all the current talk about a diseased society and social wrongs should not have greatly affected the clergy, in whom sympathy with all forms of suffering and misfortune has become so highly developed. No one can object to their discussing these questions in sermons and magazine articles and books, but we think the public has a right to expect that they observe the fitness of things in such discussion, and not go about it in a way to do more harm than good.

We think one trusty guide for them which the fitness of things suggests, is the rule that they should address themselves to the audience whose ear they have, and not to an audience whose ear they have not. Their customary hearers know how to take them, how to allow for their rhetoric and how to interpret their phraseology; while others may be puzzled or alarmed or inflamed by the same observations that leave their regular congregations indifferent. Now it seems to us of great importance for the Protestant clergy to remember that the classes whose ear they have are the well-to-do classes. They themselves admit and lament that they have lost the ear of the working classes as a whole. On their own showing, therefore, they ought not to take positions and endorse opinions before the rich which, when filtered down second-hand to the poor, shall serve to arouse the anti-social passions of the latter.

To take a specific case, by way of example, what we mean can be understood by turning the pages of the little book called 'The Christian Society,' lately published by the Rev. Prof. George D. Herron. He appears to be a man of most estimable character and intentions, but he has often fallen into the mistake, we think, of forgetting what his real audience is, and what it needs to be told. When he says, for instance, that "civilization has no power within itself to secure justice," that "it is built upon falsehood," has "a more dangerous foundation than dynamite," and "carries in it the elements of anarchy," he ought to see what the effect of such language will be on his immediate hearers, and also what it will be upon those far-away auditors to whom it afterwards goes. What the former will say is: "How earnest Mr. Herron is!" or "He gave us a very eloquent discourse," or "He means well, but he doesn't know what he is talking about." They will express these or similar opinions, and go about their business as before. But when these sentiments of his make their way down to the classes in whom envy and social unrest and wild theorizings about "justice" and the social order are all in a ferment, what will their effect be—what but to confirm them in the view already urged upon them by reckless socialist agitators, and which they will now say is admitted by one of the rich themselves, that the distribution of wealth is all wrong, and that the rich are robbers who come by their wealth dishonestly and should be made to disgorge on the spot?

The mistake is analogous to the one which Messrs. Andrews and Walker are making in their silver propaganda. They think to educate the East, but they are only inflaming the West. The East is a hardened old parishioner of theirs, and has learned to shed their silver gospel as a duck does water. But the West pricks up its ears at the sound of their sensational preaching, and calls out unctuously "Amen!" "Praise the Lord!" at their comforting doctrine.

Then it goes off on its week-day business of buzzing about Washington with schemes of cheap currency, each more preposterous than the last, and all the while points to Brown University and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology as the homes of its "thinkers."

The corresponding error of the socialistic preachers is all the more lamentable inasmuch as they have a real and great opportunity of doing good to their immediate audience, instead of doing harm to their remote audience. If they would address themselves to the task of rebuking the ostentation and barbaric luxury of the class whose ear they have, they would do more towards healing social discontent than all their theorizings about "justice" and "the ethical functions of the State" will ever accomplish. Bishop Potter had some excellent remarks, not long ago, on the evils of the senseless profusion and elaborated elegance of our wealthy classes. These are the things which excite the cupidity of the discontented. They do not want the rich to divide up books and paintings and music with them, but the things they fix an envious eye upon are the fine clothes and the luxurious equipages and the lavish banquets, and all the silly show which wealth can make when it gives its mind to it, as, it must be confessed, it does pretty steadily. But the preachers have access to one hundred such social offenders to one working man they can reach. Let them speak to their audience. Let them insist more than they do upon the duty of simplicity, and the sin of over-elaboration, of life; let them rebuke, by precept and by practice, the profuse display of wealth, and fearlessly declare it, as it is, a crime against the social order, and they will find the strength and time needed to keep up a fight of that kind so great that they will have to leave disquisitions on "justice" and the "scientific basis of society" to other, if less competent, hands.

PAUPER IDLERS.

"THE wealthy idler we already know well," said Victor Hugo in the National Assembly; "you have created a person a hundred times more dangerous both to himself and others—the pauper idler." He was referring to the national workshops established by the provisional government of 1848, and which, he declared, had proved a "fatal experiment." The decrees ordering the opening of these *Ateliers Nationaux* went upon the most approved doctrines of our modern collectivists. The provisional government solemnly announced on February 25, 1848, that it bound itself "to guarantee the existence of the workman by means of work," and "to guarantee work to every citizen." On February 28 it declared, in terms which Bellamy and Coit and Coxey could not improve upon, that "it is time to put an end to the long and iniquitous sufferings of the workers"; that "the question of work is of supreme importance," and that "means must be at once devised to guarantee to the people the legitimate fruits of their toil."

As the surest way to make good all these "guarantees," the national workshops were established. All the conditions were as favorable for the success of the experiment as could be asked. The officials in charge of it were convinced and enthusiastic socialists. The workingmen engaged in it were intoxicated with the hopes of a new era which the new system was to bring about. Yet the whole thing proved a miserable and disastrous failure. An impartial account of this classical experiment in state socialism has great pertinence at this period, when the Fabians are abroad in England and the nationalizers are flourishing like green bay trees in the Old Bay State; and such an account may be found in the essay which Mr. St. Loe Strachey has contributed to the book called 'A Policy of Free Exchange,' which the Appletons have just brought out in this country. From contemporary documents and witnesses he shows in the clearest light what was the method and what were the results of this famous attempt of the State to guarantee work, and gives us a sure indication of the pit into which our latter-day Louis Blancs would cast us if allowed to solve the problem of poverty in their delightfully easy fashion.

The system, as described by Émile Thomas, who was himself president and director of the national workshops, and a firm believer in them until the hard fact made shipwreck of his faith, was for all those who wished to accept the Government's offer of work to make proper declarations before the officials of their *arrondissement*. Thereupon orders of admission to a national workshop were granted them. If they found work in any of them, well and good; if not, well and good also, as thirty sous a day could be drawn while waiting for a vacancy or for some work to turn up that the applicants were able to do. Thirty sous a day, as Mr. Strachey remarks, is not high pay, but it was to be had for doing nothing. And besides, bread was distributed to the families of the workingmen in proportion to the number of children. On these terms the Government found no lack of workingmen. In the Faubourg St. Antoine alone they were enrolled and certificated at the rate of a thousand a day. By the middle of June, 125,000 were enrolled in the whole of Paris, representing, at four to a family, 600,000 persons, or more than half the population of the city. Never was poverty abolished at such a rate.

But profits and industry and self-respect were abolished too, and even at thirty sous a day the Government found that it was paying too dear for the millennium. The correspondent of the London *Economist*, then in Paris, gave an edifying description of the way the thing was working in one typical case. This was the national tailor-shop set up in the Hôtel Clichy, transformed with great propriety from a debtors' prison into this happy home of the State's workingmen. The Government furnished the building rent free, and also provided the capital. It at once placed also an order for twenty-five thousand uniforms for the National Guard, with more for the Garde Mobile and the regular troops in the background. Then inquiry was made of the contractors who had formerly done the work, and it was found that they had been paid eleven francs a uniform. Out of this they had paid rent and interest and made a profit. What a fine thing it would be to give to the tailors the "legitimate fruits of their toil," when the Government would pay the rent and furnish the capital and give to the workingmen all the profits. The thing was entered upon amid enthusiasm on all hands. A "living wage" was paid the men pending the completion of the contract and the division among them of the magnificent profits. But, alas! when the day came for figuring up, it was found that each uniform had cost sixteen francs instead of eleven, and the only problem was how to divide a minus quantity.

The reason is not far to seek. As Senior said, with his eye on this very phenomenon, "All eleemosynary employment, all relief work, all parish work, is in fact nominal." The report of the commission appointed by the French Government to inquire into the operation of the national workshops was explicit on this point. At the very moment of recommending the appropriation of enormous sums to go on with the experiment, it had to admit that "the Revolution, which found the workmen of Paris contented in their proper sphere, has been, by treating them like spoiled children, the cause of that change in their character which makes every one now dread the excesses of which they may be guilty." What those excesses presently ran into every one knows. To avoid bankruptcy the National Assembly was forced to close the workshops. The workmen rose in fierce insurrection, and the blessed socialistic experiment came to a close with the killing of 12,000 men to restore order and sanity.

We know that it is a waste of breath to cite historical experience in the presence of Coxey or the creators of Coxey, Harrison and McKinley, and the thirty years of Republican paternalism. They are making history, not studying it. But Mr. Strachey has done well in giving his story of the way in which so-

cialism cured all the ills of society in the year 1848 in France. He will convert no Coxeyite, but he will lead many to agree with him in his "plain reasons why plain men should not be Socialists. It is not because Socialists are innovators or agitators, or preach things contrary to the Book of Daniel, or are this, that, or the other, but simply and solely because socialism is nonsense."

CASTELAR AND REPUBLICANISM.

THERE is nothing particularly novel about Castelar's recent declaration in favor of continuing the Spanish monarchy as promising the best government for Spain now attainable. This is little more than a reiteration of his purpose to support Sagasta and the Liberal party, made known at the last general election, and is perfectly in line with what he has pretty consistently said ever since 1873. Yet a storm of vituperation has broken on his head for this last utterance. When he has said before that he did not see his way clear to a republic in Spain under existing conditions, he has been forgiven by all but the handful of furious Spanish republicans. But now he has gone further and actually spoken a good word for the monarchy, and instantly the press of this country has let loose on him the epithets of recreant and traitor, while the Radicals of France are black in the face with execrating him.

This outburst is a curious exhibition of what we may call divine-right republicanism. It is, in fact, the superstition of republicanism, comparable to the old superstition of monarchy, which says that it matters not how a government works, how well it secures or how far it is from securing at all the great ends of all government, but insists on one form of it as of itself inherently and necessarily better than all others. This is nothing more nor less than the application to a republic of the doctrine of divine right, and a revival of the intolerance with which kings, ordained of God as they complacently believed, looked upon the beginnings of representative government.

All this strangely omits to inquire what are the actual facts in regard to government and its operations in Spain. When Castelar says he favors a continuation of the monarchy, does he mean absolutism? Nothing of the kind. He means the present representative government of Spain, with universal suffrage, trial by jury, the freedom of the press and of religion. It is hard, in fact, to see what particular blessings a republic would bring to Spain. She already has the political boss in his most offensive development. Mr. Lowell, when minister in Madrid, was struck with the flourishing state of the spoils politician in Spain, and affirmed then that we had nothing to teach the effete monarchy in that particular. The crown is practically shorn of all powers except those of ceremonial. If the monarch does not behave himself, he will be bundled off his throne, as Isabella was in 1868, or have it made so uncomfortable for him that he will gladly resign it, as Amadeus did in 1873. How the country would be better off merely from having a President, it is hard to see. Indeed, those whose memories go back to the succession of factional and helpless presidents of the short-lived republic of 1873 will be slow to say that there was any saving grace in those officers as such. The United States gave a speedy and effusive recognition to the new sister republic, but she was a very weak sister, who needed something more than recognition to save her, and soon expired of inanition.

As far as Castelar's personality is concerned, there is undoubtedly a peculiar significance in the chilling of a republican enthusiasm so ardent as his was for many years. Upon no prominent European, probably, did the movement of 1848 make a deeper impression, and in no one's breast did it awaken brighter hopes and inspire sterner resolution. With incessant and daring activity and self-sacrifice he labored with voice and pen to apply to Spain that panacea for all the ills of government which he, and the other young patriots of the time in Germany and France and Italy, thought they had surely found in the idea of a republic. He had the exuberance of a meridional nature, and his oratory and writing always seemed more fitted to the windy plains of Troy than to the modern world. Yet he was a brilliant figure in all those years, and of late has come to be the type and chief representative of those in monarchical Europe to whom the republicans of America, North and South, could look as proof that the republican tradition was not dead in the Old World. His defection, as they now esteem it, is naturally something of a blow.

Yet there can be no doubt that his personal experience is typical, not only of the cooling which in like manner has come over many of his contemporaries, but also of the general scepticism, now pretty widespread in the world, in regard to the necessary and automatic virtues and blessings of a republican form of government. A great many things have happened since 1848 to make the old, simple faith hard if not impossible. The terrible failure of the South American republics, with the farcical Brazilian republic coming last of all to point the moral anew, has done a good deal in this part of the world to dissipate the fond theory that social virtue, regard for law, official integrity, are the product of particular institutions of government, instead of being the inheritance of race which shows itself under any institution of government. In short, the republican panacea has gone the way of other panaceas. Emerson says that every new theory appears to the eager young soul like a thunderbolt which will pierce the earth to its centre; but he soon discovers that it has made scarcely a scratch on the surface. It is a tough old world, and human society is obdurate material, which goes on much the same in spite of the attempts of the theorists to twist it this way or that, or to remodel it by giving it a new name.

JAPANESE POLITICS.—I.

TOKYO, April 2, 1894.

THE dominant note of Japanese politics is the popular feeling of hostility toward the present Sat-Cho government, or, as it is often called, clan government. Of this feeling of hostility, of its widespread character, of its essential justice, there can be no doubt whatever. Yet so curiously are the elements mixed in politics that just at the present moment the more judicious portion of the Japanese hesitate to oppose the Government because of the ungovernable and unreasonable temper of a large part of the Opposition, and also of the common belief that the most violent of the popular parties (the Progressionists, or *Kaishinto*) is interested less in overthrowing the power of the Sat-Cho than in securing the power for their own purposes. As the feud between the *Kaishinto* and the other popular party (the Radicals, or *Jiyuto*) has not been healed, but has grown more bitter than ever, the sober part of the public are all the more indisposed to turn against the present Government.

When Parliament opened in November, it was certain that there would be an interesting session. Hoshi Toru, President of the lower House, one of the most powerful men in the Radical party, and one of the political leaders of Japan, had succeeded in rousing the bitter enmity of the *Kaishinto*. In a series of campaign speeches he had denounced the motives and the policy of the Progressionists. The newspapers of the latter party retorted, in answer to his attacks, that he had been bribed to give his support to the Government, and that he had become a mere tool of the Sat-Cho. He promptly took the matter to the courts, and, after a long trial, he completely won his case against the newspapers. His resolute course of action and his success did not diminish the determination of his enemies to crush him if possible. As soon as Parliament met, the leaders of the *Kaishinto* very cleverly secured a member of a neutral party to bring various unsubstantial charges against Hoshi Toru, and pressure was brought upon him to resign the chair. But this he stoutly refused to do, not only on the ground that the charges were false, but that he held his position by appointment of the Emperor. Various tactics were tried to force him to resign, and finally he was handed over to a disciplinary committee, who suspended him for a week, not on the original charge of bribery, about which they were discreetly silent, but on the extraordinary charge that he had disobeyed the evident wishes of the House. At the end of the week's suspension he stubbornly resumed the chair, but this fairly infuriated his enemies, who now, having a sufficient majority, with little ceremony carried a vote of expulsion. In this disgraceful fashion Hoshi Toru, who but a year before had been generally praised for his impartial decisions and excellent discipline, was forced to leave the House.

Two motives which had great influence on the subsequent action of the House underlay these arbitrary proceedings against its former President. The first of these motives has already been hinted at, and concerns the feud between the *Jiyuto* and *Kaishinto*. Hoshi Toru, as leader of the former party in the House, was the first party man in Japan to announce that the time for mere obstruction to the Government had gone by, and that the Radicals must adopt a constructive programme, either with or without the consent of the Government. This announcement was particularly offensive to Count Okuma, the leader of the *Kaishinto*, because he would no longer be able to rely upon the Radicals to oppose the Government. With a little political manœuvring the *Kaishinto* managed to join their forces with their former enemies, the National Unionists (*Kokumin Kyokai*), an alliance on a par with that of Blifil and Black George, as the *Kaishinto* stand in favor of the extremest form of party government, while the *Kokumin Kyokai* are in principle opposed to government by party and were supporters of the autocratic military cabinet of Count Matsukata. The *Jiyuto* was now dubbed the "official party" in order to discredit it before the country—a title wholly unmerited, and coming with peculiarly bad grace from the National Unionists.

Having accomplished this alliance, the *Kaishinto* found it necessary to make a strong attack upon the Government. For some years there had been a number of reactionaries who, believing that the Japanese were not ready to enter into competition with foreigners, were opposed to the opening up of the country to foreigners in the event of treaty revision, and had inveighed against the Government for not constructing the present treaties more strictly against foreigners. These agitators had a certain following in the country districts, and the *Kaishinto* and *Kokumin Kyokai* united with these minor parties in a grand movement against the Government. A long address to the throne was drawn up in which the various wrongs under which Japan had suffered from foreigners were mentioned. It specified that foreigners had purchased land outside of treaty ports, in the name of Japanese, for the purpose of residence and missions; that passports to travel in the interior, though by treaty granted only for health or scientific research, were freely given to applicants for purposes of pleasure or religious propagandism. It also specified that some foreigners still more boldly carried on business outside of treaty ports with the aid of recreant Japanese. These and other infringements of the treaties were cited as proofs that the Government had betrayed the true interests of the country.

Count Ito, the Premier, met the House more than half way, and warned it that this address would not be suffered to pass. He declared justly that such an address would irretrievably prejudice the cause of treaty revision. The treaties, he confessed, were obsolete, and not at all suitable to the present circumstances of the country, and a policy of mutual give-and-take between the Japanese and foreigners had been established, from which it would be impossible to recede until the treaties had been revised. Above all, the belief that foreign nations could be coerced into making new treaties by strictly enforcing the old ones, he emphatically declared, was preposterous, and the cabinet could not allow the address to pass. The Premier's warning, however, was not heeded. The House proceeded to debate the address, and as the only party opposed to it were the Radicals, who were now in a minority against the combined parties, it was clear that the address would pass. Before this consummation was reached, the Government prorogued the Parliament, and finally, on the 31st of December, dissolved it.

It will be seen from what has been said that the Hoshi incident, the alliance of the *Kaishinto* and *Kokumin Kyokai* against the *Jiyuto*, and the strict treaty enforcement measures, were all parts of a single programme. We may further say that they had but one purpose, and were, in all essential matters, directed by a single mind. This purpose was to embarrass the present Government in its most vital part (*i. e.*, foreign relations), and the arch director of the movement was Count Okuma, the leader of the *Kaishinto*. How all this bears on what has been called the revival of the anti-foreign feeling in Japan, and what real foundation there is for this feeling, will have to be left to another letter. G. D.

GREECE REVISITED.

ATHENS, April 9, 1894.

NINE years ago the only lines of railway in operation in Greece were those between Athens and the Piræus, and between Athens and the Corinthian isthmus—a little more than sixty miles in all. There may have been some lines in use in Thessaly, but of this I am not sure, never having had occasion to use them. The new Baedeker of this year informs us that Greece now possesses over 560 miles, and the result is that places which formerly were accessible only to the most ardent Philhellenes are now visited as easily and frequently as any of the towns between Rome and Florence. Olympia, which used to be a real pilgrimage, is now a pleasant excursion, and it is difficult to realize, as one sits in the comfortable little restaurant there, that only a few years ago the barest necessities of life were not to be had. From Patras it used to be a two days' journey; and one had the choice of driving over the hot, low plain, and sleeping at night either in his carriage or in a wretched little khan at the roadside, or taking the steamer to Zante, and crossing thence by boat to Katakolon, the port of Pyrgos, proceeding by carriage from that town. Those who tried either route have good reason to remember it. The only accommodation which Olympia itself had to offer was in the poor village of Drouva, perched upon the top of a neighboring hill, so steep that we left our house in the morning to return only at night: one climb a day was sufficient. The sum of luxury which Drouva was able to offer was in the shape of boards laid across two wooden horses and covered with a rough mattress by way of a bed. On one visit a friend and myself divided a hen between us as our only meat for three days; and we were more fortunate than a Frenchman whom we met returning, who had lived upon black olives, bread, and cigarettes for a week.

This is what one used to have to do in order to see the Hermes, and there certainly was a satisfaction in having thus earned the right. And how did one see him after this pilgrimage? For several years after its discovery, the statue stood in the wooden shed erected by the Germans as a storehouse for the sculptures which were brought to light; and here it was crucified, leaning against a stout post with a crosspiece on top, a rope being passed around the breast of the figure to fasten it to its support. The knees rested on a piece of bagging, the only thing which protected it from the dampness of the ground on which it stood. Later the statue was moved into a stone house near by, where it was set up in the same manner. Now this is all a matter of the legendary past. One goes by railway from Patras to within a few rods of the temple of Zeus in less than six hours. The trains are timed most conveniently, so that the visitor may arrive either in the morning or at noon, as he pleases, and he may leave either early in the afternoon or towards sunset. Whichever he does, he will probably find it convenient to spend one night at Pyrgos, and there he will now find a comfortable hotel with a really good table. (Old travellers will punctuate this last statement with a double exclamation-point, but it is true.) At Olympia itself the railway company has just finished a large hotel, which has every external indication of being first-class. I grieve to say that we had no opportunity of testing its merits more closely, because, owing to some difficulty in arranging about its lease, it is not yet opened, and the traveller of next season is likely to be the first to enjoy its benefits. In the meantime there are two more modest hostelries near the station, in one of which we had an excellent table-d'hôte luncheon, actually served in courses! I thought of little Drouva and the hen as I was eating this, and, looking up there, the poor little place seemed more forlorn than ever. Most travellers of nowadays are not even aware of its existence.

But to turn to what one goes to Olympia to see: the excavations still remain as they were when the Germans left them in 1881. The Greeks have been busy in other sites since then, and no new work has been undertaken here. Grass has been allowed to grow on the excavated soil, so that at this time of the year the Altis is covered with a rich green turf, much more agreeable to the eye than the old dirt, under the sun which even in April strikes hot upon the little valley. It is a pleasure to notice the success with which the growth of underbrush has been checked, and in general the care which is taken of the place. Here and there a young pine has been allowed to grow, and in a few years there will be plenty of shady spots among the ruins. Perhaps the time will come when the Government or some patriotic individual will set up a section of the temple, even two or three columns with the epistyle blocks upon them, in order to give some idea of the scale of height. That is the great desideratum at present. One sees clearly the plan of every building, and the relation of one to another, but it is all so flat that none but experts can restore the elevation in imagination. Even if you know the facts and figures, it is difficult to picture their effect, and one portion of the central temple restored to its original height would at once give scale to the whole. It is merely a question of effort, and of expense which could not be great, as the original materials are there in abundance.

The museum is an old story to many, but to me it was new, and, beyond the fact of its existence, a bitter disappointment. Those who designed it had an opportunity the rarest of all in museum construction, that of making the most perfect setting for a definite collection of sculptures—a collection which, from its nature, was not likely to grow, which was in itself so small that the position and surroundings of every piece might well have been considered, and which included the two most complete pedimental groups and the most beautiful single statue which our generation has inherited from Greece. Certainly few architects have had such inspiring problems set before them, and we might well have expected results in proportion. But it seems as though

every æsthetic principle of lighting or arrangement with a view to the best effect had been wilfully disregarded. The principal room in the building is the hall, in which the groups from the two pediments of the temple of Zeus are set up. The length of this hall is that of the pediments, so that each group occupies a side wall. So far, so good. The figures, however, are placed upon a shelf or pedestal along the wall, not more than three feet high, so that they are seen at a level, not, as they should be, from below. Indeed, one looks down upon the reclining figures at the ends, and thus we lose entirely the effect of the modelling of the under surfaces, which was most carefully considered by the sculptor, and the only part of his work which he thought would be seen. The reason given for placing the groups thus low would probably be that they can be best studied there, and that if they were placed high, details would be lost; but a slight elevation would have sufficed. Every one who has had experience in the arrangement of sculptures knows that, in compositions of this kind, if the eye be forced to look upward, the amount of the height is of very little consequence. Had the pedestals of these groups been five feet high, so as to bring the plinths of the figures at the average height of the eye, the effect would have been ten times as impressive as it is, and the statues would have been just as accessible for purposes of investigation as they are at present. Possibly, however, the reason for keeping them down is to accommodate the narrow gallery that surrounds the hall above the groups, the object of which is difficult to conceive. There is nothing up there, and certainly the view of the sculptures from that point cannot be either interesting or important. As to the metopes, they are huddled together on the two end walls of this hall so closely that a layman might suppose them to be all fragments of one composition. The lighting of this room is quite as faulty as the arrangement. With unlimited opportunities for roof-lighting, whether vertical or diagonal, in fact with every facility for having his light just where he wished it, the architect has run a line of small windows along the top of each side wall, so that they are directly over the heads of one group and diagonally opposite those of the other. The sculptures have, therefore, neither the light which they originally had upon the temple, nor the best concentrated light which a museum might have given them.

All this might have been pardoned had the Hermes been worthily placed. As one thinks what might have been done with this statue, there comes the vision of the Venus of Melos in her beautiful setting—the long vista of the approach, the rich background of curtains, the carefully considered lighting, by which no detail of the modelling is lost, no shadow made too prominent. How much more wonderful than she would the Hermes appear if he were set in the same surroundings. Yet here, with an excellent opportunity for one, there is no vista: the statue stands—alone, to be sure—in a room opening from the hall just described, and at right angles with it. Consequently the first view one has of the figure is of its profile, sharply silhouetted against a strong side light, which comes from three large windows directly opposite the visitor as he enters. He must get under these before he can really see the statue, and thus the effect of a first impression is lost altogether. And the same perversity which placed the temple-sculptures too low placed this too high. If there is in the world one statue which invites the closest possible inspection, it is the Hermes, every modulation in the surface of which is like a line of poetry; yet it has been placed nearly if not quite five feet above the floor. The excuse this time is that the pedestal on which it stands is a restoration of the original one; but this, in view of the sacrifice involved in the effect, is by no means valid. The same people who made the original pedestal placed the statue in a niche on the side wall of a long low temple, where the only natural light it could have had came through an open door, and we have plenty of other evidence that the Greeks were more indifferent about the placing and lighting of their statues than we are. Be that as it may, the Hermes now stands upon its high pedestal in a room that is nearly square, the three windows of which I have spoken being so low that the strongest light is thrown upon the lower part of the figure, and strikes upward into the face instead of coming down upon it. The result anybody can judge who has the opportunity of comparing a photograph of the statue as it now stands with one of the old ones taken for the German publications. It is now impossible to appreciate the exquisiteness of the modelling of either face or body. The statue cannot be turned, because, instead of the old cross, its present support is an iron bar—to accommodate which a hole has been cut into the back, between the shoulders—and this bar runs horizontally to the wall behind the statue, where it is firmly braced on both sides. The figure is, therefore, really suspended, although it appears to be resting on its feet, the missing parts of the legs being supplied from a German pattern, in plaster.

Even its cruel treatment cannot rob the figure of the wonderful, pathetic quality of its beauty, or make it any less the statue of statues; but those who saw it as it used to stand in the old house, deprived of every aid and artifice for the display of its perfection, will wonder what is missing from it now that its position seems to have been so much improved. Those who set it up could not have appreciated its finest qualities, else they would not have come so near to obliterating them. It is something of a consolation to turn from the Hermes to the Niké of Paionios, which is the only statue in the Museum placed with good effect. She stands at one end of the hall in which are the pediment sculptures, her pedestal being composed of several blocks of the three-cornered shaft on which she originally stood, sufficiently high to bring out the lightness and grace of the figure, and to show how much finer the statue itself is than any cast of it.

If in the Museum of Olympia there is surely cause for grumbling, the fault is not with the Greeks. The building was the gift of a Greek gentleman to his country, but the plans and the arrangement are the work of "strangers in the land," and strangers from whom we had reason to expect better things. Let us be thankful at least that, after years of delay, the sculptures are now safely and permanently housed, and so return in good spirits to our comfortable train, which is waiting at the station. Here, where a few years ago a solitary carriage would have been standing in the shade of a tree, there is now all the bustle and paraphernalia of a railway—guards, porters, onlookers, bells, and horns. As the train moves out, the shrill whistle of departure awakens the unaccustomed echoes of the Alpheios valley. Olympia has slept its sleep, and henceforth its repose is to be disturbed daily, save in the hot months, when there is fever in the plain.

EDWARD ROBINSON.

A WHITE CITY IN THE MEDITERRANEAN.

ALGIERS, March 24, 1894.

ALGIERS is a city in transition, perhaps in its most interesting phase. Enough has been done in the sixty-odd years of the French occupation to give it in part a thoroughly European appearance, yet enough has been left absolutely intact to make it, in some respects, almost as distinctly Oriental as it could ever have been in the time of its misgovernment by the Deys. Between the two extremes the line is, of course, not tightly drawn, and there are stages in which the old and the new exist side by side; some amalgamation, besides, of the two modes of life has been naturally inevitable, but there is much less of it than would at first be imagined.

In reality, there is here a French town and an Arab town, and an admixture of both. The French element as a whole plainly predominates. The original limits of the old Arab town not only have been greatly restricted by its absorption into the French city, but new quarters have sprung up which are wholly French. In its present condition the whole lower part of the city along the Mediterranean is European; and outside the fortifications which originally surrounded it, the town has been extended in compactly built streets into the new suburb of Bab el-Oued on the one side and Mustapha on the other. The Arab city, driven back from the water, rises directly in the centre, behind the modern town.

Viewed from the middle of new Algiers, it is difficult to realize, considering the part of the world in which it is, that sixty years covers the entire period of the French possession. From the Place Bresson, for instance, one side of which is formed by the Municipal Theatre, extend, on either hand, solidly built streets of stone and stucco with smooth wooden pavements and abundant gaslights. Except for the unmistakable garb of a part of the passing people, there is nothing whatsoever that locates the scene in the East. The same is true of the adjoining streets and particularly of the Boulevard de la République along the sea. This superb street, constructed in the sixties with £300,000 of English capital, gives Algiers architecturally as fine a water-front as any along the Mediterranean. To counteract the steep slope of the land, a massive wall, honeycombed with storage-vaults and warehouses, extends some forty feet up above the quays, which are approached by zigzag driveways and flights of steps. The street at the top is built up only on the further side away from the sea, over which there is an uninterrupted view out across the harbor and the long sweep of the bay to the mountains of Kabylia beyond. If I have said that there is little of the Orient in it, I must, nevertheless, except the outer side, which, on sunshiny days, is thronged with a nondescript crowd of Arabs and negroes, people of infinite leisure, who lean over the stone balustrade idly watching the bustle of the seaport below. Curiously enough, it is not this street, with its Parisian buildings, its fresh air, and its charming prospect, which is chosen as the fashionable promenade of Algiers, although in it are the best of the hotels and the largest cafés. The honor of popularity is accorded to the dark little Rue Bab-Azoun, a narrow street, arcaded on both sides, where are situated the principal shops. Here, and not where they might be seen to better advantage, the ladies of the colony and the officers of the garrison exhibit their toilets to the jostling crowd, which is almost wholly European.

The Place du Gouvernement at one end of this busy thoroughfare illustrates much more accurately the real character of new Algiers as only, after all, a graft of Western civilization. It is here that the life of the West and the East most intimately meet each other to the exclusion of neither. The Place du Gouvernement is really an epitome of Algeria as a French colony. In its centre stands a bronze equestrian statue of the Duc d'Orléans, once Governor of Algeria, made of cannon captured at the conquest. In front of it a full military band plays twice a week to a crowd more composite than even New York could turn out to a public concert in Central Park. At the back are the dazzling white walls and dome of the mosque Djamäa el-Djedid. At the sides are European cafés on the one hand, and, under a most stately group of date palms, on the other, the Arab flower market. Visible through a narrow street in front, out of which comes pouring an unceasing stream of Moors, Arabs, Kabyles, Jews, and all the other elements, Oriental and European, that make up this heterogeneous population, is the Catholic cathedral, once a Mohammedan mosque, and back of it, tier upon tier, pure white in the sunshine, rise the flat-roofed houses of the native town in a wedge until they too are overtopped by the Casbah, the dismantled stronghold of the Deys, whose harem has now been made by the conquerors into barracks and its mosque into a Christian church. The Place is the centre of the life of the town, native and European alike, and the people hurrying or lounging across it are as often one as the other. From the square minaret of the mosque the mueddin calls the faithful to prayer, knowing that a good half of those who hear him should rightfully be mindful of his admonitions. Just now, during the Ramadan, the Mohammedan Lent, the Place is thronged towards evening with hollow-eyed men who have worked and starved all day, and are now waiting for the firing of the sunset gun to announce that for the time their long fast may be broken.

If this part of Algiers is strikingly Oriental in some of its features, there is, nevertheless, more than enough on every side to remind you that it is still but an element. The boulevard cafés, the newspaper kiosks, and the trams are still felt to be congruous characteristics, even if the burnoused men and the white-shrouded women may, at times, form the principal part of the passers-by. The most interesting feature, however, of Algiers is the thoroughness of the transition that it is possible to make. A few blocks away, in the old town, the whole condition of affairs is changed, and if you are successful in penetrating the labyrinth of crooked streets, without fetching up ignominiously in an *impasse*, as far as the Rue Kléber in the heart of the Arab city, there is absolutely nothing to remind you of Western civilization. Were it not for the gas-lamps that project here and there from the houses, and the names of the streets carefully displayed in Latin letters at necessary corners, it would be quite impossible to detect a trace of European contact at all.

The whitewashed houses of the old town extend straight up the hill without a break—at least it seems so, for the streets that wander off through its compact mass have no effect to destroy the continuity. Even when looking directly down upon it from the ramparts of the Casbah, it is impossible to follow the line of a single street or to realize that there are ways across it. Once within it the reason for this becomes apparent, for many of the streets, particularly in the upper part, are in places built completely over, while in others, although the space is not absolutely filled up, it is impossible to see the sky through the opening on account of the overhanging walls. Many streets are so narrow that one must step into a convenient doorway to let an approaching person pass. They are all fearfully steep, and impassable to any beast of burden except a donkey. Through the whole length and breadth of the town, as at present constituted, it is safe to assume that no wheeled vehicle of any sort has ever been. It is bad enough for pedestrians, for, although the streets are all paved with stone blocks, these have been worn so smooth by swarms of feet that some degree of caution is required to avoid a fall, which, for many reasons, would not be pleasant. Most of the pavements, besides the incline of the hill, slope from both sides to the middle, which serves as the necessary gutter. The steepness and smoothness of these streets is doubtless a saving clause in the economy of the place, due whether to natural selection or to direct intention I cannot say. It is noticeably cleaner after a heavy rain, and if its odors now are not absolutely those which one is apt to associate with "Araby the blest," it is easy to imagine that they might have been worse under less favorable physical conditions.

The life of the Arab town is apparently as unchanged as are its streets, and as uninfluenced by French domination. The people who throng this labyrinth—the ants, rather, who live in this ant-hill—are all our old friends of the Arabian Nights. The same poor shoemaker works in his little hole in the wall, which is scarcely more than large enough for himself and the shoes he is mending; the tailor sits with his fellow-workmen on the floor of his shop at work with bared feet as well as with hands on the same garments, or others precisely like them; there are the same blind men and hunchbacks, the water-carriers with their copper jars, and the porters stooping under their heavy burdens—Ali Baba, well clad and prosperous, after he had helped himself out of the hoard of the forty thieves, and Sindbad the Sailor with benevolent face, back from the last of his voyages. They live a life here absolutely sufficient to themselves, if they choose, in its supplies and demands, and there is no necessity to go outside of their own precincts for anything touching their material or their spiritual needs. They have their own shops of all kinds whatsoever, their own cafés and their own schools; their bakers bake their own bread and their confectioners make their own sweets, which do not look particularly tempting. Most of these outside accessories of life, however, are poor. The glamour which the city doubtless had in the old day has departed long ago. There are few rich Arabs left, and there were apparently never many fine Arab houses within the present limits of the old town. A glance through an open doorway reveals, now and then, a court with twisted columns and old tiles, and bespeaks potentialities if they could only be come at; but the exterior goes for something, and it is hardly possible that it often conceals much Oriental or any other kind of magnificence. The native shops, too, of the old town are small affairs, though they often contain treasures of silk and embroidery for both masculine and feminine wear, which is unpacked from unsuspected places. There are everywhere possibilities. With its other characteristics the old city has also kept its Eastern impenetrability.

If there is a question as to what there is below the surface unseen, there can be no question as to the interest of the part which is apparent. Its picturesqueness is undoubted. As has already been said, almost nothing has forced itself into the old town to remind one nearly or remotely of the conquest, and you may even traverse it from top to bottom without seeing a European garb other than your own. It is not, however, to be supposed that the French authorities have allowed it, without let or hindrance, to follow its own devices. They evidently, on the contrary, have it well in hand, for once or twice I have seen a French policeman with a carefully made plan of streets and houses looking up somebody or something. Wisely they have left the Arab city in its densest part to all intents and purposes as it was. All around they have made serious inroads upon its edges. Below, by the sea, as I have intimated, it has, except for scattered houses, entirely disappeared, and its place has been taken by the new French town. Above, not only has the old Casbah been pierced by a public highway, but a broad street has been cut in between it and the compact houses of the city down from which the little lanes dive like dark tunnels. It is not difficult to discern their policy in regard to it: its limits are being constantly contracted. Upwards of three hundred of the old houses were demolished last year alone, and at this rate ten or twelve years will more than suffice to make it, as a town, absolutely a thing of the past. The modern stucco tenements that will replace it will, no doubt, be vastly superior in convenience and sanitation, but Algiers to the traveller will have lost its most characteristic charm.

In the process of replacement, elsewhere in the city, a number of the best of the Moorish houses have been carefully preserved and are now used by the French either as Government offices or as public buildings. The finest of all of these old buildings is the archbishop's palace opposite the cathedral, itself once a mosque. Other notable instances are the house now occupied by the "Conseil Général," and the old residence of Mustapha Pasha, which is now the library and museum. The Casbah, too, at the top of the town, although parts have been demolished and parts ignobly turned over as barracks to the French artillery who mess under an arcade with marble columns, has still retained much of its ancient architectural beauty intact. From among its many separate buildings rises a beautiful minaret, and the tiles above the sculptured arches of its doorways are as bright as though laid yesterday.

Perhaps even more interesting, in some respects, for what it has kept of the past is the mole of the Peñon, which formed the ancient harbor. Some of the details of its many structures are most interesting. A doorway in what is now the Bureau de la Marine has above it, under a long Arabic inscription, two leopards in mosaic supporting a crown and crescent, and is unique in Arab art. Close by, in the house of the Turkish Raïs, now the residence of the naval commandant, is a fountain with inscriptions which is almost the best of the kind left in Algiers. More interesting still for its associations is the Peñon itself and the lighthouse at its extremity. Originally a Spanish fort against the Moors, it was finally captured, in 1530, by the Algerian Dey who set 30,000 Christian slaves at work to connect it to the mainland by a mole. On one of the old bastions, the entrance to which still bears the coat of arms of Spain, the present lighthouse, twelve-sided and tiled in a broad stripe of many colors about the top, was built a little more than a decade later. It has since stood unchanged, through all the vicissitudes that

have overtaken Algiers, the most prominent object in view from sea or shore. It has been a familiar sight to Americans under far less pleasant conditions of hospitality than are accustomed to be meted out to those of the present generation. In 1793 it is estimated that there were more than a hundred American citizens held here in slavery who had been captured by Algerian pirates on the high seas. It is utterly impossible, at this time, to realize that twice, in 1783 and again in 1812, Algiers declared war on the United States; that in 1795 we actually paid in ransom and tribute no less a sum than $721,000, and that for many years after we were forced to pay an annual tribute of $22,000 in stores and munitions, until 1812, when this sum was demanded in money! The little English church has many memorials, in the form of tablets on its walls, of the time when Algiers was "the scourge of the seas." One I copied, the other day, into my note-book: "1584. Lawrence, Master of Oliphant, the Master of Morton and other banished Scottish gentlemen enslaved at Algiers, whence they were probably never released." Cervantes was brought here a captive in 1555, and was not released until more than five years later.

The European population of Algeria has all come in since the French conquest in 1830. In Algiers and its immediate suburbs the natives, including together Mohammedans and Jews, are now outnumbered nearly three to one; that is, a little less than two-thirds of the 86,000 inhabitants are Europeans. The latter are of various nationalities. After the French the most numerous are Spaniards and Maltese. There are also a number of English residents who live in Moorish villas, old and new, on the green slopes of the amphitheatre formed by the Mustapha hills, or back a little way on their summit, and there are some few Americans. During the winter the many hotels of Mustapha Supérieur contribute their quota, as the years go by a continually increasing one, from nearly every country of Europe, to the general fund. The journalism of the town shows its cosmopolitan character. Besides the native journals printed in Arabic, there are a round half-dozen French dailies, good, bad, and indifferent, and two English papers which appear weekly.

This cosmopolitanism is carried, too, into the amusements of the place, which offer a most astonishing range. Your tastes may be gratified in almost any direction. If you are interested in native manners and customs, as the French who live in the midst of them affect not to be, the open space above the old town almost always offers, in the motley crowd of men, veiled women of the better and unveiled of the baser sort, and half-naked children of all sorts, an opportunity to indulge your curiosity. They themselves are possibly more interesting than what they have come to see. If you can make your way through so as to overlook the inner ranks sitting on the ground, it proves to be a serpent-charmer playing his reed flute to his charge, who listens with head erect. Sometimes it is an Arab rhapsodist, with a swarthy but clean-cut face, and an unmistakable look of divine afflatus, who chants as he paces to and fro in front of an orchestra consisting of three or four men beating noisily on tambours as large as grain sieves, himself now and then touching his own tambour by way of additional accompaniment; or it may be a professional story-teller, who stands as he recites, or a number of blind men with tambours, sitting on the ground, who all join, with apparently an eager interest, in the chorus to the verses which one of them chants in the minor singsong that is their Oriental characteristic. If you still desire something more, in the same direction, it is possible at night, with proper guidance, to see the native dancing-girls among their own surroundings, or to be present at an *aïssaoua*, where the actors, among other brutalities of the same sort, gouge out their eyes with iron spikes so that they project on their cheeks, drive nails into their heads, sear their flesh with hot iron, eat live scorpions, and thrust swords into their naked bodies where they are left to hang. To accord more nearly with the tastes of the European part of the population, which has turned out in full force, bull-fights have several times been given of a Sunday afternoon during the winter, with bull-fighters from Spain and genuine Andalusian bulls. If all this is unsatisfactory, there is the large and well-appointed Municipal Theatre, where a series of operas has been produced, among them such a recent work as Reyer's "Sigurd."

The best entertainment, however, that Algiers offers to the stranger who dwells within (or, as most do by preference, without) its gates, is the moving panorama of the streets, and one does not easily tire of its always shifting scenes. Nor is one restricted, as is the case in many parts of the East, to the town and its immediate surroundings. The French have constructed everywhere through this part of the colony *chaussées* that are the equal of any in Europe, and it is possible to drive in any direction through a country teeming with a perennial verdure, with carefully cultivated fields on every side, orchards yellow with oranges and mandarins, and hills covered with vineyards. This part of Algeria is a veritable "garden of the gods." Many regions of old France are fertile, but there is nothing at all like this. If you are a pedestrian, there is everything here to tempt you abroad. Back across the hills, where the fields all winter have been full of flowers, runs a perfect network of lanes and byways, so deep, frequently, in green that they are almost covered over and are cool on the hottest days. Although there is an abundance of rain in the winter months, this year an unusual amount, the climate is not too capricious and the air is dry and tonic. Add to this a temperature neither too cold for comfort after you become acclimated, nor too warm to be enervating, and singularly free from sudden fluctuations, and you have a picture of Algiers not too enthusiastically presented.

W. H. C.

Correspondence.

THE PARTHENON FRIEZE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: About ten years ago Mr. A. H. Smith, now of the British Museum, London, then Worts travelling scholar of the University of Cambridge, searched, at my request, the museums of Rome for terracottas corresponding to the plaque reproducing figures from the frieze of the Parthenon which I had found in the Louvre Museum in Paris. He had the good fortune to discover one of these in the Museo Kircheriano, which immediately joined on to the plaque of the Louvre. At the same time the correspondence between these terracottas and some reduced casts of the Parthenon frieze which I saw at Rome was so complete that I was forced to consider the possibility of all these terracottas being forgeries. As the preceding chapters relating to the plaques in my book, 'Essays on the Art of Pheidias,' were already in print, I embodied Mr. A. H. Smith's discovery, together with the causes of doubt as to their authenticity, in the Note F of my book.

When my book had appeared, M. Salomon Reinach of Paris made a thoroughly unjustifiable attack upon another chapter of my book, and at the same time stated in decided terms that these terracottas were not genuine. His statement rested entirely upon his own opinion. At the time, authorities in ancient terracottas like M. Heuzey of the Louvre Museum (though with more scientific modesty) maintained their genuineness. For my own part I believed that the only scientific method of dealing with such questions was to give all the facts before us, and to refrain from final judgment until further light could be thrown upon the subject, not by opinion, but by new facts. My own experience of ancient terracottas leads me to believe that, unless we are guided by the design itself, there is not an archæologist, or even a dealer, who may not be deceived when guided alone by the consistency and manufacture of the terracotta itself. I remember the late Alessandro Castellani, than whom there has been no more experienced dealer in antiquities, showed me three terracottas by which he had been deceived.

The point which I wished to illustrate in my book was the fruitful results arising out of a conscientious comparative study of style in ancient Greek art, and not the manufacture of terracottas. If these plaques are forged reproductions of the Parthenon frieze itself, the recognition of their Pheidiac character, even in their mutilated condition, strongly proves the correctness of this method of observation.

Quite recently Prof. Furtwängler of Berlin, in his book 'Meisterwerke der Griechischen Plastik,' reverts to the question of these terracottas, and, with the violent assurance which he has in common with his French counterpart, M. Reinach, he considers the Copenhagen fragment, "as well as the other Waldstein'sche fragments," as decidedly genuine. He bases this statement upon the examination of the fragment at Copenhagen, which was taken out of the wall for him. He believes that these terracottas were made in the time of Augustus, and that they were to be traced back to a common original along with the Roman casts which are derived from the casts originally made for Choiseul-Gouffier.

It is a singular coincidence that, just ten years after he made his first discovery at Rome, Mr. A. H. Smith has now found another larger piece of the same terracottas in a shop at Rome, which he purchased for the sum of three francs. It represents a horse and a horseman standing, whose chiton is being adjusted by a boy, from the northwest corner of the frieze. As far as the terracotta itself goes, it bears every trace of genuineness, nor can we understand how it could have repaid a forger to make so skilful a forgery—in fact, all the arguments in favor of their genuineness which I have given in my book hold good.

Before I left for Greece, Mr. A. H. Smith kindly brought his Roman terracotta to the British Museum, and I was then enabled to confront it with the original portion in the frieze of the Parthenon. I noted all the discrepancies between the plaque and the frieze. Since then two of my pupils (Mr. Earpe of King's College and Mr. Carr Bosanquet of Trinity College, Cambridge) have compared the plaque with the Roman reduced casts which I have collected in the Archæological

Museum at Cambridge. I have just heard from them that, in every instance, the discrepancies from the original frieze are the same in both the terracotta and the reduced casts. This appears to me one of the strongest arguments against the genuineness, and one which is not based upon opinion only. But before maintaining absolutely that they are forgeries, I should prefer to wait until some further facts of the nature of this recent discovery be forthcoming.

I cannot write from this place, while directing the excavations of the American School on this interesting site, without also referring to Prof. Furtwängler's hasty remarks recently made upon the sculptures from our first year's digging, published in my report. He maintains that the beautiful female head is "certainly not that of Hera, probably Hebe, and that all the sculptures from the Heraion have nothing whatever to do with Polykleitos or his school." In spite of this emphatic statement, it still remains more likely that the head is that of Hera than of any other divinity. If not Hera, it probably represents some human character, such as a priestess—but it is least likely to represent Hebe It would *a priori* be a very curious, almost unique circumstance, if, the great temple statue of Hera having been intrusted to Polykleitos, the greatest living sculptor of the time, the chief of the Argive school, the sculptured decoration of the temple were intrusted to some foreign school. But the sculptures themselves, which Prof. Furtwängler could not wait to study before venturing to express an opinion, bear all characteristics of the Polykleitan school. The beautifully preserved head from the metopes which we found a few days ago, is a purely Greek representative of the type of head in the well-known reproductions of the Doryphoros of Polykleitos.

CHARLES WALDSTEIN.

HERAION, ARGOS, April 7, 1894.

MORE ABOUT SOUTH CAROLINA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Every fair-minded man who knows the situation in this little State, with its Celtic temperament, will sympathize with "M. D." in the main purpose of his letter which appeared in the *Nation* of April 19. But if the moral support of good citizens outside of South Carolina is to be secured permanently for the benefit of our unhappy minority, it must be attracted by a fairly accurate understanding of the controlling conditions.

"M. D." calls South Carolina a "one-city State," which in a sense it is; but one might easily get the impression from his letter that Charleston bears a political relation to the rest of the State such as Paris, for instance, has borne to France. It is safe to guess that "M. D.'s" personal knowledge of South Carolina is confined to Charleston. He has made a very bad lot of guesses at the population of the leading cities, and he certainly is not acquainted with the countrymen—the "wool-hat, one-gallus boys," whose votes have twice made Mr. Tillman Governor. Columbia, the second city in the State, has over 15,000 inhabitants, instead of 12,000, and Greenville is next with 10,000, instead of 5,000; Spartanburg, "M.D.'s" third city, has 7,500 instead of 9,000, and Beaufort, which he puts in the fourth place, is eighth or ninth; Anderson, Sumter, and Florence are all larger, while Orangeburg is about the same in size as Beaufort.

There are something less than 500,000 white people in the State, of whom only about 20 per cent. live in the cities and towns. These figures are interesting in connection with the following statement: The negroes did not vote in the last two State elections. Tillman is therefore the choice of the majority of white South Carolinians. The cities and towns, I believe without an exception, roll up heavy majorities against Tillman, and the country districts are equally pronounced the other way. The vote for Tillman in 1892 was 50,000, with 30,000 for the opposing candidate. The vote of 1890 was far more favorable for Tillman, as there was then practically no organized opposition to him. We see, therefore, that the more intelligent townspeople are in a hopeless minority as against the country people.

To return to "M. D.'s" letter, the rank and file of the Tillmanites are neither exceptionally lazy nor "unusually intelligent for their surroundings," and, above all, they are not "extremely clever at finance." If "M. D." meant to be funny in his description, I beg pardon; I will send him several wise saws and modern instances illustrating the unusual intelligence and marked financial talent of the South Carolina planter. No lazy man can "make" a cotton crop. It requires careful preparation of the soil, and clean culture, and is somewhat jocosely said to take fourteen months to bring to market. A Massachusetts farmer said to me lately that farming in the South was comparatively easy, because there were no weeds to fight! A higher compliment could not be paid to the thorough cultivation of the cotton fields. Nor do the white planters leave their farms for the negroes to work. The small planters do their own work, and the larger ones, with few exceptions, personally supervise, first, the ploughing, then the hoeing, and, later, the picking. The Southern planter has nature in a milder mood to contend with than his Northern brother, and does less hard work, the year around. But he knows equally well how to put in full time, when the "season is in the ground," and "M. D." does him great injustice when he employs italics to emphasize his statement that he "will not work." However, even those of our "unusually intelligent" planters and extremely clever financiers who can read rarely see the *Nation*, so they will not feel "M. D.'s" sharp digs. But it is well worth while to call attention to the bottom fact of the situation in this State, which is the sad lack of general intelligence and common information, and the extremely limited outlook of the South Carolina yeomanry. These are what have made possible the ascendency of such an uncouth and brutal character as Governor Tillman.

A very similar thing happened in Virginia, when Mahone captured and held for several years precisely the same class of voters, though, to the credit of the Virginia white people be it said, he was obliged to call in the colored vote to help him. Mahone and Tillman appealed to the class which has arisen since the war—men who had no chance to get ahead before the war, half-educated, or not educated at all, full of prejudices, and jealous of the late slaveholding class, and easily persuaded that they had been ground down and overtaxed by the old aristocracy. Such a proportion of ignorant and easily led voters is bad enough, to be sure, but the situation is incomparably more hopeful than if we were burdened with an equal number of the sort of smart loafer described by "M. D." The "one-gallus boys" have shown bad feeling and worse judgment, but they are men capable of right enthusiasms as well as wrong ones. A few years ago they were shouting as loudly and earnestly for Hampton as ever they have for Tillman, and when the elements of the unholy alliance now in power dissolve, as they surely will in the not distant future, these deluded voters will return to their senses, and to the leadership of the class which gave the State a creditable and honorable government from 1876 to 1890. Let those who despair remember Virginia, and how short a term in the history of that State the Mahone episode occupies. It is a practical and serious question for those who have any moral support to spare for the education of South Carolina, how they can effectively introduce it. If the Tillmanites could be reached through their leaders, or otherwise, with large and frequent doses of ridicule from the outside world, it would be the cheapest, speediest, and most effective cure for their present lunacy.

Like "M. D.," I am a Northern man by birth and education. I have spent nearly ten years in Virginia and this State, and have travelled on horseback for weeks at a time through parts of South Carolina, stopping for meals and lodging wherever the dinner-hour or nightfall found me. My impressions of the people, from this experience, are on the whole distinctly favorable, and I believe there is plenty of raw material here for the making of a self-reliant, industrious, and progressive body-politic. E. B. L. T.

GREENVILLE, S. C., April 23, 1894.

POSTAL-UNION STAMPS AND CARDS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Another advantage of the Postal-Union stamps suggested in the last *Nation* is that of being able to enclose a stamp for reply in writing to strangers residing in Europe. It is often a source of embarrassment not to be able to conform to the business courtesy requiring the enclosure of a stamp (or card), and it is also true that one sometimes incurs the risk of receiving no reply through the omission of this enclosure.

This difficulty applies equally in Canadian correspondence. The absurd arrangement by which at the present time we pay two cents on letters to Canada, and three cents return postage somewhat complicates the matter, but it would seem possible to have some compromise made.—Respectfully, M.

POUGHKEEPSIE, N. Y.

Notes.

THE Gounod family has decided to publish a memorial volume, which will consist of the fragmentary manuscripts left by the composer, some of them being of an autobiographical nature, and of numerous letters to and from him. Gounod's son Jean, the artist, and his son-in-law, Baron de Lassus Saint-Geniès, are aiding Mme. Gounod in collecting the materials and preparing the volume for the press. But it is not expected that it will appear for some time to come.

'Fra Paolo Sarpi, the greatest of the Venetians,' by Alexander Robertson, for many years a resident of Venice, is announced by Thomas Whittaker.

The 'Annual American Catalogue for 1893,' the fourth in the series supplementary to the 'American Catalogue 1884–90,' has just been issued from the office of the *Publishers' Weekly* in this city. It contains a directory of American publishers for the year in question; an author-catalogue of books recorded in 1893, with full titles and descriptive notes; an author,

title, and subject-index to the same; summary lists of their publications for 1893 advertised by a certain number of houses; and finally, the abbreviated English catalogue for 1893. It is needless to praise so indispensable a work of reference.

An 'Attempt at a Catalogue of the Library of the late Prince Louis-Lucien Bonaparte' is what Mr. Victor Collins modestly styles the guinea volume issued by Henry Sotheran & Co., 140 Strand, London, as the basis of a bid for this unparalleled collection *en bloc*. It fills 718 pages, and embraces 13,699 items, beginning with 'Élémens de la grammaire chinoise,' and ending with Sprague's 'Handbook of Volapük.' The contents are divided into three divisions, China and Tibet representing the monosyllabic languages, and needing only half a page; the agglutinative languages (embracing Prince Bonaparte's favorite *crux*, the Basque, and our Indian languages) filling 71 pages; and the inflectional languages forming the great bulk of the work. One wishes such a collection might attract the eye of our Peffers and Gormans and so make its way to the Library of Congress; but these are not the spoils they are after.

The valuable 'Catalogue of Books Printed at or relating to the University, Town, or County of Cambridge [Eng.],' issued by Macmillan & Bowes, is concluded in Parts C and D (one volume) and a thinner pamphlet containing Mr. Robert Bowes's preface describing the inception of the task, together with a title-page for the entire work and ninety-eight illustrations of head and tail-pieces, initial letters, etc. The catalogue is not a bibliography, but represents a collection actually possessed by the compiler; the minute descriptions of the books printed to 1700, however, will serve a bibliographical end.

We have to welcome another fiction catalogue, cheaply printed on Manila paper and sold for ten cents by the Los Angeles (Cal.) Public Library. It is a 'List of Novels and Tales in the English, French, German, and Spanish Languages,' under one author-alphabet, with occasional annotations. This is supplemented by a subject-index to the nearly 12,500 volumes, and by a "Short list of books of criticism on [some part of] the foregoing novels and tales." This is a very useful idea, and nothing could be better for the cultivation of *taste*. As a practical guide, however, for inexperienced readers of current fiction, one book has been overlooked which is worth all the others: we mean Mr. W. M. Griswold's 'Descriptive Lists of Novels,' classified by nationality and locality and kind, with carefully selected criticisms from contemporary journals. If this is not chained to the fiction-desk of the Los Angeles Library (which, by the way, as to its circulating department, exists one-half for novel-readers alone), it ought to be. On p. 45 "Boyessen," and on p. 115 "Fennimore," have escaped the proof-reader's vigilance.

The library just named has in circulation five sets of Howells's complete works and twenty-five copies of 'Ramona.' In the Cleveland (O.) Public Library, as we learn from its enticing little monthly bulletin, the *Open Shelf*, there are eighty-eight copies of 'Little Women,' ninety-seven of 'The Boys of '76,' and eighty-one of 'Little Lord Fauntleroy,' while there are seventy of 'Ben Hur' and seventy-seven of 'Uncle Tom's Cabin.' Apart from fiction, it is gratifying to find that of John Fiske's 'Discovery of America' sixteen copies are needed to supply the demand.

The librarian of the Biblioteca Nazionale Centrale of Florence pays in his *Bollettino* for March 31 a tribute to the late William Frederick Poole, "one of the most illustrious librarians of our time," laying especial stress on his monumental 'Index to Periodical Literature,' and on his labors in connection with those of Cutter and Winsor, in so uniting the forces of the library fraternity of this country as to make them an "ever increasingly powerful and indispensable element in the progress of national culture and of civilization."

'Redgauntlet' and (bracketed) 'The Betrothed' and 'The Highland Widow' add two more volumes to the Black-Macmillan Dryburgh edition of the Waverley Novels. With these we may properly mention the charming Dent-Scribner volume of 'The Lyrics and Ballads of Sir Walter Scott,' with an introduction by Andrew Lang, and with very serviceable notes prefatory and explanatory. An etching after Landseer's portrait faces the rubricated title-page; there is another of Abbotsford, and a third giving an archway glimpse of Scott's tomb in Dryburgh Abbey.

From Messrs. Longman come three uniform volumes of reprint of the Earl of Lytton's works in wine-colored cloth binding—his 'Selected Poems,' 'Lucile,' and 'The Wanderer.' Lytton's daughter, Mrs. Balfour, furnishes a preface to the first-named, in which the arrangement is chronological, and the selections from the first volume of "Owen Meredith's" verse are printed as they then appeared and not as subsequently revised. Her filial appreciation of the poet is temperate, and will propitiate while it informs the reader with many interesting personal details. The typography is handsome.

'Art for America,' by William Ordway Partridge (Boston: Roberts Bros.) is well printed and prettily bound. Here our praise must end, for the matter seems to us to be like the reading of *Hamlet*, "words, words, words."

Two more books of the kind that attempt to teach painting by written precept are before us: 'Portrait and Figure Painting,' by Frank Fowler (Cassell), and 'Sketching from Nature,' written and published by Daniel Burleigh Parkhurst at Orange, N. J. They are better than the average of such books, for they are by painters of practical experience and professional standing, and both disclaim and to some extent avoid mere recipe. The effort to teach painting in this way is, however, quite hopeless.

'A Field Book for Civil Engineers,' by Daniel Carhart (Boston: Ginn & Co.), contains nothing about drainage, water-works, canals, etc., but is exclusively confined to railway engineering. Though very far from being an ideal field-book, it no doubt will be useful to men in that business. There are some tables not ill-selected as to their matter, but their arrangement is bad, and the type of most of them terrible. One can but commiserate the wretch who has to use such tables after his eyesight begins to fail. The fault of the printing of the text of the book, on the other hand, is that it is too expanded.

G. A. T. Middleton's 'Surveying and Surveying Instruments' (Macmillan) is a brief but tolerably good account of the way surveying is done in England, and the instruments described are not unsuited to that way of working. It is not likely that many Americans will be deluded into this fashion, which, bad enough even for England, would be ridiculous in this country. The plane-table is not used at all; and the methods with the other instruments are laborious and awkward.

'The Dynamo,' by C. C. Hawkins and F. Wallis (Whittaker & Co.), is a valuable and laborious treatise on the theory and design of the important machine to which it relates. Although only a few months old, it is already obsolescent in regard to special matters. It will, however, be of great service to the class of engineers for whom it is intended.

'Edwards's Catechism of Hygiene,' written for school-children to commit to memory, is, on that account and from what it contains and omits, a very absurd compilation. It is published at Philadelphia by the author, Joseph F. Edwards, M.D.

The autopsy yields curious and occasionally unexpected answers to questions in clinical medicine and in medical jurisprudence. As exactness and completeness of observation are cultivated, these replies are more valuable, and in criminal law conviction sometimes fails because all possibilities by which death might have occurred have not been excluded. 'The Technique of Post-Mortem Examinations,' by Ludvig Hektoen, M.D. (Chicago: The W. T. Keener Co.), is thorough and clear, and is evidently the work of an experienced pathologist. It is minute without being trivial, and complete without diffuseness. Where required it is well illustrated.

A few months ago we noticed with approbation the first volume of 'An American Text-Book of the Theory and Practice of Medicine,' edited by Dr. William Pepper (Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders). The second and concluding volume, of a thousand royal octavo pages, has just been published, and, if anything, it is superior to the first. It has an advantage over the former in that all its papers are contributed not only by teachers, but by teachers whose acquaintance with their subjects is practical and clinical. An exceedingly interesting section by the learned and most lucid Prof. Welch of Johns Hopkins, upon the biology of bacteria, infection and immunity, will repay study by all whom the science of life attracts. Even laymen, who may not care to own these two great volumes, will be glad to read this essay in the public libraries, should it not, as it deserves, be reprinted as an extract. The bacteriological matter is of the most recent date, and there is nothing in English newer than its discussion of the latest phase of hereditary tuberculosis, including Gärtner's work of 1893, a subject of the greatest theoretical interest and practical moment. Prof. Welch discusses with impartiality and with more intelligence than we have elsewhere seen the mutability of bacterial species. He admits variation in existing species, and that new species may be evolved, but he is not disposed to believe that one distinct species may be transformed into another already existing and well established, as, for example, B. subtilis into B. tuberculosis. It assists in the interpretation of some morbid phenomena to recognize that at least variations may occur; and it does not seem impossible, although as yet the bacteriological experts are unanimously in the negative, that the so-called spontaneous origin of such diseases as typhoid and yellow fevers and even cholera may occasionally occur by innocent micro-organisms developing virulence in those directions. But this is rank heresy in the high scientific world that is content to accept conditions as it thinks it finds them. Both volumes are freely illustrated by plates and cuts, but it is a grave defect that the most of the microscopical figures do not show the degree to which they are magnified. Each volume is indexed copiously and separately.

The second volume of the Harvard 'Studies and Notes in Philology and Literature' (Ginn & Co.) is more than half occupied with "Ob-

servations on the Language of Chaucer's Legend of Good Women," by John M. Manley. This is only for the specialist. A literary interest attaches to Prof. Kuno Francke's brief paper, "Did the Hypnerotomachia Poliphili influence the Second Part of Faust?" in which a very good case is made out for the affirmative with the aid of some of the woodcuts from the elder work, to which Goethe was actually referred (for the sake of the cuts) by his correspondent Göttling. Another German theme is elaborately carried out by W. H. Carruth, who masses the "Expressions of German National Feeling in historical and poetical literature from the middle of the tenth century to the time of Walther von der Vogelweide." W. Henry Schofield studies the source and history of the seventh novel of the seventh day in the 'Decameron,' and there is much else that is instructive in this creditable collection.

The *Psychological Review* for May maintains its university character, including as it does contributions from fifteen universities. It is worth remark that two of the contributors are women. If we may judge from the number of women who are now attending courses in psychology in the English and American universities, they will play an important part in this the newest of the sciences.

No. 4 of the *Portfolio* in its new form (Macmillan) is devoted to Bastien-Lepage, and is written by Julia Cartwright (Mrs. Henry Ady). She gives the well-known facts of the artist's life, and a not unfair if somewhat enthusiastic appreciation of his art. The arrangement is rather confusing, and the dates are sparse, so that one not in possession of the facts might easily fail to understand the order of production of his principal works. We must protest against the constant introduction of Marie Bashkirtseff, and the grave quoting of her girlish "gush" as if it were serious criticism, and against the frenchifying of our own Saint-Gaudens, whose Christian name appears as "Auguste." The editor should have known better than this if the writer did not, and the English inscription on the bas-relief of Bastien should, one may think, have put even the latter upon the right track.

It appears from a document extracted by the *Débats* (April 6) from the forthcoming *Bulletin* of the Société des Sciences Morales de Seine-et-Oise, that M. de Bacourt, who became Talleyrand's testamentary executor, accepted the post of secretary of legation at London under that ambassador with much reluctance, not wishing to "rentrer sous le joug de la mauvaise humeur de M. de Talleyrand." Thus he writes to his faithful correspondent, the Duchesse de Dino, on Nov. 10, 1833. He assures her that he is determined to hold himself amenable to the ambassador only in respect to his conduct as secretary. Five years later Talleyrand's memoirs were confided to him, and curiosity is still unsatisfied as to the liberties he took with them in preparing them for eventual publication.

—We take pleasure in noticing the appearance of the first volume of a 'History of the Scandinavians, and Successful Scandinavians in the United States,' compiled, edited, and published by O. N. Nelson of Minneapolis. It is a neatly printed and bound book of 643 pages, divided into two parts, the first containing "historical articles," by Mr. Nelson and various collaborators, "on the greater events of Scandinavian-American history from the year 1000 to 1893"; the second giving "historical articles and biographies of Scandinavians in Minnesota." There are chapters on the "characteristics of the Scandinavians," on the Scandinavian immigration, on the Icelandic discoveries of America, on the first Swedish settlement on the Delaware in the middle of the seventeenth century, on the first Norwegian immigration, on the Swedish colony at Bishopshill, Ill., on the Fifteenth Wisconsin or Scandinavian Regiment in the war of the rebellion, and on the various religious organizations, containing more than 10,000 communicants. The second part begins with a well-written review of the Scandinavian settlements in Minnesota, and ends with about 700 biographical sketches after the plan of a modern cyclopædia, illustrated by about seventy-five portraits. The biographies are of the ordinary kind found in similar works, but we are pleased to note the absence of fulsome praise by which such sketches are usually marred. Finally, we must mention a number of very elaborate statistical tables. Other volumes are to follow on the Scandinavians in Wisconsin, Iowa, Illinois, the Dakotas, etc., and thus the work, when completed, will contain a reasonably complete account of the Scandinavian group of our population. It obviously deserves a place in our public libraries.

—It appears from the facts gathered by Mr. Nelson that Scandinavians have been emigrating to this country ever since it began to be colonized. Thus Hans Hanson Bergen of Bergen, Norway, came with the Dutch immigrants to what is now New York as early as 1633, and became the ancestor of a large American family. In the Dutch colonial and church records he was variously called Hans Hanson von Bergen, Hans Hanson de Noorman, etc. The well-known Swedish colony was founded on the banks of the Delaware River in 1638, and a Swedish clergyman preached in his native tongue in Philadelphia as late as 1823. The member of the Continental Congress who gave the casting vote of Pennsylvania in favor of the Declaration of Independence was a Swede of the old Delaware stock—John Morton. In 1820 the United States began to record the number of immigrants, and in that year twenty are registered from Denmark and three from Sweden and Norway. From that time there has been a tolerably steady increase, the largest immigration from the Scandinavian countries being recorded in 1882, when 105,326 landed on our shores. In 1892 the number was only 68,302. According to the census of 1870 and 1880, 25 per cent. of the Scandinavian population in the United States were engaged in agriculture, and 50 per cent. labored at what is called "all classes of work." It is a notable fact that one out of four of the Scandinavians engages in agriculture, while only one out of six of the native Americans, one out of seven of the Germans, and one out of twelve of the Irish follow the same profession. A reasonable number of Scandinavian-Americans have become more or less prominent in the world of politics, in literature, and in the various professions that require college training. It is generally admitted that the Scandinavians are among the best immigrants that this country receives.

—The rarity of international benefactions lends peculiar interest to the work accomplished by the gift of the late George Peabody for the erection of model dwellings in the poorer parts of London. The twenty-ninth annual report of the Peabody Donation Fund shows the same careful management that has distinguished this work from its inception, with a net gain for the year 1893 of about $150,000. While strictly adhering to a conservative policy which has increased the original £500,000 given by Mr. Peabody to the generous sum of $5,550,000 in round numbers, the trustees have been able to provide for the service of the artisan and laboring poor of London 11,273 rooms, besides bathrooms, laundries, and wash-houses. This aggregate of accommodations comprises 5,070 separate "dwellings," which are occupied by nearly 20,000 people, although the report explains a temporary decrease in numbers as being due to temporary removals of tenants during extensive alterations now in progress at the Spitalsfields Buildings; two new blocks of dwellings are also in course of erection. The detailed statistics presented shed valuable light on the domestic economy and physical conditions of life in London tenements, both of the better and the baser sort. It has been stated, somewhat captiously, that the Peabody and other model tenements in London tended to be occupied by a class of tenants whose earnings did not justify the assistance rendered by these sanitary flats at abnormally low rental. It appears that the average weekly wage of the heads of families in the Peabody houses is only £1 3s. 7½d., or a trifle over $1 a day; the average weekly rent of each dwelling is 4s. 9¼d., and of each room 2s. 1¾d. Rent in all cases includes the free use of water, of laundries, sculleries, and bathrooms, and it is impossible to overestimate the value of such privileges in the close quarters inseparable from any form of tenement life. Certain figures demonstrate the close relation between sanitation and mortality statistics. The birth-rate for 1893 in these Peabody Buildings was 35.1 per 1,000, or 4.1 per 1,000 ahead of the rate for all London during the same period; the death-rate (including 65 deaths of residents who had been removed to hospitals) was 17.6 per 1,000, or 3.7 per 1,000 below the average death-rate for all London; infant mortality, that inexorable test of sanitary and moral conditions, was only 126.4 in each 1,000, or 37.9 below that of London as a whole, and enormously below the rate in improperly arranged and overcrowded tenements in any great modern city.

—England, which has done little to improve the principle of the refracting telescope for a century and a half, the ordinary double object-glass being generally recognized as the original device of Dollond in that country in 1758, now claims the discovery of a method of making a perfectly achromatic telescope; and Mr. H. Dennis Taylor, at the meeting of the Royal Astronomical Society last month, gave a full description of his invention. Finding it impossible to secure the entire elimination of color with two glasses, he has added a third, the chief disadvantage of which will probably be the greater absorption of light. Coming from a star, then, the light falls upon, first, a baryta flint glass, with refractive index of 1.564, a white glass as hard as ordinary crown, and ground to a double convex figure; second, a new boro-silicate flint, double concave in form, with refractive index somewhat less than the first, and slightly absorbent of the violet rays; and third, a concavo-convex lens of light silicate crown glass, exceedingly transparent, and not differing very much from the hard crown glass ordinarily employed in telescope construction. All these glasses in the lump, however, are not of English but of German production, by a Jena firm now about ten years old. Three lenses of large size, should they eventually be obtainable, would of course

increase the present engineering complications in the machinery of the telescope, on account of the necessarily greater length; but a very considerable advantage would arise from the coincidence of the optical focus with the photographic one, so that no necessity would then exist, as heretofore, for varying the combination of the lenses in any particular, when the character of the work to be done with the telescope is changed. Messrs. Cooke & Sons of York, an English optical firm of excellent standing, have already undertaken the manufacture of the new object-glasses, of all diameters up to twelve inches, and they announce that they hope soon to be in a position to construct telescopes of double that diameter from the new and perfectly achromatic glass. The immense disadvantage of the blue light of the secondary spectrum in the ordinary form of great telescope is well recognized by practical astronomers, and interesting discoveries may be expected from a large telescope of the novel type in which this troublesome imperfection has been wholly removed. It is, however, problematical whether this new triple object-glass will, all things considered, prove any more effective than Dr. Hastings's double objective, also of Jena glass, described in the *American Journal of Science* five years ago.

—Official information has been received from the University of Göttingen to the effect that the Faculty sees no reason why, in suitable cases, the degree of doctor of philosophy should not be conferred upon women. This is the most important event, in the series of changes that are taking place in the world in the status of women, that has happened for a long time. There is no reason why the other German universities should not quickly follow in the lead of Göttingen, and then England and America will be the only civilized countries in which the highest attainable education, with proper recognition, is inaccessible to women. It is an open secret that it is owing to the generous activity of the great mathematician Prof. Klein, a man of thoroughly chivalrous mould, that this great boon has been gained for women. The Göttingen faculty does not explain how, if the matter is so simple now, it has not been able to see, during all the former years of its existence, that there is "no reason" why the women who were willing to work for it should not always have received the doctor's degree upon the same terms as men.

—The issue of the China *Mail* (Hong Kong) for January 17, 1894, devotes two columns to the Medical Missionary Society's fifty-fifth annual meeting. This association founded and supports the Peter Parker Hospital in a corner of Canton, with four branch establishments. The hospital, dating from 1839, claims to be the oldest of its kind outside of Christendom, and is named after one of the earliest American missionary physicians. Its medical staff are supported by American Christians, while its running expenses are mainly paid by local contributions, partly foreign but still more largely Chinese. The current expenses, besides drugs, were $2,947, and the contributions $2,141. Of these $1,151 was given by Chinese and $890 by foreigners. This fraternizing in a humanitarian work is "irrespective of nationalities and creeds," and it is astonishing that so much good can be done with so slight an outlay. The out-patients attended to in 1893 were 57,179, the in-patients 1,717, the surgical operations 2,553. During the last thirty-four years 1,483 cases of vesical calculi were operated upon, with a mortality of only 97. Tropical fevers of late prevalent have tasked the resources of the institution to the utmost. The thanks of the society were voted to Dr. Rennie and the woman physicians in Canton for coöperation, and also to the American consul, Charles Seymour, for obtaining subscriptions from Chinese officials. Its local habitation, substantial but of the rudest architecture, stands at Kuk-fow among missionary schools, dwellings, and a chapel, near the river bank, where house-boats in many ranks crowd the shore, and are filled with families too poor to secure a foot of land.

A COMPILER'S RUSSIA.

Russia and Turkey in the Nineteenth Century. By Elizabeth Wormeley Latimer. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

It is plain that Mrs. Latimer possesses no knowledge of her subject beyond what she has laboriously collected for this book. She has not allowed herself time for comparison and reflection, and she lacks also that accuracy of statement which is essential to place facts in their true light. On page 1 she says:

"In the days of the Vikings Russia had been more or less connected with the Norsemen. Its chief kingdom, whose seat of empire was at Novgorod, was a settlement of Northmen, whence Harold Hardrada (killed in England, 1066, three weeks before the battle of Hastings) brought home to Norway Elizabeth, its King's daughter, as his bride. The kingdom of Novgorod was overturned by invading Tartars, and little more was heard in Europe of Muscovy until in the sixteenth century."

The only government which in the least resembled a "kingdom" was situated at Kieff, not at Novgorod, and it was the daughter of the Grand Prince of Kieff, sister to the wife of King Henry I. of France and to the wife of Andrew I., King of Hungary, whom Harold married. Novgorod was not a "settlement of Northmen," or a kingdom. The Slavs had been settled there and had raised up a powerful mercantile city hundreds of years before they invited the Varangian Prince to come and rule over them because of their internal quarrels. Oriental coins dated two hundred years previous to this invitation have been found buried at Novgorod. The Varangian Prince, Rurik, was in no sense a king. Novgorod was an independent republic until it was conquered by Ivan III. in 1471. It was ruled by its Town Council, and the prince had no power even to cut the grass on the plot of land assigned to him until the council appointed the day. These appanage princes were allowed to reign—not to rule—during good behavior only. "If the prince is bad, into the mud with him," was the haughty motto of these Russian republics, and they lived up to it so conscientiously that this very "Lord Novgorod the Great" once had five changes of prince in the course of seven years; one prince was thrice expelled, and thrice he returned on invitation in his anxiety for the ticklish job. The "seat of empire" in Russia was always at Kieff until Moscow became the legal and actual capital, about 1425, after Kieff had been deposed from that position and the site of the capital had been in question for about one hundred years. There was no such thing as "Muscovy" at the time referred to by Mrs. Latimer, nor for several hundred years afterwards.

She strays equally far from the facts when she states, a little further on, that Ivan I. was the prince who first assumed the titles of "Emperor and Autocrat of all the Russias." Simeon the Haughty first took the title of "Grand Prince of all the Russias." Ivan IV. (the Terrible) was the first to assume the title of "Tzar," in 1547, and Peter the Great adopted the title "Emperor" (*imperator*), the one which is used almost exclusively at the present day.

Descending to more modern times, in her introduction to the present century the author states that Peter the Great's eldest son, Alexis, "led probably an irregular life; at any rate he drew down upon himself the displeasure of his father," and she explains Peter I.'s condemnation of him and his execution on those grounds. She is evidently ignorant of the fact that Alexis was conspiring, with his mother and religious fanatics and retrogressionists, against Peter and all the reforms which the latter had spent his life in introducing into Russia. From her assertion about Alexander I., that "the allied powers would not further his ambition in that direction [Constantinople]. They compensated him by the acquisition of Finland, and permitted him to do what he would in Poland," the reader would be led to suppose that he acquired Finland by the action of the Congress of Vienna; whereas he had conquered it six years before, in 1808.

Passing over such inaccuracies as Wiekinghoff for Vietinghoff (the maiden name of the celebrated Baroness von Krüdener), and of Empaytar for Empaytaz, the Baroness's evangelical friend, Shirvan and Karabaugh for Erivan and Kabarda, Mezenzel for Mezenzeff, Keof for Kief, Dreuteln for Drenteln, Koratzakof for Karakozof, Leooffa for Lvovna, Weid for Wied, Kankoff for Zankoff, zemstovos and zarosta for zemstvos, verlost for starosta (the deliberate statement is made that "the head man of a Mir is called a verlost"), and similar errors which are not permissible in what pretends to be an authoritative work on a serious subject, let us turn to errors of another kind. The author asserts that "all the imperial family lie buried in the chapel of the St. Alexander Nevsky monastery," in St. Petersburg. All of them, beginning with Peter the Great, are buried in the Cathedral of the Peter-Paul fortress; the sovereigns previous to that date are buried in Moscow. Paul I. did not paint his new palace a bright red color; its gray, green, and pink marbles are uninjured to the present day. The document by which the Grand Duke Constantine resigned all his rights to the throne in favor of Nicholas I. was kept in Moscow, not in St. Petersburg, and it was this fact and the delay thus entailed in deciding that Constantine was not to be Emperor on the death of Alexander I., which gave the opportunity for the Decembrists, and, in great measure, caused the riots among the soldiers in 1825. The author's statements on this point are ambiguous and misleading.

On p. 86 she says: "As the wife of every Russian sovereign *must* adopt the Orthodox faith, of which her husband is the head, it seems to be the custom of these ladies on their baptism to take the name of Marie Fedorovna, a practice which makes it somewhat hard to distinguish them." Unhappily for Mrs Latimer's accuracy, this remark is made in connection with the wife of Nicholas I., whose Russian name was Alexandra Feodorovna. In view of the thoroughly Oriental character of the dress, accoutrements, and languages of the inhabitants of the Caucasus, it is hardly justifiable to assert that they may be descendants of the Crusaders. The mob which Nicholas I. faced accused the doctors, not the Jews, of being the "authors of the cholera" in 1831. In

one place the author states that Peter the Great conquered Livonia and founded St. Petersburg on its soil, in another she calls the country Esthland. It was, in fact, Ingria, or Ingermanland, inhabited by a cognate race, but by neither Livonians nor Esthonians.

The author makes no discrimination between good and indifferent authorities. An instance of the results is presented by her copying an article from the *Cosmopolitan* magazine by an ignorant writer who states that Sophie Perovsky was a "countess," and that the mine under the Nevsky Prospekt at the Sadovaya would have blown up the Anitchkoff Palace. From some other equally ill-informed person she accepts the assertion that "the Orthodox Russian Church has added an additional sacrament to those in the early church or in its Latin sister," viz.: "Coronation." We contradict this on the authority of the longer catechism of the Russian Church, published by and printed at the establishment of the Holy Synod. The seven sacraments are those known in the Roman Catholic Church. This being the case, the further assertion that the Emperor regards this "sacramental rite" as making "his person sacred" falls to the ground. And here we may inquire what the author really intended the scope of her book to be? The title would seem to indicate that the international relations and wars between Russia and Turkey are meant. But we soon find that she is professing to give us, especially in the case of Russia, an account of agriculture, village and state government, court ceremonies which have no connection with diplomatic relations, and even of the accident to the imperial train at Borki in 1888. This last is interjected, by the way, in the very middle of a description of the trans-Siberian railway, with which it could not possibly have any connection, both because of its locality and because the Siberian railway was not in existence at the time. This furnishes a good specimen of the incoherent method, if method it can be called, which is pursued in the book.

There is a long account of the coronation of the present Emperor, in which detail is carried to the extreme of describing his clothing and that of the imperial choir, the coronation canopy, and so forth. Any one who has been in Moscow will recognize the inaccuracy of these and other descriptions. The coronation clothing, down to the gloves, stockings, and slippers of the Empress, are preserved in the museum there, and furnish the proof that the Emperor wore a dark green, not a "red" uniform, on that occasion; that the canopy was not "composed almost entirely of yellow feathers," and so on. The imperial choir is not easily to be seen by foreigners, and we may therefore remark that its members are clad in crimson and gold, not in "purple." "Ivan the Great's Tower" has nothing to do with Ivan the Terrible, as the author asserts, for its date is subsequent to that of his reign, or with Ivan the Great, who was Ivan the Terrible's grandfather. Iván Velíky, the name of the great belfry in the Kremlin, literally translated "Ivan the Great," is supposed to be a corruption of the architect's name (John) Ivan Villiers. This looseness of statement is observable throughout the volume, and must detract seriously from its value. Description of well-known objects seems, in fact, to be a fatal trap for the author. Reference to any picture of the Kremlin would have convinced her that each of the cathedrals has five golden domes, not one. A very slight study of the map and of Russian history would have shown her that "Nizhni-Novgorod, the capital of the Norsemen who founded the first civilized empire in Russia," is situated at least six hundred miles, as the crow flies, from Novgorod the Great, with which she has confounded it; that the Norsemen did not found either Novgorod or an empire (as we have already shown), and that Nizhni has never been a Russian capital. As only common criminals, and no political prisoners, are sent to the Island of Saghalien, Mrs. Latimer's remarks on page 305 lose their point. Her descriptions of the village Mir and other rural assemblies are far from clear, and her assertion that the Mir "pays an annual sum to the old proprietor" is misleading, to say the least. On page 325, she says: "So terrible was the destruction wrought by the Russian invasion that to this day Livland (or Livonia) has never recovered the prosperity she enjoyed up to the close of the sixteenth century." In the next paragraph but one, she says that "it was restored to prosperity and civilization" under Swedish rule, the destruction being attributed in equal measure to Poland, in the second paragraph; while in the fourth paragraph, the Livonian nobles, "oppressed beyond endurance" by Sweden, are shown to have sought protection from Russia, under Peter the Great, from which time forward its increase in knowledge and civilization is acknowledged. What is the reader who seeks trustworthy information to make of all these ill-digested excerpts from different sources thus placed side by side in contradiction? or of such a statement as that John Couza was elected hospodar of Moldavia in 1858, "reigned three years," and was forced to abdicate in 1866?

In her anxiety to leave no bit of information for others to supply, the author has attempted to give personal data in regard to the family of "the Russian Emperor" (who is not that, but the Emperor of Russia), and has succeeded in telling both too much and too little. She seems not to be aware that the wife of the Grand Duke Michael Nikolaevitch has been dead for some time; that it was the Grand Duke Nikolai Nikolaevitch, not his brother Constantine, who "was commander-in-chief at one time in the Turkish war"; that "Countess Zenaida Beauharnais, of the family of Gen. Skobeleff," is Skobeleff's sister, married to the Duke of Leuchtenberg, and now in possession of the title of Duchess of Leuchtenberg. As this lady has nothing to do with Russia and Turkey, or the imperial family, legitimately, the allusion to her and to a notorious affair had better have been omitted altogether; but, if mentioned, the facts should have been given accurately. Definitively announcing the betrothal of the Tzesarevitch, in the face of conflicting and long-continued reports, was certainly unwise. In short, too much has been attempted, without due study or comprehension of the matter. The book deals with all the rulers of Russia and Turkey and with all the wars connected with them during the present century, much space being given to the Crimean war, including character sketches of the prominent generals, and to the Russo-Turkish war, including an inordinate amount of glorification of Gen. Skobeleff, sufficient to form a complete biography of the man, or to render the war a secondary matter in comparison with his personality.

Althea: A volume of dialogues on Aspirations and Duties. By Vernon Lee. London: Osgood & McIlvaine.

Social inequality, the gulf apparently ever widening and deepening between the rich and the poor, is the principal theme of discussion by "Althea" and her friends. The book is pleasingly different from most of its class, because no one advocates a specific remedy for evils which, beginning with civilization, have kept pace with its growth, but each contents himself with indicating a path that may possibly lead to a more general distribution of pleasure and a diminution of pain. The characters are only names used for the easier expression of the author's fluctuating thought, yet each preserves a fairly consistent individuality. By using this form the author gains latitude and escapes that necessity, supposed to be imperative in speculative writing, the formulation of positive conclusions. She also escapes that defeat of her object which is so often the fate of the social reformer by pretty rigidly limiting her discussion to abstractions. She believes heartily in the essential unity of mankind, in the identity of the best interest of one with the best interest of all, in the responsibility handed down through the ages and imposed on each successive generation to conserve the good of its predecessors and to transmit it unimpaired and increased to its successors. The *Weltschmerz*, she argues, cannot be cured by legislation or by revolution that wrenches wealth and privilege from one group temporarily to bestow them upon another. She sees equality of good as the far-off, slow-coming result of the acute realization by those to whom accident has given material advantage, that this accident carries with it an obligation to cultivate high thought and fine feeling, and to apply both to the benefit of those who are by sordid care prohibited from the luxury of thinking and feeling, and who hence go blundering on from birth to death, always standing in their own light and inevitably tumbling from bad to worse. Let the mind and the spirit, she urges, be properly tended by those who have time and capacity: the expression in conduct cannot fail to be just, effective, right.

So brief an indication of the drift of an unusually thoughtful and enlightened work is necessarily very imperfect, but it suffices to suggest how ideal is the author, and how open to the scorn of those learned in economics and, before all things, practical. Her plea is, after all, for the most radical reform, that of which the desirability is as constantly obvious as its accomplishment seems hopeless—the regeneration of the human heart. If the practical would only consent to take counsel with those whom they most need for their perfecting, the idealists, the problem would not appear so hopeless; yet should the choice for a beginning fall on Vernon Lee, we fear they might misunderstand and distort to wrong uses her idea that no duty to others can be intelligently and worthily done by one who does not clearly see and persist in his duty to himself. Hers is not the Christian altruism which, as she puts it, insists upon "an absurd, nay, pernicious, self-mutilation for the greater expansion of other folks' selfishness," but that modern development of ancient ethics which recognizes in each mortal a high standard of virtue, and commands him to reach constantly towards it even at the cost of transient disappointment or pain to a group of fellow-mortals. This gospel of duty to one's own mind is, of course, a dangerous one, especially for the practical who deal not in subtleties and have a profound aversion for hair-splitting.

It cannot be hoped that 'Althea' will be widely read. At least a rudimentary thinking apparatus is needed for its understanding, and even its classic form of dialogue is rather

hateful to the multitude. But if only the mentally and spiritually privileged should read and assimilate, the result might be a perceptible hastening of the destruction of that inequality which, in Matthew Arnold's famous words, applicable to more countries than England, "materializes our upper classes, vulgarizes our middle classes, brutalizes our lower classes."

Total Eclipses of the Sun. [Columbia Knowledge Series.] By Mabel Loomis Todd. Boston: Roberts Bros. 1894.

Joy is hardly too strong a word to express the surprised state of mind of the reviewer who finds a work upon a subject sharply cut treated thoroughly upon a plan sharply cut. True, an easy subject has been selected. Professor Ranyard some years ago digested in a thick quarto all that had up to that time been observed in relation to solar eclipses, and those astronomers whose attention has been turned that way have kept subsequent observations under continued comparison with those recorded by Ranyard. That, therefore, facilitated Mrs. Todd's task. Yet it was not easy to boil Ranyard's huge volume (together with all that has been observed since) into a couple of hundred pages of duodecimo. This has been effected with such skill that the most learned astronomer may profit by reading these pages, though any novice can profit by them.

Of all the phenomena of nature, a total solar eclipse is incomparably the most sublime. The greatest ocean storm is as nothing to it; and as for an annular eclipse, however close it may come to totality, it approaches a complete eclipse not half so near as a hurdy-gurdy a cathedral organ. Few people who do not make journeys on purpose ever see a total eclipse; consequently, it is difficult to imagine how such events could ever have been predicted before the theory of them was understood. The Babylonian bricks have shown that the most scientific people of antiquity often made mistakes in their predictions that solar eclipses would occur; and they never seem to have attempted to predict their totality. It is true that in the period of fifty-four years eclipses come round with some approximation to their former conditions. It may possibly have been that Thales, who is said to have predicted an eclipse 585 B. C., made use of this period; but several considerations cast great doubt on the prediction. It is a curious fact that the records of ancient eclipses, solar and lunar, do not gibe with modern observations. To account for the discrepancy, Oppolzer and other European astronomers suppose a gradual change of the motion of the moon; but our American authority, Newcomb, finds evidence of a sudden change such as might have resulted from some cataclasm within the interior of the earth, which should have altered the length of the day by a minute amount that might become appreciable in the course of many centuries.

Mrs. Todd gives full information about the observations of the sun's corona and about the various theories of it, all of them unsatisfactory. She seems to regard it as certain that the light of it is largely ultra-violet. If this be the case, fluorescent spectacles ought to assist the observation of it. Mrs. Todd makes the curious if not very probable suggestion that the wings of the winged sun-disk which the Egyptians imported along with the god Ra represent the sun's corona. They are certainly similar to some appearances of the corona. At the end of the book is a valuable chart of the eclipse-tracks of the next fifty years. It would have been better if the quincuncial projection had been employed for this purpose, as recommended by Oppolzer. But the book is so pretty and so interesting that we need say no more of it; our readers will find it out for themselves.

The Epicurean: A Franco-American Culinary Encyclopedia. By Charles Ranhofer. Illustrated with 800 plates. New York, 682 West End Avenue: Charles Ranhofer.

It is affirmed by gastronomic connoisseurs that within the past thirty years the degeneracy of the once famous men cooks of Paris has been making rapid progress, and that the true *cordons bleus* of France are now women, recruited from the Provinces, whose services are confined exclusively to private families, where and under whose auspices the traditions of classical cookery are alone maintained. That there is a certain measure of truth in this assertion is confirmed by the sarcastic allusions of French writers to the bad quality and indifferent preparation of the food now served at the Parisian restaurants, and the unqualified praise which they bestow upon the female *cordons bleus*. Théodore de Banville touches on this subject in the following words:

"Ils trouvaient chez elle . . . des plats accommodés avec des jus savants par une vieille cuisinière de Moulins, que Madame Silz cachait comme un proscrit, car le chef du café anglais et celui du baron de Rothschild avaient organisé en vain des fourberies et des tours de Scapin, pour arriver à lui parler et à savoir ses recettes."

What is true in this description of female cooks applies equally to two women writers upon culinary subjects. Madame Rosalie Blanquet, in her 'Cuisinière des ménages,' and Mrs. Beeton have both produced veritable classics relating to cookery in private families. Francatelli has done as much for the *grande cuisine*, but it has remained for Mr. Charles Ranhofer, in his 'Epicurean,' to combine under one cover all of the merits of the other three. In the great accumulation of facts relating to the preparation of food contained in the 'Epicurean,' there is no single instance where the recipes are not given with a lucidity and clearness in marked contrast to the involved and exasperating confusion of words so common in the formulas usually found in similar works. Moreover, of the 3,715 recipes recorded, while many are calculated for a kitchen organization of the most complete and elaborate character, there are many more which are easily within the compass of the most modest household equipment. This being so, Mr. Ranhofer might well have trusted to the admirable accomplishment of his performance to secure him the full recognition of its merits, without the unnecessary accentuation of his occupancy of the post of chef of a conspicuous restaurant of the town as indisputable proof of his superior capacity. While this may have an effect upon certain classes of people—those who eat but do not dine, and those who blindly follow the fad of the moment—among gastronomic connoisseurs it will have no value or consideration whatsoever; quite the contrary. Moreover, it is among this fastidious and discriminating group that Mr. Ranhofer must look for the larger sale of his work, inasmuch as the price of it will naturally restrict its general distribution.

There is another feature of Mr. Ranhofer's book which is open to criticism. He has copiously padded it with reproductions of the menus of private and public dinners which have been served in the restaurant in question during the past thirty years. These have considerably increased the bulk of the work, already large, without adding a corresponding interest. These menus are of no possible value, except possibly to betray to commentators of the future the depth of gastronomic savagery which prevailed among us during the latter portion of the nineteenth century. We allude not to the culinary merits of the dishes, but to their barbaric profusion, with the reckless waste of food products as a natural sequence. In France, where the price of comestibles is so high and the quantity, as compared to ours, is so limited, effort is constantly being directed towards superlative merit in cookery as a counterpoise to profusion. The following menu of an exceptional dinner of twelve covers recently served in Paris will more clearly emphasize the contrast between the foolish prodigality which characterizes the menus recorded by Mr. Ranhofer, and the restraint which is exercised in such matters abroad:

Potage à la royale.
Truite saumonée, sauce Rachel.
Selle d'agneau à la renaissance.
Langouste à la Bragation.
Dinde truffée.
Salade.
Pâté de foie gras de Nancy.
Fonds d'artichaut au parmesan.
Bombe Walkyrie.

Even this menu might have been curtailed to advantage by omitting the selle d'agneau and the pâté de foie gras.

In the copious index which accompanies the 'Epicurean,' there is one omission which should be supplied. While under the heading of beef, veal, eggs, etc., the various methods of preparation are recorded in sequence, in the case of fishes they are omitted. To learn the various modes of cooking these, it is necessary to refer to the individual species. Finally, in the choice of a binding, neither taste nor fitness has been consulted.

Elementary Meteorology. By William Morris Davis. Boston: Ginn & Co. Pp. 355. Illustrated.

The slow development of the study of meteorology, even in our larger universities, is responsible, perhaps, for the lack of adequate textbooks. That of Loomis is antiquated, Buchan's is out of date and out of print. Waldo's 'Modern Meteorology' seems better calculated to make weather-observers than scientific men well grounded in the principles underlying their specialty, while the German works of recent date, excellent as they may be, have had no translators to adapt them to the needs of our schools. This work by Prof. Davis is, therefore, most timely, and any such would have received cordial welcome even had it been from a less skilful master of the subject. The sole criticism which suggests itself is that, in its departure from previous models, the arrangement of the book may fail to commend itself at sight to teachers having occasion to use it. This, however, is essentially true of all ventures into comparatively new fields, and the instructor who is competent to make such criticism will find the abundant material here given readily adaptable to the needs of any reasonable preëxisting method.

The book discusses first the origin, nature, uses, and extent of the atmosphere, and, next, temperature and its distribution, upon which factors the winds are dependent. This leads naturally to a consideration of the winds themselves and the moisture which they carry and distribute. The later portion of the book is devoted to the relation of atmospheric phenomena to each other, with some account of the practical matter of weather prediction, and to

a consideration of those recurrent conditions which we term climate. The book is the outgrowth of the experience of the author in the teaching of his classes at Harvard, and seems to be practical in its methods, rational in its progression, and fully abreast of the times in the information which it affords. While it is especially adapted to the student, it will probably find an equally wide field among our general scientific readers of the higher order.

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Mackintosh, Rev. William. The Natural History of the Christian Religion. Macmillan. $3.75.
Papers of the Jewish Women's Congress. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society.
Rhoades, L. A. Schiller's Maria Stuart. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 65 cents.
Scott, Sir W. The Talisman. [Dryburgh Edition.] Edinburgh: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
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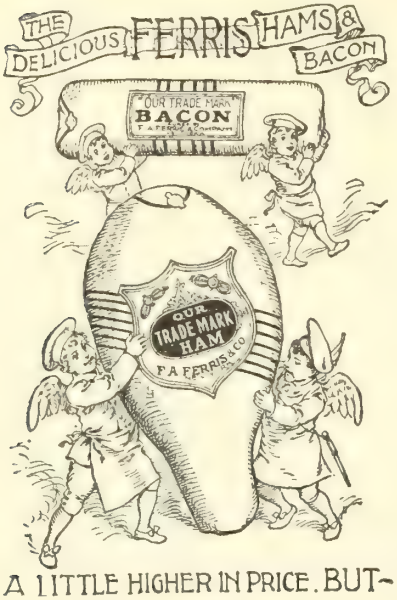

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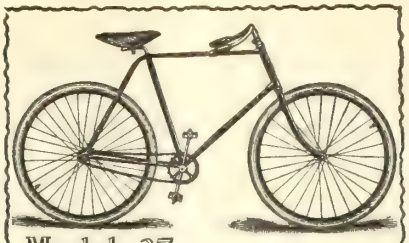

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 10, 1894.

The Week.

THE inevitable has come to pass, and the Democratic Senators have agreed upon a tariff bill which they can put through the Senate. This being now settled, the Republicans and Hill will probably keep up their bluster and obstruction for a few days, and then suddenly acquiesce in an agreement to take the final vote. Even before the caucus was held, the accurate Washington correspondent of the *Wool and Cotton Reporter* wrote that "the chances are good to-day that a moderate bill will become law with the beginning of the fiscal year." Nearly all business men have settled down to this conviction, and even the Democrats in the Senate cannot be so inconceivably stupid as to falsify it. The *Reporter*, by the way, will be read out of the Republican party if it keeps on uttering such heresies about wool and the "sheep business" as crop out in its editorial columns last week. After saying that the "dark days" are "by no means entirely attributable to hostile tariff legislation," it goes on to advise farmers to go into sheep-raising, on the ground that "it will pay better than any other branch of stock-breeding upon the American ranch or farm before many months have passed." What, with wool free! Imagine the feelings of Delano and Lawrence when they read that. The least they can do is to bring out a rival prophecy, and they have such a large supply of misfits on hand that we are sure they can speedily produce one that will answer.

What has become of that wonderful resolution of the Senate's, asking the President to ask Mexico to let us do her silver coining for her? It passed the Senate unanimously, and it is not to be supposed that a body of such thoughtful statesmen would have spent several days debating a measure which had no underpinning. Yet we see with pain that their little attempt to do something for the great goddess Argentum has been received with cruel mockery in Mexico. The leading newspaper of that country says that, if we are to coin Mexico's silver and take away her job of supplying China and India, we must give her something in exchange. As a fair measure of reciprocity it suggests that we let her print our greenbacks. It urges with great force that she would have to have something to pay us for our exportations, and what could be easier or more friendly than to ship her C. O. D. one of Mr. Chase's printing-presses?

The Republicans will not be able to extract much comfort from the bye-election in the Third Congressional District of Ohio last week. It was held to fill a vacancy caused by the death of Congressman Houk, and the campaign was conducted on the Wilson-bill issue alone, the Democratic candidate standing squarely by the bill as it passed the House. The district, though a Democratic one, was carried by McKinley for Governor last fall by about six hundred majority. The Democrats have now carried it by nearly 2,000 majority, or about half the majority given to Mr. Houk in 1892. The district is the very centre of McKinleyism, and the Republicans had every reason to think that the "reaction against tariff reform" which they have been placing such faith in, would show itself in formidable proportions there. In addition to this, they had the hard times and the open support of the American Protective Association, the new anti-Catholic order which is said to be playing such a momentous part in the politics of the West. That the Democrats should hold their own under such conditions is remarkable.

The "industrial armies" are being rapidly resolved into their constituent tramps, and we shall soon hear no more of them, except as the same old individual wandering beggars and marauders that we have long known. The glamour was all taken away from the movement by the very prosaic treatment meted out to Coxey himself and his stragglers in Washington. The newspapers, too, have ceased to be tickled with the novelty of the thing, and the glory and heroism of the armies have all along existed solely in their columns. How strangely men's sympathies have run away with their judgment in this business may be seen in the extraordinary article by the Rev. Dr. Duryea in last week's *Outlook*. He saw Kelly's army in the first rush of curiosity and amused interest at Omaha, and thought "the spectacle" one to "kindle the imagination" and "fire the heart." "Sober, thoughtful men," he added, were very anxious lest any harshness or severity on the part of the civil authorities towards the armies should produce a "whirlwind." But there was no whirlwind in Washington when the ordinary laws against vagabonds and disturbers of the peace were applied to Coxey and his nondescripts. Dr. Duryea was as wide of the mark in that particular as he was in the prediction that Kelly's "pilgrimage will be one continuous ovation."

The great labor organizations of the country are considered by the Galveston (Tex.) *News* the chief agency which has been at work of late years to drain the farms of the needed men and to swell the armies of unemployed in the cities. "The young man," it says, "who lived contentedly at farm work at $15 per month ten years ago learned from the papers and from the labor agitators that men of his class in the cities were contending in organized and victorious armies for three or four times as much wages and eight-hour days, instead of the long and dreary twelve-hour days of the hot farm." He was easily persuaded that he and others had a natural right to just such hours and wages as they might demand; he condemned as a "traitor" or "scab" any free man who dared to apply for work on his own scale; he took eagerly to the discipline which made it a high crime for a carpenter to pick up a painter's brush or a fast bricklayer to do more work than a slow one, and such influences at last made him an uncompromising champion of "organized labor." He will never again be content to work on a farm for what he is worth, and he will wait until doomsday for service along the pleasant line of his own choice. The *News* is convinced that "the spirit and drift of the great labor organizations have tended to drain the farms of laborers, to relatively depopulate rural districts, to congest cities, and to draw into this country armies of laborers from foreign lands, and their policy and teaching run naturally into Coxeyism." Few people have given much thought to this element in the situation, but nobody can deny that there is much force in the argument.

In spite of the reprobation excited by Quincy's consular debauch, and in spite of Mr. Cleveland's recently renewed declaration of his preference for "principles instead of spoils," the work of distributing spoils goes merrily on. Mr. John Worthington was appointed American consul at Malta in 1882 by President Arthur. He has filled the place admirably, and done credit both to the United States and to himself in it, and was left undisturbed both through Mr. Cleveland's first administration and through President Harrison's. No charge has been made against him, or fault found with him. But towards the end of last February he saw in the London *Times* that he had been removed to make way for "Col. Kennedy of Missouri." About a month later he got notice of it from the State Department. There is, of course, little difficulty in estimating the fitness of "Col." Kennedy for the place. A swarm of these Western worthies has been injected into the consular and diplomatic

service to its infinite damage and our infinite discredit. Tripp of South Dakota, for instance, has been sent to Vienna, the most formal and socially difficult court in Europe, without other fitness for the place than is given to a man by residing on a boundless prairie. Fancy this personage making himself a *persona grata* at the Burg. The extraordinary feature of these appointments is that they continue to be made in the teeth of reiterated fulminations against the spoils system from the White House.

The news of the collapse of the much-talked of Stein expedition to Ellsmere Land will be cause for congratulation to many who believe that expeditions should be planned with circumspection and dignity, and so equipped as to insure for them a reasonable measure of success. More particularly are these conditions necessary in arctic ventures, as experience has only too emphatically taught. The "expedition," so called, that was to begin this summer a campaign of several years, had seemingly a more slender basis than perhaps any other arctic expedition, if we except that of the unfortunate *Ripple* of 1892, whose commander, Björling, ventured into the icy seas in a craft that was condemned in its own port, and with resources that would hardly have been considered sufficient for a cruise among the lakes of Maine. It is a singular fact, however, that the Stein expedition received the official approval of the most dignified scientific bodies of Washington, including the National Geographic Society, and of men who stand at the front of scientific investigation, such as the directors of the national Geological and Coast Surveys and the leaders of past fortunate and unfortunate arctic parties. More singular still was the heralding in advance the names of those for whom new physiographic features—mountains, capes, and glaciers—would be named on an "unknown" coast-line of 300 miles. There were a hundred such names, of women as well as men, known beyond their limited circle chiefly as founders of hospital-beds, homes for the aged, and other worthy charities, and constituting a grotesque arctic "legion of honor."

The Governor has vetoed the bill giving the mayor the power to remove the heads of departments within sixty days after his election, justifying himself in the main by arguments drawn from the report of the Tilden Commission in 1876-'7, in which the danger of giving one man so much power over the city service and finances is fully set forth. The answer to these arguments is, that we have, within the last twenty years, had a great deal of new experience in municipal government; that the system which the report thought so dangerous has since been tried in Brooklyn, for twelve years, and with results generally considered happy. Three bad mayors, it is true, have within that period under it occupied the mayoral chair against two good ones, but the badness of the bad ones has not been a hindrance to their complete overthrow when the people determined at a municipal election to vote on municipal affairs solely. So that the anticipations of the commission as to the difficulty of overthrowing mayors vested with these powers have not been realized. What has been becoming clearer and clearer for many years past is that our sole hope of deliverance from the evils which afflict us at present, lies in the concentration of responsibility on a single head. This is the tendency of municipal reform all over the country, in Chicago and Philadelphia as well as in Brooklyn. This undoubtedly breeds new dangers, as will any change whatever, but it arms a careless or partisan community with the power of rectifying abuses at one stroke—an enormous gain, every one will admit who knows how complicated our electoral system is, and how difficult it is for any voter to tell what the effect of his vote will be if he has to vote for a great many officers in the same organization. Gov. Flower would have done far better if he had discussed the experience of Brooklyn and other cities since the Tilden Commission's report was written, though we admit that he makes a much better show by quoting it than he would have made by saying frankly that Gilroy, Croker, and Hill were all opposed to the bill under consideration, and he therefore vetoed it.

A retired boss is a novelty in Tammany politics. Hitherto all such bosses have remained in power till death, or defeat, or imprisonment has put an end to their reign. Tweed, with the shadows of coming defeat and disaster heavy about him, remained at his post, was exposed, stripped of his plundered wealth, and died in jail. John Kelly, even after defeat, retained his boss-ship and devoted all his energies to an effort to keep his followers together, till approaching death compelled him to retire. Croker, profiting by these illustrious examples, has decided to retire before defeat arrives, and before disaster can overtake his private fortune. Instead of "going down with the ship," as his predecessors elected to do, he deserts the ship, taking his treasure-chest with him, on the signs of coming storm. Let what may happen to the organization and to its members, the boss will be out of harm's way when the trouble begins. And Mr. Croker will take enough with him to make him very comfortable in his retirement. He has had greater opportunities and has been working a far more lucrative system than even Tweed had. Nothing like the systematic blackmail of the past few years was known in Tweed's or Kelly's time. No boss before Croker took away all the "legislative business" from the lobby and the individual "strikers" at Albany, and made it a system for his personal profit, levying upon all corporations and other interests at the mercy of the Legislature one tariff for immunity from hostile legislation, and another tariff for friendly legislation. The tremendous profits of this business can only be surmised. A glimpse of them is afforded in the sudden accumulation of wealth by Croker as revealed in his more notable expenditures of the past few years. A list of these will give some idea of the comfortable circumstances under which the boss passes from public to private life:

Invested in stock farm	$250,000
In race horses	103,000
In a Fifth Avenue residence	80,000
In family carriages	3,200

In speculating upon the causes of Croker's retirement, the *Tribune* says:

> "He possibly cannot help reflections that, in case of the election of a Republican Governor and Legislature this fall, an official investigation may come which will lay bare the sources of his revenue."

But why did you, as the chief Republican organ, not insist upon such an investigation by the last Legislature? That was a Republican body, and it did not need the assistance of a Republican Governor to enable it to "lay bare the sources of Croker's revenue." You were besought in vain for several months to call upon the Legislature to do this work, but you did not heed the request till very late in the session, and did not even then upbraid Tom Platt for ordering his man Lexow to refuse such inquiry. Croker is able to retire in safety now because you and Platt combined to spare him from an inquiry which would have laid bare the sources of his revenue. He is afraid to run the risk of not being able to escape a second time, and hence retires now. His escape this year was due to the desire of you, Mr. *Tribune*, and Tom Platt, to get a "divvy" of police-board patronage with Tammany Hall; and in your zeal to get that you spared Croker and Tammany from the perils of a full and thorough investigation. No amount of abuse of Croker now will conceal that disgraceful fact.

The death of Mr. John Jay removes a prominent survivor of the grand generation which carried the slavery conflict to its final triumph. There was every temptation in life to a young man in 1836, gifted as he was with fortune, good connections, illustrious ancestry, and honorable ambition, to eschew the anti-slavery cause on leaving college. Its adherents were then not only de-

spised as fanatics by the great business and professional world, but were hated as the enemies of religion and order and the Union. It would have been the most natural and most excusable thing possible if he had kept wholly clear of them. But he did not. He threw himself into the thick of the fight, and, for the thirty years following, he labored as he would not have labored for bread, by speeches, addresses, lectures, articles, lawsuits, in courts, in conventions, in public meetings, in churches, in clubs, for the emancipation of the negro. When the war broke out, he was equally zealous in helping it on and in maintaining the public courage and tenacity. When it was over, he embarked with equal enthusiasm in other good causes, such as civil-service reform and sound currency, and became involved in a great number of controversies on their behalf. His anti-slavery experience and training gave him a love for polemical dialectics which lasted almost till his last illness, but no foe or cause was bad enough to make him lose his temper. No man with so winning an exterior probably ever took part in so many combats. He remained through them all every inch a gentleman, simple, kindly, courteous, hoping all things, believing all things, and forgiving everybody, and bore with uncomplaining fortitude the long period of suffering which closed an illustrious career.

Last week's gold exports to Europe aggregated something over $5,000,000. The total exported for the year to date is about $23,000,000—an amount considerably smaller than the average for the same period in the last two or three years. It is, however, much above the average gold export throughout the past decade, and the reason is plain. Partly because of the paralysis from last year's unprecedentedly violent convulsion, and partly because of the delay in fixing the new laws regulating foreign trade, our industries have not yet revived as had been hoped. With industry stagnant, opportunities for investment are restricted. How sparingly trade is at the moment calling for the use of capital may be seen at a glance in the continuous flow of interior bank deposits to New York. From three to four millions a week are still coming on this account into the vaults of our city institutions, and that with the local money market at its lowest recorded rates. If domestic capital takes this view of the season's American investment market, it is hardly strange that foreign owners of capital on deposit here should look for more immediately profitable fields of investment.

Another "International Bimetallic Conference" met in London last week. Of those present, except Mr. Lidderdale, the late governor of the Bank of England, the only one of real note, or likely to command any public confidence, was the President of the Bank of the Netherlands. The others were in the main, except Mr. Arthur J. Balfour, what we may call, without disrespect, old bimetallic hacks who have for years been wandering from conference to conference, predicting terrible consequences from the appreciation of gold. The appearance of several Australian bankers on the scene is not likely to propitiate the British public, as these gentlemen, by their recent failures after a most reckless conduct of their business, have spread desolation through the United Kingdom, and more particularly Scotland. In fact, as a general rule the more frantic bimetallists are men whose private affairs are in a condition of dilapidation. The prominence of Mr. Balfour in the movement is not likely to help it either in the eyes of business men. He is much better known to the public now than he was when ruling the Irish with a rod of iron as "brave Mr. Balfour." There are apparently some people to whom mathematics are impossible, and who, though brilliant in many other ways, could not, to save their lives, solve one of the simplest problems of Euclid. So also it may be said that there are minds to which a clear idea of the nature and functions of money is impossible. Now, when a man finds that he has no head for mathematics, he generally drops it altogether. He does not go about pretending that he has found ways of proof which leave Euclid without a leg to stand on. But when he finds he has no head for currency, he does not drop it. He goes about pretending that all the old masters were on the wrong track, and indeed that the world is wrong in its love for gold, or for silver, as the case may be, that he has got the only true key to the problem, and that if he is not listened to, something dreadful will happen. Mr. Balfour belongs to the latter class. He is an acute metaphysician and an accomplished littérateur, but he really knows nothing about currency or business, and is apparently incapable of seeing what the real use of money is. Had he not been pushed into prominence by the Irish business, he probably would never have thought of taking up the currency problem at all. Mr. Henry Chaplin's qualifications as an authority on currency are too absurd for discussion. The leading London papers treat the whole business with ridicule, as well they may, and they, of course, really represent the business community.

The small Government majority in England on the registration bill will very likely dwindle still more on the various clauses of the budget, and although the budget may pass, the Liberals will probably see the necessity of dissolving before long. Sir William Harcourt is said to be tired and probably not very enthusiastic, and Lord Rosebery has clearly not held his own as premier. The slight wave of enthusiasm with which he was greeted when he took office has not lasted, and his appeals in behalf of the Irish, and protests against the labor element's machinations against the Liberal party, are pathetic enough to be signs of distress. The labor vote has now become very important; the Irish are disaffected, and the chances are, therefore, strong that the Liberals would be beaten at a general election unless they got the registration bill through. In fact, what a very wise observer said immediately after Mr. Gladstone's retirement is coming true —"This means a great deal more than people think it does." The worst of it is that if Rosebery retires, there is no one marked out distinctly for the Liberal leadership. Sir William Harcourt's health is poor and he is tired of harness. Mr. Morley's is not good either, and he is not supposed to have the kind of temperament that keeps cabinets together. But the worst feature in the situation is that just now there does not seem to be much place for moderate Liberals in England. They are in a decided minority. What with the Irish and Labor, their place seems to be with the Conservatives.

Protectionist organs will be pained to learn that they have not made our industrial situation clear to the puzzled foreigners. Here is the Paris *Débats*, for example, talking about the deep distress caused by "le bill Mac-Kinley," and finding in that the sufficient explanation of our embattled Coxeyites. There really is some excuse for the foreigners. They are not profound enough to take in the subtle explanations which are so clear to our more intelligent public. The foreign contention that our troubles are due to laws passed in 1890 is a miserable specimen of the post-hoc fallacy; while the explanation that all our distress is due to the Democratic victory in the election of November, 1892, is a case of the strictest inductive reasoning. To our acuter minds this is obvious enough, but, for the sake of the duller foreigner, it is to be wished that the demonstration might have been made a little more impressive. If paralysis had fallen on business in this country the very morning after the last Presidential election, instead of waiting for eight months, or if prosperity had continued unabated until the very hour that the Wilson bill became a law, then to be followed by instant bankruptcy, even the thick heads across the Atlantic would have seen the point. As it is, we fear they will go on talking about our affairs in their benighted way. It would not surprise us to see them attributing the revival of business to the Wilson bill.

THE NEW LAWLESSNESS.

ONE of the members of one of the "industrial armies" of the West was heard to say, in the intervals of stealing trains and levying forced contributions on the inhabitants of the towns through which they passed: "We are getting along so well that we wonder nobody ever invented this plan before." There is a novelty about it, but it is in the victims, not the operators, of the plan. Stealing and exaction and obtaining money and sympathy under false pretences are no new discoveries; but what is new is the indifference or actual complacence with which they have come to be looked upon.

The truth is, that a bare statement of the events which have taken place in this country within the past three months is enough to show a most astonishing callousness to the prevalence of crime, and a most alarming tendency to invent flimsy excuses for it. Trains have been stolen by organized mobs, and the same public that called for vengeance upon the Jesse James gang and other express robbers, has weakly said of these industrial train robbers, "Poor fellows, they are out of work and must do something." A whole railroad system has been tied up by a strike with the avowed purpose of coercing the receivers into doing what they did not believe the interests of the stockholders would admit of, mines have been seized and held against their lawful owners, coke ovens raided, factories closed by marching mobs, and with it all there has been little or none of that swift demand for the enforcement of the law and the maintenance of public order which the inherited respect for law makes almost instinctive in an Anglo-Saxon. The newspapers have treated these occurrences either flippantly or in a partisan and perfunctory manner. The politicians have cautiously looked about to see, before speaking, how many votes there might be in it, to be won or to be lost. In few quarters have we seen straightforward talk to the law-breakers or to those, almost equally criminal, who wink at law-breaking because it puts forward some grotesque excuse for itself.

There are, of course, actual laws which these organized tramps and violent strikers and intimidators violate and know they violate. Existing statutes are sufficient to curb them, if duly applied. But it is more at the general spirit and presuppositions of law than any particular enactments that this new lawlessness, in the offender and in the condoner, strikes a dangerous blow. It violates the good faith upon which all normal society rests. Men out of work who pray God they may never find it; strikers against tyrannical corporations who are themselves more arbitrary and cruel than any tyrant; riotous foreigners driving workingmen out of their shops in the name of American liberty and equality—such things so contradict our fundamental ideas of social order that to let them go on unpunished, much more to find cheap palliation for them, is to put that social order in deadly peril. We have, in fact, come dangerously near the condition of things at the time of the French Revolution, when, as Burke says, "the leaders of the present system tell them of their rights, as men, to take fortresses, to murder guards, to seize on kings without the least appearance of authority from the Assembly, while, as the sovereign legislative body, that Assembly was sitting in the name of the nation."

The ghastliest part of all is the way the law-breakers are clamoring for new laws to set all right. What warrant have they that others will have any more reverence for their new laws than they have for those already on the statute-books? Evidently none whatever. They are doing all they can to promote lawlessness, at the same time that they say society is suffering from not having laws enough. There never was a more palpable case of suicide. Suppose, by some bedevilment of Congress, Coxey or the lawless socialists should get the laws they are calling for. Might not the new statutes remain as contemned and spit upon as those which they trample upon every day? To propose to cure the ills of mankind by law, and to go about it by exciting a spirit of universal disregard of all law, is one of the curious twists which have got into the brains of these men.

They and the atmosphere about them and the state of society which tolerates them breed cranks as fast as bad milk does bacteria. It is laughable, but it is also depressing, to note how the men with social crotchets and with perverse convolutions in their gray matter have flocked to Washington to be on hand with their nostrums when the time came to get Congress to adopt suggestions. From men who hold up trains to take the passengers' watches and purses, the gradations run all the way through tramp train-stealers on to the men who have a divine revelation about the proper ratio between gold and silver. They are all in an unholy alliance at present, and are encouraged to go on in their various kinds of crime and craziness by the fatal good-nature, the lazy indifference and the criminal toleration with which the press and the public for the most part look upon their performances. The new lawlessness is most alarming of all in those whose part in it is passive. It would be easy enough to make an end, in one day, of all the disorders by which the country is afflicted and disgraced if there were in the minds of those set to enforce the laws, and, above all, in the minds of those to whom the men set to enforce the laws look for a spur and support in doing their duty, the ancient regard for the sacredness of the law which is our best inheritance and surest strength.

TAMMANY AND HOME RULE.

WE have always wondered that Tammany was not used more freely by the British Unionists as an argument against home rule. It has been used a good deal in private, but not nearly as much in Parliament and on the stump as one would have expected. Lord Salisbury in his speech on Thursday produced it more prominently than any other speaker on his side has hitherto done. It is a perfectly legitimate argument. It is not unfair for people at a distance to infer, from what they see of the government of this city, that the government of Ireland by Irishmen would be something of the same kind. Nor is it unnatural for Lord Salisbury to suppose that, if home rule were granted, the Irish who have been practising the art of government in New York, would hurry home to Ireland to practise it there. But it is a very erroneous inference, nevertheless. It is the kind of mistake into which people constantly fall through judging events at a distance. The Tammany chiefs would not go home, for various reasons. The first is that their pickings and stealings in Ireland would amount to very little, even if they were possible; Ireland being a very poor country. They can make more in New York in a day than they could in Ireland in a year. If they were forced to leave New York, Ireland is probably the last country in the world they would go to. They are much more likely to go to San Francisco, or St. Louis, or Portland, or some other rising American city in which the boss system has not yet been fully established, or, failing this, to some of the South American States, where the bulk of the population is very ignorant and the ruling class small and corrupt.

Moreover, most of them left Ireland in their youth. They have few or no associations with it, and would find no friends there if they went back. They would be received as strangers and Americans, and would get no chances worth mention. And justice compels us to say that no party in Ireland at any time has ever given office, either municipal or state, to men of as low a type as the Tammany men, so ignorant, and illiterate, and characterless. The Irish members of the House of Commons have been a good deal abused by the Unionists, but they are all scholars and gentlemen compared to the Tammany people, and not one of them has ever been accused of corruption of any description, or of any conduct of a dishonorable nature. Nor is there any Irish town or city in which the appearance of men like Gilroy or Croker in the mayoralty or common council would not be an astounding phenomenon. The Irish cities have a good many men in their governing bodies who cannot be called refined or cultivated, but they all have some respectable connection, of

business, property, or ancestry, with the place. The idea of taking a parcel of unknown vagabonds out of the streets and public houses of the town, and making mayors and commissioners of them, has never occurred, we venture to say, to the voters of any Irish municipality.

This much is due to the Irish at home. Something is also due to the Irish here—that is, to the Tammany men themselves. We have always considered the capture of the city of New York by three or four foreign adventurers a wonderful exploit, more wonderful by far than any of the exploits of the Buccaneers in the Spanish Main in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. But nothing happens in politics from one cause only. No man or band of men ever seized and held the government of a community without the conscious or unconscious help of the community itself. Tammany societies do not spring up out of the stones. They spring up out of a prepared soil. These fellows entered the city hall by an open door. They retained the government in 1890, after their character had been fully exposed, by a peaceful majority vote of the citizens. Ever since that year at least, we have all been in the same boat with these Irishmen. They are our lawful agents, chosen by us with full knowledge of their qualifications. They make the city a by-word and a reproach all over the earth with our cognizance and approval. Whatever Lord Salisbury or any one else says about them reflects on us also. We introduced them to foreign nations last year as our lawful representatives. If they go back to Ireland to lie and steal and cheat, we ought all to go with them, and support them there, as we do here, with our approval and acquiescence. We ought to keep our faces straight when they discourse on wealth and taxation and constitutionality there as we do here. We ought, in short, in common decency, after having made them, to share whatever fate may be in store for them.

SOUND-MONEY SENTIMENT IN THE SOUTH.

THE Galveston (Texas) *News*, which is one of the most intelligent and clear-sighted journals in the South, insists that Northern people take too pessimistic a view of Southern sentiment on the financial question. It admits that "there has been a great din of screaming and thundering vociferation here and there in the South for the silver phantasms of the Blands, the Reagans, the Morgans, the Pughs, and the Tillmans," but it points out that "people madly intoxicated with an idea or a stimulant can always make ten times more noise than people who are duly sober." The *News* says, what everybody will allow, that as a rule the latter class are largely in the majority, and it is confident that the present case is not an exception.

As evidence in support of its contention, the *News* quotes from a recent article in the Florida *Citizen*, which admits that the free-silver notion prevailed to an almost alarming extent in some sections of the South during the last campaign, but declares that for some time past sentiment in favor of sound money has been steadily gaining ground. As evidence of this, it cites the fact that during the crisis of last year petition after petition went up to Southern Congressmen urging upon them the importance of an immediate repeal of the Sherman law and a declaration in favor of a sound financial policy for the Government. The *Citizen* thinks this "shows the difference between sentiment and demagogy on the one hand and sound common sense on the other, when an emergency had arisen which took politics out of the question and left it to be settled upon higher grounds." The fact is also pronounced significant that most is heard about the free-silver lunacy when there are offices to be filled the incumbents of which are presumed to hold some sort of notions on economic questions. The *Citizen* goes so far as to assert that "the whole agitation begins and ends with the politicians and demagogues, who seek to make the people believe that their poverty and distress have arisen solely from an improper system of finance."

The Memphis *Appeal-Avalanche* has heartily endorsed the position of the *Citizen*. All through the controversy over the repeal of the silver-purchase act this journal asserted that the politicians grossly exaggerated the feeling in favor of free coinage. It is more positive than ever on this point now. It argues that free coinage benefits only the silver-producers, and would be positively harmful to the South, and it insists that a great proportion of the Southern people share this view.

We find evidence that there is much more support of Mr. Cleveland's position on the financial question among the many smaller newspapers of the South, which come close to the people, than one would judge from reading the few city papers. In Mississippi, for example, the Vicksburg *Commercial Herald*, which is one of the most prominent journals in the State, is bitter against the President and fanatical for free coinage. But in discussing a nomination for Congress the Vicksburg *Post* predicts that the man who espouses the cause of President Cleveland, and stands up boldly for a sound system of national finances, will win. The Jackson *News* concurs in this view, and says: "Sound money would win, and the people would enthusiastically rally to the support of the only Democratic administration we have had in thirty years. The people are with Cleveland, and at the proper time will prove it very conclusively." The Newton County *Progress* is of the same mind, saying: "The people want a sound administration and sound money: some of the Representatives seem to want the country flooded with unsound money and unsound talk."

In Alabama, too, there have been plain signs that the mass of the people are with the President. Senator Morgan has been making speeches in that State full of bitterness against Mr. Cleveland, and his course has been warmly resented. He tried to defend himself at Montgomery the other day, and it is stated that, as he proceeded to expatiate on his free-silver hobby, the audience manifested its disgust by proceeding to leave the house and he was obliged abruptly to close. The overwhelming majority of the local papers throughout the State have condemned the Senator and announced themselves on the President's side.

We agree with the Galveston *News* that such signs as these are full of hope, and we are glad to coöperate with it in bringing them to the notice of the Northern public. But, after all, the only way to judge of public sentiment on the financial question in the long run is by the character of the men who are chosen to make laws bearing on finance. If the people are not crazy about free silver, they must assert themselves when there are offices to be filled, and see that lunatics do not get nominated for Congressmen. The *News* says on this point:

> "The trouble is that the sober majority have not been sufficiently explicit and decided in pronouncing against the follies of the intoxicated minority, and in rebuking the politicians who sought to profit by humoring and contributing to the intoxication. For this reason we have so often had in politics, and more or less in legislation, a riotous régime of lunatics and speculating demagogues, to the grief and humiliation of a too silent and too patient majority."

A majority which is so "silent" and "patient" that it consents to be utterly misrepresented might as well be a minority. The reason Northern people generally consider the South wrong on the financial question is because the Senators and Representatives whom it has elected have as a rule been wrong. It is infinitely pleasanter to believe that the mass of the people are sound, but the only way to demonstrate that fact is for them to send to Congress men who represent them in that attitude.

THE DELPHIAN HYMN TO APOLLO.

AMONG the recent spoil collected by the French School of Archæology at Delphi are two hymns to Apollo found last year in the Treasury of the Athenians. They are published in the current number of the *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique*, under the able editorship of M. Henri Weil and M. Théodore Reinach. One of them is prefaced by a decree of the Delphians which confers on the author, Aristonoos, a Corinthian, various privileges and complimentary titles in token of gratitude for

the offering of his muse. His hymn, dating from the third or second century B. C., consists of six glyconic stanzas displaying more art than inspiration, yet composed with a certain elegance that savors faintly of Callimachus. It is worth noticing that the lapidary has, to a certain extent, marked the metrical couplets by breaks in the lines of the inscription.

By far the most remarkable novelty, however, is the fragment of a pæan, accompanied by musical notes which are reproduced in modern musical notation by M. Reinach. The words and music are found on two mutilated slabs, which, for weighty reasons, appear to belong together. The music was performed in Athens last March at a reception given by the French School, and the words have already attained the distinction of being parodied by the irreverent Athenian newspapers. It was composed by an Athenian, to be sung by a chorus of his countrywomen as a processional hymn, during a thanksgiving ceremonial at Delphi for the deliverance of Athens from the invasion of the Gauls. These circumstances account for its preservation in the Athenian treasury as part of the official record of this "theoria." The date may be placed near 278 B. C., soon after the Gauls had attempted to pillage the temple and were miraculously foiled in their attack. The poet begins with an invocation to the son of Zeus and an allusion to his victory over the dragon Python, which he evidently compares to the recent repulse of the "impious warlike host of Gauls." At this point the thread is lost, but in the second fragment it is resumed with an invitation to the Muses to leave the deep forests of Helicon, and sing of their golden-haired brother who, dwelling on twin-peaked Parnassus, visits amid high-born Delphian dames the fountain of Castalia. Finally the poet addresses the chorus of Athenian women, who by the grace of Athene "dwell in a land inviolate, while on the altars burn the thighs of bulls, and the breath of Arabian incense mounts to Olympus," amid the airs of shrill-toned flutes and of the cithara.

The style of the poem shows more animation, spontaneity, and lyrical spirit than might be expected in an official composition of this period. The rhythm is pæonian, a movement especially consecrated to Apollo and the pæan; a rhythm, however, in five-eighths time, equally unknown to modern verse and modern music. The present example is not antistrophic in arrangement, like Pindar's 2d Olympian and 5th Pythian; the pæons follow continuously without admixture of other feet, and exhibit a license in combinations of short syllables which Simonides rarely, if ever, permitted himself. As the lapidary followed the musician's copy which was prepared for the use of the singers, he incidentally furnishes us with some curious information on the subject of pronunciation as well as of musical enunciation. When a vowel or diphthong is sung on two notes, the lapidary writes the vowel twice; a diphthong is sometimes repeated, sometimes resolved into its elements, for example: ταύρων, εὐύδρου, ᾠδαῖσι are written ταούρων, ἐουύδρου, ᾠδαεῖσι, This furnishes a clue to the pronunciation of the period, and some interesting evidence as to the original sound of the vowel *υ*. Such duplication or resolution we might expect, *a priori*, in every case where, in strophe and antistrophe, a long syllable corresponds to two shorts.

The chief value of the discovery, however, arises from the light it throws upon ancient music: it is, in fact, the longest and most authentic specimen we possess of the early music of the Greeks. While the theory of music is discussed at some length in treatises that bear the names of Aristoxenus, Euclid, Alypius, and others, hardly any actual examples have come down to us save some mediocre compositions of the epoch of the Antonines, a short inscription from Tralles, and a wretched morsel of a chorus from the "Orestes" of Euripides. While the present fragments give us no information that is essentially new, they confirm the facts already in our possession. The musical signs employed are modifications of the letters of the Ionian alphabet, each note being placed over the corresponding syllable of the text. If the same pitch is sustained over successive syllables, the note is written only once, over the first syllable to which it belongs.

In transcribing the melody in modern musical notation, M. Théodore Reinach was confronted by a problem that might have been insoluble. The same letter, in different modes or scales, expresses a different absolute pitch; and Alypius preserves the notation of fifteen different scales, each in the diatonic, the chromatic, and the enharmonic genera. It may be well to explain that in ancient Greek music the scale consisted of four notes (instead of eight as with us), comprising a "tetrachord." The extreme notes of the tetrachord form the modern interval of a fourth (E—A). The matter was complicated, however, by the use of three "genera"—the diatonic, in which the three intervals comprised two whole tones and one semitone (as with us); the chromatic, comprising two semitones and one interval of one and one-half tones; the enharmonic, comprising two quarter tones and one interval of two full tones (a major third). Furthermore, there were a variety of "modes"—Dorian, Phrygian, Lydian, and others—governing the order in which the prescribed intervals should occur. Each could be applied to any one of the three genera. Fortunately, twelve of the fourteen signs employed in this hymn are at once discovered in Alypius's diagram of scales of the Phrygian "tone" or "trope." The air, while written, as might have been expected, in the Dorian mode, offers an interesting example of those mixtures of genera and modes which characterize the elaborate and artificial style of the post-classical epoch, passing from a diatonic opening to a chromatic passage, and swinging to and fro in accordance with the sentiment of the poetry.

If we inquire why the music of this hymn sounds strangely to the modern musically cultivated ear, we shall find the reason in the unusual time (5/8), and in the use of certain progressions to which we are not accustomed. The strangeness of the time soon disappears when the music is studied carefully. We are then conscious that the melody has a somewhat monotonous character, and that this is due to the frequent recurrence of certain peculiar progressions, and to the curious fact that the verses, as such, do not seem to have suggested to the composer musical phrases coextensive with them, as we find them in modern lyric music. One feels that the foot was more to the composer than the verse. It is worthy of note that, when sung quickly enough to grasp such phrasing as there is, the melody becomes decidedly trivial; whereas, when sung much more slowly (say 1/8 = M.M. 54), every suggestion of phrasing disappears; but the effect is noble and not unlike that of a Gregorian chant. This is not surprising. The human voice has in it such a quality of sympathy that, if the hearer is given sufficient time to receive the impression, even single notes are impressive, especially if sung by many voices in unison. We incline to believe that this hymn was chanted in very slow time—not faster than sixty eighth-notes (twelve bars) to the minute.

Some of the progressions suggest the Æolian harp, a characteristic also of the music of primitive and notably of savage peoples. Certain passages are pitched decidedly lower than the rest, and suggest the possibility that the chorus was composed of sopranos and contraltos, or possibly of male and female voices.

It may be easily verified by trial that, in the least satisfying parts of the hymn, the judicious insertion of a bass note makes everything right. This suggests the inquiry whether that which seems to be lacking was not supplied by notes struck on the *barbiton*, while the *auloi* sustained the voice. There is another inscription which shows instrumental in lieu of vocal notation; but it is held that it must have been written for the voice because the syllables are repeated when a quarter note is resolved into two eighths. This argument is far from convincing. The player would need to know, not only the length of each note—which he might infer from the number and quantities of the syllables—but also how many times that note was to be struck; for which no other provision seems to be made except this of repeating the syllable when a long in the verse corresponds to two shorts in the air. Surely, when instrumental music is provided with words, the burden of proof must rest on those who deny an instrumental accompaniment. That this was the function of the stringed instruments seems a reasonable conjecture. While the flutes would be adapted to sustain the voice, the stringed instruments, which it seems to be proved were also used, were, from the nature and the limited duration of their notes, and especially from the lack of semitones, quite unadapted to the purpose. What, then, was their function, if not to supply from time to time the bass note which is needed as the bond of union and the key, so to speak, of the musical combination?

Mere accident, if nothing else, could not fail to reveal to the Greek artists that a bass note at a proper interval would improve the effect of an upper note. A string accidentally twanged while one sang would be enough. Is it conceivable that an æsthetic people like the Greeks would fail to utilize such a discovery? We do not affirm that they did so in their religious music, where they may have been fettered by archaic tradition; but that instrumental accompaniments not in unison with the melody were not unknown to them might be guessed *a priori*, even if it were not sufficiently proved, as it seems to be, by the well-known texts from Plato (Legg. 812 D) and Aristotle (Probl. xix., 39). If the instrumental accompanists were not usually furnished with a score in their own notation, which seems the more probable opinion, it is reasonable to believe that the professional musicians were so trained in harmony that they were able to furnish a bass to the melody even without one—a thing which a little practice will enable any one to do who possesses a good ear, provided the melody is not too complicated. And this is, perhaps, what Plato means when, in the same passage, he names accompaniments different from the melody as one of the things which are too perplexing for a boy to learn in a three years' course; although, with the aid of the modern pianoforte, it is not found very difficult to teach even young children to harmonize in a much shorter time.

JAPANESE POLITICS.—II.

Tokyo, April 2, 1894.

Again and again it has been said abroad and in some of the local English newspapers in Japan that the strict treaty-enforcement measure is evidence that the Japanese have renewed their old hatred of foreigners. The most friendly construction has been that the Japanese are justly incensed against foreigners for refusing to grant new and liberal treaties in place of the present obsolete and unjust ones. Under the present treaties the Japanese Government cannot frame its own tariff on imports or exports. It has no jurisdiction over foreigners who commit offences in the country or who are sued by Japanese. Foreign courts are established in the treaty ports by various governments to try their own subjects, and in this way Japan is put on a par with Turkey or Morocco. These and certain other restrictions on the sovereignty of Japan are undoubtedly irritating to a high-strung people like the Japanese, and it may indeed have entered the minds of a few fanatical and inexperienced members of Parliament, who are influenced by the old spirit of patriotism (*Yamato damashi*), that the only way to secure absolute sovereignty is to put the screws upon the foreigners in Japan as far as the treaties permit.

But the vast majority of the members are perfectly aware that this is not only an unjust but a highly inexpedient view of the situation. They know that it would be perfectly impossible for any cabinet, even of their own party, strictly to enforce the treaties, and their only object is to annoy the present Government and force it to resign. Mr. Fukuzawa, one of the best-known men in Japan, who thoroughly understands his countrymen, has said, both in private and in his paper, the *Jiji Shimpo*, that the so-called anti-foreign movement is merely a "stick to beat the Government with. This is only a family quarrel, and foreigners need not bother themselves about it." The only danger has been that politicians might, for the sake of temporary agitation, succeed in inflaming the minds of the more guileless country people, though up to the present no serious consequences have followed.

Three times the Japanese Government has been in sight of treaty revision, and in every instance negotiations were broken off, not by the foreign governments, but by the Japanese themselves. The last serious attempt was made by Count Okuma, Minister of Foreign Affairs, in 1889. The provisions of this treaty (or rather of these treaties, since they were made with all the important powers) were in the main excellent. The Japanese at first hailed it with acclamation, and bestowed the most extravagant praise upon Count Okuma for having at last solved the knotty question. Even the foreign community in Yokohama did not protest against it, as they undoubtedly would to-day. Slowly, however, the temper of the press and people began to change. An undercurrent of opposition to the new treaty began, growing most mysteriously in strength and volume, until it overwhelmed the former friends of the treaty. This opposition finally culminated in an attempt upon Count Okuma's life and the withdrawal of the treaty. It is now hardly an open secret, however, that this whole unpatriotic and inexpedient movement was manufactured by the Sat-Cho enemies of Count Okuma, who were jealous of his success and determined to undermine him. What men were the head and front of this intrigue need not be specified; it is enough for our present purpose that Count Ito, the present Premier, and Count Inouye, now Minister of the Interior, were among the instigators of it, and to-day they and Japan are suffering the consequences. Count Okuma, who is undoubtedly the most ingenious political manager in Japan, is employing all his resources, as leader of the *Kaishinto*, to get even with those who wrecked his fortunes. He would indeed be more than human were he tamely to look on and see his opponents carry out his programme and reap his honors. Thus the genius of intrigue broods over Japan, and ruins its most cherished purposes. The so-called anti-foreign sentiment, the strict treaty-enforcement measures, are simply grist for the mill of those who wish to overthrow the present Sat-Cho cabinet, and who employ any means to succeed in the attempt. If there is any feeling of hostility towards foreigners, it has a most feeble hold upon the people, and would soon die a natural death except that it is fanned into life by intriguing politicians and partisan newspapers. Count Okuma himself and the *Kaishinto* have always been known to be friendly to foreigners.

On March 1 the elections for a new Parliament were held. The cabinet took extraordinary precautions to have a fair and peaceful election, as even the Opposition newspapers have confessed. The only real issue before the country was the question of the strict enforcement of treaties. The Progressionists and National Unionists at first tried to champion this cause, but they soon discovered that the country utterly refused to respond to their appeals. One of the ablest leaders of the *Kaishinto*, who was known to have favored the address, had to publish a defence of his conduct, in which he carefully explained that his action was in no way based upon an anti-foreign prejudice. In the former election he was returned almost without opposition. In spite of his great popularity and the untiring efforts of his party, he barely escaped defeat by a majority of two. Abei Hankon, perhaps the most enthusiastic supporter of the address, was defeated, though he was one of the most respected men of his district. Most significant of all, however, was the fact that Hoshi Toru, known to be the most vigorous opponent of this measure, who only a few months before had been ignominiously expelled from the House, was elected by a larger majority than before.

A comparison of the important parties in the present and the former Parliament tells the story succinctly. The *Jiyuto*, who were the chief party to oppose the address, commanded seventy-seven members in the old House. They succeeded in returning 126 members, thus achieving a success as astonishing as it was gratifying. In political tact and generalship they are far behind the Progressionists. Their leader, Count Itagaki, has even been taunted with his want of sense in the art of "practical politics." The *Kaishinto*, who had forty-three members in the old House, succeeded in returning only fifty-seven, a gain of but fourteen seats, in spite of their excellent organization and management. The *Kokumin Kyokai*, the allies of the *Kaishinto* in advocating the address, and the real conservatives of the country, found their numbers reduced from over seventy to thirty-five or six. The *Jiyuto*, therefore, need only the votes of twenty-five or six independents to carry the field.

Ever since the election, the *Kaishinto* have made every possible effort to establish a union for the sake of getting a majority against the *Jiyuto*. Thus far, however, they have failed to accomplish their purpose. As a last resort, the *Kaishinto* newspapers have formed a league of all the opposition press, including several journals that have hitherto stood aloof from party contests. The avowed object of this league is to bring about the formation of party cabinets and to oppose the measures of Count Ito and the *Jiyuto*. The manifesto states that the doctrine of strict treaty-enforcement is the most important means of securing treaty revision.

The Government has appointed May 12 as the date of the next meeting of Parliament, and it will then be seen whether this league will be able to bring about a majority against the Government.

G. D.

ÎLE DE FRANCE AND PICARDY.—I.

London, April, 1894.

I may sum up our short tour taken in Lent by saying that we travelled 450 miles, were never over 80 miles from Paris, were gone 10 days, and spent less than 16 francs a day apiece. We visited five cathedral towns, five other towns, of which three had interesting castles, examined a score of churches, and saw unnumbered others from the slow-moving cars well enough to enjoy their picturesqueness and even to give a shrewd guess at their age. It would have been better to spend more time, but that was impossible, and we can say that we never hurried save when we were obliged by the regulations to put ourselves into the power of a guide.

This part of the country is the cradle of ogival architecture, which the Renaissance called Gothic to show its contempt for a style that was then out of fashion. In the south of France one finds fine examples of the pure Romance style that preceded the ogival, but in the north are the best specimens of the transition: the churches grow more and more lofty and are more and more richly decorated, and the sculptures pass from the rude but vigorous and expressive figures of the twelfth century into the skilful work of the fourteenth, gaining in proportion, in truth to nature, in beauty, but sometimes losing with their quaintness a part of their charm. It is true these changes may be studied within a single church, for the cathedrals, though often quickly built, were slowly completed, their construction running over two or three centuries and each generation leaving its impress upon the part that it added to the great pile. This diversity of style adds wonderfully to the interest. It is pleasant to follow out the variations in different parts of the building, to make discoveries for one's self, as, for instance, to detect the lateral enlargement of the cathedral at Amiens by the difference in the masonry of the outer and inner half of the chapel walls in the nave, the outer half having evidently been the original buttresses.

Soissons was the first city we came to. The contrast with the metropolis was complete and striking. We admired its clean streets, remembering the black mud and dingy houses of St. Denis; we enjoyed the strangeness of lines of houses where no one resembled its neighbor in form or size; and the odd-shaped roofs, with their red or green or blackened tiles, offered bits to charm a painter in search of the picturesque. It is difficult to say which is the most admirable, the cathedral which has just been restored in the most conscientious manner, and is as fresh inside as when it was first built (without being in the least modern), or the Abbey of St. Jacques des Vignes, of which only the two towers of the gateway are left, still showing the marks of the bombardment by the Prussians. Those towers are so light, so well proportioned, they stand out against

the sky (which one sees not only between, but through them) with such distinctness, that the abbey when complete must have been less beautiful. It was their effective photograph that had led us to go to Soissons. There are two or three other churches worth a visit, especially one now used as a gymnasium, a bit of pure Romanesque architecture which the traveller should not fail to see and study. To reach it he passes through the little market-place planted thick with trees that have been pollarded after the French fashion till the trunks end in a mass of knots forming a capital, as it were, of double the diameter of the trunk, from which gnarled and twisted branches run out horizontally till the little wood seems not real, but a weird design of Doré.

Soissons has a long military history, beginning with the victory of Clovis near its walls and running through numerous sieges down to 1871, when the defenders attempted to keep off the Germans by damming the Aisne and flooding all the country around; but without success. Even now one of the ancient abbeys serves as barracks, what is left of another harbors the military bakehouse, and the red jackets seem more numerous in the street than the citizens themselves.

It is interesting to observe, when one goes even so small a distance from Paris as to Soissons or Reims, what a difference there is in the facial type. Of course at Paris there is a mixture from all the provinces, to say nothing of the foreigners coming from many parts of the world. Yet there is a prevailing Parisian look, especially among the lower classes, which one feels, though it is not easy to describe. In the north there is the same face, but combined with others which show that the Netherlands are near. At Reims especially one sees in the streets two peculiar types, one a long Flemish countenance, such as often occurs in the early Flemish paintings, the other a short Celtic face. Both of them are to be found again in the carvings of the cathedral. Every one knows the much-pictured cathedral of Reims. It will repay many a visit, but I will leave it with this, for I remember that the old canon who rightly calls it "l'estonnement de toute la chrestienté pour la structure et cimeltrie des bastiments," says that "les regardants en l'admirant se taisent plus tost que d'en parler." Less known and less rich, but not inferior in interest, is the abbey church of St. Remi, two centuries older, though, like all the Romanesque churches, it has been added to and rebuilt, and shows a curious mixture of styles. It was erected over the spot where St. Remi chose to be buried, intimating his will in a way that recalls the table-tippings of a later day, for his coffin stopped short when the bearers were taking it to the Church of St. Timothy, and refused to budge as one church after another was named, till at last they reached the name of St. Christopher, who had a little chapel falling into ruins on this spot, when the burden became as light as a feather. All this may be seen in the tapestries given to the church by Robert de Lenoncourt, and is set forth in their inscriptions :

"Tout le clergie par bō accord
Coeliut que auecques l'ayde de dieu
Seroit entre le saict corps
En leglise saïct timothee.

"Le sarcuell ne peuluent porter
Au diet lieu ni en aultre pars
Prient dieu les recōforter
Et que de la falent despart.

"En une eglise anclenement falcte
Est mys le corps en digne sepulture
La uoulonte de dieu fut lors parfaicte
Car de la tere on fist large ouuerture."

It was this Archbishop Robert de Lenoncourt, by the way, whose coffin was sacrilegiously opened by the prévôt of the cathedral and five canons in 1741, when they passed their hands over his body and found all the flesh still on the bones after two hundred years of burial, though it was "un peu mollasse." The tapestries which he gave to St. Remi deserve a careful study, as does also his gift to the cathedral. Shown with the latter are two after Raphael made at the Gobelins. They are marvellous copies of famous pictures; but I must confess that they do not give me so much pleasure as the ruder compositions whose naïveté is suited to such inscriptions as I have copied above. There are some other tapestries in the cathedral which, strangely enough, were designed by a Protestant, Daniel Pepersack. As the heads of the Virgin were not well done, it was attributed to his Protestantism, and only two of the fifteen are shown. The Museum, the Roman arch of triumph, the House of the Musicians, and many other curious old houses, the old church of St. Jacques, the older church of St. Remi, and the archepiscopal palace—all these having been seen, and the cathedral visited repeatedly without exhausting it, we were yet sorry to be denied the sight of another church of admirable design, built in part by a son of the architect of the cathedral. Save the tomb of Jovinus, the finest Roman bas-relief in France, nothing is left of this church. In the first Revolution, whose destroying hand we find everywhere, the noted Santerre, brewer and general, bought it of the State, pulled it down, and sold the materials.

We had heard of the severer manners of the province, for French writers are wont to insist on the devout dulness of country towns. Reims, to be sure, is a large city, but we had not expected to see the masks and costumes of Mardi Gras rushing through the streets with discordant cries on the first Sunday in Lent, and to find the same evening a variety show in full activity from eight to twelve, followed by a ball from twelve to daylight. It may be that there is a revival of religiosity in France; I can only say that at none of the dozen inns we went to on our trip did we see any signs of abstention from meat, nor had the butchers' shops the appearance of a decreasing traffic.

C. R.

MARSHAL OUDINOT.

PARIS, April 25, 1894.

MARSHAL OUDINOT was one of the men who in time to come, when history has been replaced by legend, will appear around the central figure of Napoleon as we now see Roland and Turpin around Charlemagne. It may be said of such men as Oudinot that their history assumes even in our own eyes almost the character of a legend. He received no less than thirty wounds, some of them very severe, before he was made a marshal of France; he was the son of a beer-brewer of Bar-le-Duc, in Lorraine, and he became Duke of Reggio. He was born in 1767, under the old régime, and he died, at the age of eighty-one, in 1847, as Governor of the Invalides.

He was educated for trade, but his military vocation was irresistible, and he enlisted in 1784 in the regiment of Médoc infantry at Perpignan, at the age of sixteen. When the Revolution broke out, he was elected chief of battalion; and then began his life of war and adventure. He took an active part in all the operations of the army of the Rhine under Moreau; afterwards he made the campaign of Switzerland under Masséna, and took the most glorious part in the battle of Zürich; he was besieged with Masséna in Genoa, and their long resistance during the severest blockade allowed Napoleon, who had become First Consul, to win the battle of Marengo. During this famous blockade "we were reduced," wrote Oudinot, "to such misery that our soldiers thought themselves fortunate to eat the straw of the hospitals; this last resource failed us, and we kept our strength only by drinking the generous wines which we had found in abundance in the cellars of Genoa. The sentries, who could no longer stand, kept their posts sitting on gilded chairs and drinking Médoc wine from excess of misery."

We cannot follow Oudinot to the camp of Boulogne, in the campaign against Austria during which he was commander-in-chief of the new grenadiers, to Hollabrunn, where his behavior was truly heroic, to Neufchâtel, to Dantzig, to Friedland. After the peace of Tilsit, he returned to Bar-le-Duc to see his family. He there made the acquaintance of Mlle. de Coucy, who, four years afterwards, was to become his wife. The Duchess of Reggio wrote in her last days memoirs which are now published, at least partially, under the title of 'Récits de Guerre et de Foyer,' and with the sub-title "Le Maréchal Oudinot, Duc de Reggio," by Gaston Stiegler.

The Duchess of Reggio gives an interesting account of the life which she led in Lorraine as Mlle. de Coucy. Her father was captain in the regiment of Artois and a knight of Saint Louis. Her grandmother was a Scotchwoman of the name of Cunningham. The Coucys were very numerous, and lived in the most patriarchal manner. As they belonged to the nobility, however, they were persecuted during the Revolution. The father and mother of the Duchess of Reggio were imprisoned, as well as her sister, who was only fourteen years old. She herself was only two and a half years old at the time, and was put in prison with her mother.

"Suddenly there is a rumor that the younger Robespierre is coming to our neighborhood, as representative of the people. With great difficulty my maid, the brave Rosalie, who had *popularized* herself by excess of devotion, and had thus contrived to remain free, and was, on the outside of the prison, looking after all our interests, obtained permission to take me out for a moment. She took me from the arms of these horrid men, who prided themselves on the name of *sans-culottes*. I remember that they had on their heads foxes' skins; the man who gave me to my maid had let the long tail of the beast dangle down his back, following all his movements; it gave me a terrible fright. I wept, but Rosalie had her plan."

Rosalie very sensibly brought the child to Robespierre, whom she found in bed. Robespierre had the case explained to him. "Why," said he, "she is two and a half years old, and they have issued a warrant against her. What an absurdity! Do they want to make the Government ridiculous? Let her be set free at once." Rosalie obtained nothing for the mother, so she kept the child herself and kept her for a long time.

There are many charming details in the account which the Duchess of Reggio gives of the days of her youth, spent in the troubled times of the Directory. Often did she hear the name of Oudinot, who had risen rapidly to the highest rank in the army, and was cited everywhere in Lorraine as a type of bravery in battle and of generosity after the victory. Her own family was royalist, and admired Oudinot for the humanity which he had shown in the war of the Vendée. His name was constantly pronounced before them coupled with the name of Bonaparte, which was beginning to be in

everybody's mouth, as he was already considered the saviour of France. At Bar, where she lived with her sister and her brother-in-law, Oudinot was regarded almost as public property. His first wife resided there, and he came to live with her in the intervals of his campaigns. Mlle. de Coucy was presented to the general for the first time in 1808. "I must tell here what idea I had formed of the commander-in-chief of the grenadiers, a formidable corps which went under the name of the Infernal Column. I represented him to myself as extremely tall and strong, with a voice of thunder, always speaking and moving with the tone and air of command, armed to the teeth, and with a big sword." She found a very different Oudinot, sitting in his garden, moving with difficulty as he was nursing his leg, which had been broken at Dantzig not long before, very kindly and polite. He asked Mme. Oudinot to give some flowers to the girl who was to become in a few years his second wife. Shortly afterwards, Oudinot received the title of count and was given the domain of Inoclavo, which was worth 80,000 francs a year. He bought, in the neighborhood of Bar, the estate of Jeand'heure, which had been sold nationally under the Revolution—an old abbey, founded in the middle ages by the order of the Premonstrants, and which became his favorite residence.

During the Congress of Erfurt, Napoleon appointed Oudinot governor of the city, and he came, in that capacity, in contact with all the sovereigns and princes who congregated round the man who seemed at the time to be the arbiter of the world. Napoleon presented Oudinot to the Emperor Alexander in these words: "Sire, I present to you the Bayard of the French army; like the famous knight, he is without fear and without reproach." "I have known him for a long time," answered Alexander, alluding to the campaign in Switzerland. A new campaign began in 1809 against Austria, and after the death of Lannes the Emperor gave the command of the second corps to Oudinot. During the battle of Wagram, Oudinot took the initiative at an important moment and stormed Wagram without waiting for orders. The next day Napoleon said to him: "Do you know what you did yesterday?" "Sire, I hope I did not do my duty too badly." "What you have done. . . . You deserved to be shot." A few days afterwards, in the official order of the day, Napoleon wrote: "His Majesty owes the success of his arms to the Duke of Rivoli and to Oudinot, who pierced the centre of the enemy while the Duke of Auerstädt turned their left flank"; and he appointed Oudinot marshal of France. A month afterwards he gave him the estate of Reggio in Calabria, with the title of duke and an income of 80,000 francs a year.

Mme. Oudinot died after a short illness in the spring of 1811; the marshal was at the time in Holland, charged with an important mission, at once military and diplomatic. She had borne her husband two sons and four daughters; the eldest daughter had been married shortly before to Gen. Pajol. A year afterwards, Oudinot came back to Bar, and in an interview with M. de la Guérivière, the brother in-law of Mlle. de Coucy, he told him that he wished to marry again, and that his choice had fallen on Mlle. de Coucy. "She knows," he said, "that I have six children, but they are good children. You will tell Mlle. de Coucy that I am forty-four years old and that I have 500,000 francs a year. As for my social position, she knows what it is, and I shall be happy to have her share it with me." Mlle. de Coucy had no hesitation, and accepted the offer. She was well prepared for this union by the admiration she had always felt for the marshal, and also by the efforts made by all her family, which saw a powerful ally and friend in one of the favorite lieutenants of the Emperor.

The marriage took place at the beginning of 1812, and, soon afterward, Oudinot, who was commander-in-chief of the second corps of the Grand Army, had to leave Lorraine for Westphalia. He asked his wife to accompany him to Münster, and she was very proud and happy to do so. She herself explains what her feelings were at the time of her marriage: "I was united to a man towards whom I felt irresistibly drawn, but who inspired me with a sort of timidity. . . . I was passing from a calm, uniform, and reserved life to an external life, going, without any transition, from the shade to the light." The journey was made in a post-chaise, with a numerous suite. All was new to the young Duchess. She was accompanied by her stepdaughter, the wife of General de Lorencez; their united ages formed a total of thirty-six only. She arrived with the second corps at Berlin. Oudinot had been ordered by the Prince of Neufchâtel, major-general of the army, to make a triumphal entry into the capital of Prussia. France was at the time in a delicate situation with regard to Prussia, which was nominally our ally. Frederick William had allowed the French armies to traverse his kingdom, but he had himself left the capital with his family for Potsdam.

The Russian campaign was beginning. Napoleon was on the point of arriving in person, and Oudinot sent his wife back to France; she made the journey with Mme. de Lorencez and Mme. Pajol. She was living in great retirement at Bar when she heard that her husband had been severely wounded in the shoulder, and had been obliged to leave the command of his corps to Gouvion-Saint-Cyr. "I start for Wilna," she exclaimed, as soon as she heard that Oudinot had been carried to that city. She was accompanied by her uncle, who would not let her travel alone. She tells at great length, in her Souvenirs, the incidents of the journey, her meeting at Berlin with Marshal Augereau, the difficulties of the roads, the arrival at Wilna, amidst all the signs of war—dead horses already reduced to skeletons, abandoned carriages. She had but one thought. She found the marshal with his arm still in a sling, but convalescent. At Wilna she saw the Duke of Bassano and the Count Louis de Narbonne, the Narbonne of the Revolution, now in the diplomatic service of the Emperor. The news from the army was kept secret, but everybody felt that all was not right. Oudinot was becoming more and more anxious, and, hearing that Gouvion-Saint-Cyr, who had replaced him, had been wounded in his turn, he decided immediately, and without waiting for orders, to start at once for the seat of war, finding himself sufficiently well. The second corps was already retreating towards the Beresina.

The two corps of Oudinot and of the Duke of Belluno were the only corps of the Grand Army which were still compact and organized; but they consisted together of no more than 25,000 men. Oudinot made great efforts to secure the passage of the Beresina for the bulk of the army; but in the battles which took place he was wounded again, and had to be carried off the field. The surgeons could not extract the ball which had struck him, and he had to be carried towards Wilna in a high fever and in the most terrible cold. He was accompanied by his eldest son Victor. The little escort had to fight the straggling Cossacks from time to time. Mme. Oudinot was struck, when she saw her husband again, not only by his physical state, but by the despairing view which he took of the situation. Napoleon, on hearing of the conspiracy of Malet, left the army to return rapidly to Paris. The famous twenty-eighth bulletin was published, and France as well as Europe knew the whole extent of the disaster which ended the Russian campaign. Oudinot heard almost with despair that all his artillery had been lost; he abandoned all hope of making of Wilna a centre of further resistance, and consented to leave the city with his wife. His ball could not be extracted, and he had still to be carried with many precautions.

Correspondence.

CREDIT TO WHOM CREDIT IS DUE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of April 12, page 273, there is a paragraph on the general subject of the discovery of the variation of terrestrial latitudes. The specific object of this paragraph is to show that a section of the *Publications of the Astronomical Society of the Pacific* (for which section I am responsible) is so worded as to *purposely* convey the impression that the discovery in question was made by a foreign and not by an American astronomer. Your correspondent finds that "a preference for attributing discoveries to foreigners . . ." "is not extinct on the Pacific Coast," and that, in order to effectively convey this preference, "words are omitted in a way that might be called garbling." Please observe that your correspondent lays the stress on intentions which he discovers in a short paragraph which purports to state only the *results* of the observations of the past year, and which omits not only the honored names of Chandler and Newcomb, but those of Euler, Peters, Nyrén, Nobile, Kuestner, and a host of others as well. In short, the paragraph in question does not mention a single name, and deals, not with history, but with results. In this brief paragraph your correspondent sees only an intention to depreciate American astronomers! Will it be believed that the very "completed volume" which your correspondent held in his hand contained not only the obnoxious paragraph, but an elaborate article (page 191) giving a careful treatment of the whole subject, and assigning with scrupulous exactness the share of each investigator in the development of this great discovery?

In my article in the *Forum* for August, 1893, "America's Achievements in Astronomy" (there's a patriotic title for you!), I have twice referred to this "brilliant discovery" which was made by Dr. Chandler, and which has received an important addition from Prof. Newcomb. But your correspondent sees only the short paragraphic summary of results; he discovers only a disposition on the part of various people to depreciate American work, and to garble; and fails to read the long article which contains the very statements which, he says, are purposely omitted!

When one comes across a good old-fashioned robust slander of this sort, one considers who will read it, and what its effect will be, and regulates his answer accordingly. This particular accusation will be seen by the intelligent readers of the *Nation*. I do not believe, for one instant, that they will credit any insinua-

tion of the sort; and I am sure that they will not after I explicitly deny the "preference for attributing discoveries to foreigners," the "garbling," etc., as I now most emphatically do. The accusation is simply not true, whether it relates to the Pacific Coast, the Astronomical Society of the Pacific, the staff of the Lick Observatory, or to me personally. With that I leave the matter for the present.

Respectfully, EDWARD S. HOLDEN.

MOUNT HAMILTON, April 24, 1894.

[We regret that Prof. Holden mistakes the subject of our note, which was not the variation of latitudes, nor any general indisposition on his part to give credit to Americans, but a certain backwardness on the part of American popular writers, especially those of a generation ago, in giving credit to the scientific work of their countrymen. The case in question was cited only as an unimportant and yet rather striking example of this.

Some three years ago, the German astronomers, by a series of very refined observations, brought to light an enigmatical variation of the latitudes of places on the earth's surface. About two years ago, one American astronomer worked out the law of this variation, from a profound discussion of an immense mass of observations, old as well as recent; and another soon after explained the phenomenon in one or more published papers. In his anniversary address as President of the Royal Society, Kelvin outlined these researches substantially in the order in which we have described them, setting forth what had been done by the two American astronomers, expressing his acceptance of the theory on which one of them had based his explanation, and characterizing the result as "the present year's great advance in geological dynamics.". An abstract of the passage is published in an American journal, in which the passages referring to the American astronomers are rendered in such a way that the reader would never for a moment suspect that any American had had anything to do with the discovery, which would seem entirely due to the International Geodetic Association and Lord Kelvin himself. Prof. Holden does not mend the case by mentioning five European names which were also omitted, because of these five names only one appears in the address.

The fact that the same journal subsequently reprinted from another journal an article on the subject written by a professor in the Leland Stanford University, in which due credit was given to the Americans in question, would certainly relieve Prof. Holden from the imputation of being determined to ignore the work of his fellow-countrymen, had we ever brought any such charge against him. But we were not aware that he was personally responsible for the article on which we commented, and, although he does not say so, we believe and are willing to maintain that the omission was merely the result of haste in preparing the abstract.—ED. NATION.]

A LAW-MAKING CABINET.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I hope your friend "G. B." will pardon me for getting ahead of him for once on his great and all-absorbing topic; but I have so long "sat at the feet of Gamaliel" that I can feel and appreciate the benefits of cabinet over committee legislation as fully as the great sage himself.

Your Constitutional Convention will meet in Albany on the 8th of this month, and will have an opportunity for many valuable experiments. My proposition is simply this: Let one Senator and four members of the Assembly be elected by the State at large; pay these five members of the Legislature a salary sufficient to compensate them for their whole time, and demand that their whole time shall be given to the business of legislation. These five men would fill the place in the framing and pressing forward of laws which is, in England or France, taken by the Cabinet, and would, more than any contrivance yet invented in this country, break up the operations of the lobby. The election of representatives at large is nothing new in American politics; the participation of executive officers in the debates of a law-making assembly is. If the beneficial ends of your friend "G. B." can be attained, in great part at least, by ways not unfamiliar to our people, let us try those ways.

My plan contemplates that all, or all but one, of the professional lawmakers should belong to the same party, like a true cabinet; but this is matter of detail.—Truly yours,

L. N. D.

LOUISVILLE, KY., May 4, 1894.

AN APPEAL FOR GREECE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Some public service in Greece, deepening a life-long sympathy with her brave and struggling people, must be my warrant for this appeal. "The Niobe of Nations" is still heroic in her woes; and more than ever it would seem that when her sorrows come, "they come not single spies but in battalions." Within the twelvemonth past, or little more, she has rounded a full cycle of calamity—earthquake well-nigh destroying Zante, constitutional crisis, national insolvency or the next thing to it. And now, in the very throes of her economic distress, she is prostrated by a fresh visitation of Heaven which is without a parallel in her modern history. In its wide range and appalling consequences, this convulsion is of the first magnitude. It has shaken the solid core of Greece from the Isthmus to Thermopylæ, as well as the great island of Eubœa—rocked it like a ship upon an angry sea. The Atalante region, according to the cables, experienced 365 shocks in less than eight hours; in fact, "the earth swung to and fro like a pendulum." Of the destruction wrought we do not yet know the full measure; but Thebes and Atalante (aggregating a population of seven or eight thousand), with many towns and villages, are in ruins. In Locris alone the loss of life exceeds 300 souls, and the total in the earthquake area may reach twice that number. Some ten thousand families are rendered homeless.

At the best, this would be an appalling situation, but it is aggravated by the economic crisis. In ordinary times, with an even chance, Greece can take care of herself. Her resources are modest but adequate to her simple needs, and a more frugal and industrious people can hardly be found in Europe. But they have not had the even chance. In sixty years they have had to build up a free state on the wreck and ruin left by a retreating Oriental despotism after four centuries of barbarous misrule. No people ever faced a more appalling task or mastered it more heroically. The regeneration of Greece is one of the marvels of history. But, added to the rebuilding of a desolated country, they have upon them the burden of the European system without the political and economic training to bear it. And so, to meet extraordinary reverses, the country has only a vast debt and a depreciated currency. These will not restore ten thousand desolated homes.

The friends of Greece must lend a hand. Now, if ever, Philhellenic sentiment must precipitate itself in active sympathy. The way is open. The Greek consul-general in New York has appealed for aid. At Athens we have a minister in full and intelligent sympathy with the people to whom he is accredited, and who is in a position to administer effectively whatever means may be placed in his hands. No better envoy than Mr. Alexander could represent us there at such a time.

There are many among us who will hardly wait for further appeal than the facts already flashed across the seas. Certainly wherever Greek is cultivated—in every school and college and university throughout the land—there ought to be open hands. If every instructor and every class in Greek would give but five dollars, it would aggregate a substantial sum. Then there are the thousands of our travelled countrymen who have found in Greece a charm they can never escape; hundreds of these, men and women of wealth and culture and generous spirit. I have myself received there and witnessed their intense enjoyment of that land unapproachable in beauty and matchless in its memories. Is it not a good time for a thank-offering from every man and woman who has had the rare felicity of visiting Greece?

The season past, art-loving New York has spent her sympathies and some of her treasure on the imagined woe of Theban Œdipus and Antigone. To-day Thebes is a heap of ruins, and four thousand Thebans are homeless and hapless as blind Œdipus. May not the patrons of Mounet-Sully's Thebans open their purses as freely for real Thebes in her heroic griefs to-day? J. IRVING MANATT.

BROWN UNIVERSITY, May 7, 1894.

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS will issue at once 'Common Sense Applied to Woman Suffrage,' by Dr. Mary Putnam Jacobi; 'Joint Metallism,' by Anson Phelps Stokes; and 'The Ills of the South,' by the Rev. Charles H. Otken of Mississippi. This firm announces that it will hereafter publish, by arrangement, Mr. Unwin's "Pseudonym Library," under the title of the "Incognito Library," as well as his short-story "Autonym Library."

The Longmans have acquired of Lee & Shepard Mr. T. W. Higginson's entire list of works, plates and stock, and will give their own imprint to them.

Macmillan & Co. have in press 'The Wings of Icarus,' a novel, by Laurence Alma Tadema, daughter of the painter; a selection from

the poems of Aubrey de Vere, with an introduction by Prof. Geo. E. Woodberry; Dr. Friedrich Paulsen's 'Universities of Germany,' translated by Prof. E. D. Perry of Columbia; and 'The Senile Heart,' by Dr. Geo. William Balfour of Edinburgh. In connection with the Clarendon Press they will publish a posthumous volume of Freeman's 'History of Sicily,' edited by his son-in-law, Arthur J. Evans.

Ginn & Co. will have ready next month 'The Technique of Sculpture,' by William Ordway Partridge.

Summer novels by Herbert D. Ward, 'The White Crown, and Other Stories,' and by M. E. Francis, 'The Story of Dan,' have just been issued by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Seasonable also are 'Tales of the Maine Coast,' by Noah Brooks, and 'The Navigator's Pocketbook,' which are on the list of Charles Scribner's Sons.

'Wealth and Moral Law,' by President E. Benj. Andrews, will shortly issue from the Hartford Seminary Press.

The Student Publishing Co. of Hartford have in preparation 'An Honest Dollar,' also by President Andrews; an illustrated book of travel, 'A Trip through Russia,' by William Wilberforce Newton, D.D.; and 'The Epic of the Orient,' a metrical version of the Book of Job, by the Rev. H. M. Sydenstricker.

'A Bird-Lover in the West' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is the fourth volume of a series in which Mrs. Olive Thorne Miller gossips pleasantly about birds. It has been preceded by her 'Bird-ways,' 'In Nesting-Time,' and 'Little Brothers of the Air.' The present studies were made in the West—a part of them in Colorado, some in Utah, and the rest in Ohio. Several chapters are reprinted from the *Atlantic* or other periodicals; the remainder are now first published. Mrs. Miller is in sympathy with birds, takes a friendly interest in their concerns, and tells us about them in a vein which recalls Mrs. Lippincott's 'History of My Pets.' Such stories may be quietly enjoyed, in no critical mood; they are affairs of sentiment, with which science has little to do. But every ornithologist will recognize the fidelity of Mrs. Miller's airy sketches. We hardly think she needs any technical nomenclature for her artistic purposes; but if she wishes to label her pets in Latin, she should be particularly careful to say *Icterus spurius*, and not *Icteria spurious*, for example, and coax her printer into his lower case for initial letters of all specific names. The book is well indexed, and will doubtless find the same favor with bird-lovers that her previous writings have secured.

Under the title 'The Rise of Modern Democracy in Old and New England' (Scribners), Mr. Charles Borgeaud discusses a familiar subject from a point of view which has of late perhaps not been sufficiently regarded. The author is connected with the faculty of law at Geneva, and may thus claim a certain local authority for his exposition of the advanced political theories of the Puritans; for their period of exile in Switzerland certainly caused many revolutionary seeds to germinate. He reviews the manifestoes of the different factions of the time of the Commonwealth, and finds in the "Agreement of the People" of 1647 much of the spirit of modern democracy. He criticises the prevalent tendency to account for the institutions of New England by referring them to the folkmoot, although he acknowledges a certain genetic connection, and he emphasizes the influence of "Congregationalism." It is well to remember, as he says, that "in the beginning each settlement or town was, before all things, a congregation, and that the town meeting was in most cases the same thing as the assembly of the congregation." The translation is by Mrs. Birkbeck Hill.

Geologists will welcome the second volume of Lord Kelvin's 'Popular Lectures and Addresses' (Macmillan). These are especially devoted to geology and general physics, and are popular in so far as, having been delivered before societies comprising in their membership students of other branches of science than the purely mathematical, they give the speaker's general conclusions, divested of the details of the mathematical calculations by which he arrived at them, on such important theoretical questions as the internal condition of the earth, geological time, the dissipation of energy, uniformitarianism, polar ice-caps, etc. They will, however, hardly be within the comprehension of the general reader unless he be exceptionally well read in both geology and physics. Sir William Thomson, as he is best known (his other title being of quite recent creation), has long been the highest authority on what may be called the physics of geology; but the results of his investigations, which embrace very broad fields of scientific research, are scattered through the transactions of many learned societies, and are often inaccessible to geologists except at second hand and generally in somewhat fragmentary form. Here will be found a compact yet complete and authoritative statement of them in sufficiently untechnical language by the author himself. They range in date from an address delivered before the Royal Institution in 1856 to the end of the year 1893, extending thus over nearly forty years—a long period for one who is still in his intellectual prime.

The French are trying to come to the front in yachting matters, and have taken to publishing as well as sailing. Philippe Daryl published some years since a book remarkable for its many sins of commission and omission, and now comes Baron T. de Wogan with a neat little 'Epitome of Yachting' (London: Allen & Co.) in two thin volumes. He has drawn largely from the recognized authorities—dear old Vanderdecken, who has never been equalled, Dixon Kemp, Knight, and even R. H. Dana. The advice he gives is sound, and beginners will learn much from his pages, which form a good introduction to larger works on the same subject.

The correspondence between Mme. de Sabran and her lover, afterwards her husband, the Chevalier de Boufflers, especially for the period from 1789 to 1797, when the mistress was exchanged for the wife, is being edited by M. Pierre de Croze, from the papers of Comte Elzéar de Sabran, son of the lady who is already pleasantly famous from the memoirs of Boufflers.

'Les Grands Historiens du dix-neuvième Siècle,' by George Meunier (Paris: Delagrave), though coming rather under the head of a class-book, deserves notice. It consists of brief accounts of all the great French historians of the present century and remarkably well-chosen extracts from their works. Two other books of this class are a new edition, admirably annotated by A. Rébelliau and M. Marion, of Voltaire's 'Siècle de Louis XIV.,' preceded by a scholarly introduction; and a similar edition, equally good, of Voltaire's 'Précis du Siècle de Louis XV.' for which M. Fallex is responsible. Both volumes are published by Armand Colin & Cie., Paris.

'Derniers Essais de Critique et d'Histoire par H. Taine' is published by Hachette & Cie., Paris. All but one of these essays, that on M. de Sacy, were written after the "Nouveaux Essais," and it was Taine's intention to collect and publish them as they now appear. The essays on Sainte-Beuve and George Sand are particularly interesting, as well as the two on Heredity and on Schopenhauer, Bain, and Spencer.

On Taine a thick volume has been written by M. Amédée de Margerie (Paris) from a Roman Catholic point of view, though by no means with as much prejudice as might be expected. M. de Margerie, who is a professor, has had occasion to discuss Taine and Taine's views in his courses; he admires him as a thinker, though he makes certain reservations and sets up certain objections. His book is very fair, on the whole, and not only lets the reader see wherein the author differs from Taine, which is not very important, but also, which is important, what manner of thinker and writer Taine was, as a philosopher, as a critic of art and letters, and as an historian.

M. Clair Tisseur, whose 'Modestes Réflexions' were noticed at the time of their publication, has given to the public a volume of his own verse, 'Pauca Paucis' (Paris: Rousseau). The book is in two parts; the first was published for private circulation, the second has been added, on the collection being given to the public. M. Tisseur comes of a poetic and literary family, and his volume of verse is worthy of his associations. It contains many charming pieces.

'Bismarck's Leben und Wirken' (Leipzig) is by an anonymous author, who claims for his book an essentially autobiographic character, since he has used, so far as possible, Bismarck's own words in this condensed sketch of his life and influence. The sources of his information are letters, official documents, despatches, speeches, reports of interviews, and other occasional utterances of the ex-chancellor before and after his forced retirement, the account of which is quite as discreditable to the German Emperor as that given by Dr. Hans Blum. The volume contains two portraits, one of Bismarck in middle life, and the other recently taken.

In 'Theodor Parker in seinem Leben und Wirken' (St. Gallen: Wirth), Alfred Altherr, pastor of St. Leonard's Church in Bâle, Switzerland, gives a clear and concise survey of the life and labors of Theodore Parker, his theological views and his vigorous coöperation with Garrison and other philanthropists in the anti-slavery movement. The book is written in an admirable spirit and shows a thorough knowledge of the subject. The frontispiece is a portrait of Parker in the thirty-ninth year of his age.

A recent addition to the German works on the United States already reviewed in these columns is 'Landwirthschaftliche Reisestudien über Chicago und Nord-Amerika' (Breslau). The contents consist of essays written by the editor, Prof. Wohltmann of Breslau, and by five of the students of agriculture who accompanied him last year to the United States. They offer a critical review of the agricultural department of the World's Fair at Chicago, the condition of agriculture in the United States and more particularly in the Northwest, methods of tillage, climate, products, cultivation of the sugar-beet in Nebraska and its prospects, the Weather Bureau in Washington and its relations to husbandry, model farms and experimental stations (*Versuchsstationen*), agricultural colleges and their courses of study (those in Illinois and Utah are given in full), and kindred subjects. The researches were evidently conducted with zeal as well as knowledge.

A noteworthy example of Spanish erudition is the "discurso" read by D. Francisco Fernández y González on the occasion of his public reception into the Spanish Academy, January 28, 1894. It is entitled "Influencia de las lenguas y letras orientales en la cultura de los pueblos de la Peninsula Ibérica' (Madrid; El Progreso Editorial), and is both a learned and an interesting résumé of the literature and science of the Moslems and Jews in Spain during the Middle Ages. In his reply on behalf of the Academy, printed in the same brochure, D. Francisco A. Commelerán y Gómez supplemented the address of the new academician by an account of Christian letters in the peninsula during the same period. The two essays taken together, though not intended primarily as contributions to science, contain in a compact form a large mass of valuable and often new information. To Americans they inevitably suggest the thought that we do not sufficiently know and appreciate what Spanish scholars are doing. Their learning is, to be sure, not quite of the German kind, and in many indefinable ways departs from the standards and ideals to which of late years we have been striving to conform ourselves. None the less, however, is it real learning and decidedly worth taking into account. In the Semitic field, in particular, Spain has no reason to be ashamed of what her students have done.

The success of Luigi Morandi's 'Antologia della nostra critica letteraria moderna' is attested by the fact that the editions now succeed each other at the rate of one a year. The ninth, dated 1894, now lies before us (Città di Castello: S. Lapi). The book is, indeed, a useful and ingenious one. It is so contrived as to present at once specimens of the work of all the best living Italian scholars and critics, and also a picture of the development of Italian literature. It will probably surprise most readers who have not been following closely the revival of studies in Italy, to see how many are the really competent Italian writers now engaged with these matters. Americans will do well to learn the names and styles of some of these from the present volume. It may be added that the matter contained in it is far from being all taken from other publications. Much is either new or rewritten by its authors for this special purpose; and D'Ancona and Bacci have often chosen to refer to articles here printed, in the excellent prefatory notices of their 'Manuale della letteratura italiana.'

The Paris *Débats* records with pleasure, for its bearing on international good will, the foundation and rapid growth of a local "Société d'Études Italiennes," under the initiative of Prof. Charles Dejob of the Collège Stanislas. From its present membership of 200 it hopes to pass to 1,000 (*mille*)—"a figure," says the *Débats*, with a Garibaldian allusion, "not likely to displease the Italians." Jules Simon is president of the new society.

Readers of Browning may be interested in a parallelism between the "Pope and the Net," in the poet's last volume 'Asolando,' and Sacchetti's 149th *novella*. In Sacchetti it is an abbot who feigns great humility and lives with exemplary abstemiousness, but is all the while eaten up with ambition and longing for the good things of this world. At last he is made archbishop of Paris, and on a fast day his steward provides him with the small fish he had always had before. The archbishop asks whether there was no better fish in the market. "Plenty," is the answer, "but small fish is what you have always ordered me to get." "Know, fool," replies the archbishop, "that I ate small fish while fishing for big. Now, I have caught it, and henceforth bring me no other."

The *Portfolio* for March contains a most interesting monograph by Prof. A. H. Church on Josiah Wedgwood. A life as perfect as that of the English master-potter finds its fit monument in the never-dying interest which attaches to him and his works. The presentments of his art-works given in this monograph are beautiful, but the vast majority of his manufactures were what he called "useful ware," and would have proved equally attractive in illustration and more indicative of Wedgwood's individual designs, of his expert and ingenious modelling. The medallion portraits shown of Flaxman, Herschel, Catharine II. of Russia, and Dr. Johnson are of special interest; the engraving of the Portland vase noticeably fine.

We have just received from Alinari Bros. of Florence their catalogue of isochromatic photographs taken recently in the Veneto. Among the most interesting items are Tintoretto's "Miracles of St. Mark" in the Royal Palace (Nicene Library) at Venice; the Altichieri, Mantegna, and Titian frescoes in the Oratorio di San Giorgio, the Scuola del Santo and Church of the Eremitani at Padua; the grand Montagnas in the Vicenza Gallery; the pictures by Lotto, Pordenone, Sebastiano del Piombo, Savoldo, and Titian (the famous "Annunciation"), at Treviso; finally, Paul Veronese's frescoes in the Villa Barbaro at Maser (near Asolo). These last are of unrivalled importance, not only as being works of Veronese's early maturity, not only as amounting in quantity to almost half of that great master's genuine works, but as being by far the most complete specimen of Italian interior decoration that has come down to our own times. It will be noted that among the items mentioned Giotto's Arena frescoes do not occur. The Messrs. Alinari have been prevented from photographing these precious works by the rapacity of the Paduan municipality, which reproduced them before isochromatic photography was known, and insists upon selling its rubbish at an exorbitant price to an eager public, who otherwise might have perfect reproductions for half the money.

Boussod, Valadon & Cie., No. 303 Fifth Avenue, send us the first of the six supplements to the *Figaro* which will deal with the Salon for 1894 as with previous Salons in the past decade. The text is by Charles Yriarte, the size of the publication the well-known folio, and the engraving half-tone in many tints and styles.

The current number of the *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique* contains an unusual quantity of valuable matter, among which we may note a monograph by M. Svoronos on the coins and history of the island of Myconos, a continuation of M. Pottier's observations on the vases of the Louvre, a series of inscriptions collected from Mysia and Bithynia, and some excellent detailed plans of the engineering work at Lake Copais, to complete M. Kambanis's article on that subject, which we have already summarized. An important contribution to the history of ancient slavery is the collection of Delphic inscriptions discovered in 1880 by M. Haussoullier in the polygonal wall at the rear of the "Portico of the Athenians," and now first published in their entirety. They are more than one hundred in number, and exhibit all varieties of that legal fiction by which a slave was manumitted under the form of a sale to the temple divinity. One of these contracts (No. 80), which we here condense, contains the following incredible provision: "Dioclea shall remain with Cleopatra . . . subject to her orders, but not for sale, and, after her death, shall be free. If during her residence with her mistress she shall have a child, *she may have liberty to strangle it;* if she wishes to rear the child, it shall be free, but she may not sell it."

In a letter dated at the Argive Heræum, on April 6, Dr. Waldstein gives a brief account of the success which had already attended this spring's excavations of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, at that place. He had 258 workmen engaged in removing accumulations of soil, and had already completed the excavation of the eastern end of the second temple platform. New ruins of buildings had been brought to light, besides more than a score of basketfuls of vases, bronzes, cut stones, etc. The most important discovery was that of "another metope head in perfect preservation, of the best fifth-century art." This head illustrates perfectly Polycletan art, and "reminds one of the head of the Doryphoros." Another male torso, from a metope, and a later head were among the discoveries. Much work remains to be done.

The island Sakhalin is the subject of the principal article in *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for March. Though apparently a part of the Japanese group of islands, it belongs geologically to Siberia, and since 1867 it has been Russian territory. The presence of valuable coal deposits on the western coast has led the Government to attempt to reclaim the cultivable land by means of convict labor. The convicts, all of whom are condemned for criminal, not political offences, numbered, in 1892, 10,687, or a little more than half the total population. They are divided into three classes: those who, under the constant supervision of the soldiers, work in the mines, upon the roads, clearing the forests, draining the swamps, or in the prisons; those who are employed in certain districts under the direction of officials in preparing the soil for cultivation; and settlers who are provided by the Government with cattle, farming-tools, and seed, and have perfect liberty except that of leaving their districts. The climate is so unfavorable (winter lasting for six months and the short summer being almost without sunshine from the constant rain and fog) that the raising of crops is very difficult except in the southern part of the island. In 1890 a considerable quantity of hay and potatoes was exported to Siberia and Japan after the wants of the islanders themselves were supplied. Here, no doubt, agriculture can be carried on profitably, but whether by convicts remains to be proved. Besides preparing large tracts of forest land for cultivation, the convicts have constructed about 400 miles of road and 500 miles of telegraph.

The Lowell Observatory, which is to be established shortly near Flagstaff, in Arizona, will be a contribution to the cause of astronomy made by a private citizen of Boston, Mr. Percival Lowell, already well known to our literary public through his sketches of Japan, while his name is familiar to the well-informed throughout the country by the connection of his family with the lecture courses of the Lowell Institute. The idea of observing the coming opposition of Mars from some desert site having been suggested to him, and meeting with his approval, he has undertaken to erect and equip a temporary observatory, and he has already purchased his instruments and engaged his staff. The extent of his preparations in the matter may be judged from the fact that he has secured a telescope of eigh-

teen inches aperture and one of twelve inches, in addition to other smaller instruments. The work will be under his personal supervision and direction, and during the summer and fall he will make Arizona his abiding-place. Two of the gentlemen selected by Mr. Lowell to assist him in his work have been connected with the Harvard Observatory, and have temporarily severed their connection with that institution for the purpose of joining Mr. Lowell.

—In *Harper's* for May Mr. Howells begins a pleasant bit of autobiography which he entitles "My First Visit to New England," and in preparation for which he confides to us his literary acquirements, ambitions, acquaintances, and admirations of the time (1860) he writes about. Except for this contribution, the interest of the number lies in its fiction. "Trilby" continues to be amusing; and the first instalment of a dilettante story by James Lane Allen gives a sufficiently agreeable glimpse of refined Kentucky life in antebellum days. But the strong tale of the collection is "A Kinsman of Red Cloud," by Owen Wistar, author of the realistic though repulsive sketch of Western manners in the January number of the same periodical. The present story is not so new either in matter or treatment, but the author again exposes the brutality of the typical Western life stripped of all the ideality with which Bret Harte and the other writers of the old romantic school have invested it. The "Study" comments on the recently published Report of the Committee of Ten on Secondary School Studies, and all who have an interest in such matters must echo Mr. Warner's emphasis of what is certainly the most important recommendation of the report, namely, the necessity for improving the *quality* of teachers by better training and better pay.

—*Scribner's* has for its most important paper an essay on "The Ethics of Democracy," by Mr. F. J. Stimson, in which, under the subhead *Liberty*, he discusses the limitations of legislation on individual freedom. He discerns a dangerous tendency in our lawmaking to sacrifice true democratic to socialistic principles, and in support of his argument he presents a tabulated list of all the laws passed in the forty-nine States and Territories and by the national Government during the years 1889–90. Taking from the total of these statutes only such as involve some principle of social science or jurisprudence, he finds that 29 per cent. are of socialistic character. It is significant that New England has the lowest proportion, 20 per cent., of such legislation, while the Northwestern States, with Ohio, Iowa, and Nebraska in the lead, have the highest, 42 per cent. The author furthermore classifies and considers these various enactments under their several heads, and this digest the reader, whatever may be his views on the main question, will find both useful and suggestive. Another paper of sociological interest is that on Working Girls' Clubs, by Miss Clara S. Davidge, who gives as adequate an idea of her subject as space and occasion permit. Both in spirit and in letter her contribution is a refreshing relief from the meandering article on "Womanliness as a Profession" which precedes it. There is also a very readable description of the Rio Grande, by Capt. J. G. Bourke, U. S. A.; and a lately discovered terracotta medallion of Franklin is reproduced with a short sketch of the artist who modelled it.

—The *Atlantic* adds as its quota to the educational discussion which is so promisingly active at present, "The Ethical Problem in the Public Schools," by Mr. F. W. Slocum, jr. What this problem is, and what its importance, can best be appreciated by remembering that an unfortunately large percentage of the children who attend our public schools, especially in towns and cities, utterly lack the moral training of good home influences. In too many cases, indeed, these influences are actually evil, and the child exposed to them not only is corrupted itself, but becomes the source of corruption in others. How far the public schools can improve and counteract these conditions by direct moral teaching is, of course, only to be answered by prolonged and patient experiment, but certainly such experiment should be made. Other topics of the time are touched in the review of the Encyclicals of Pope Leo XIII., for the present pontiff is undeniably progressive, as his bulls on socialism and the French Republic prove. The late Francis Parkman is the subject of two glowing tributes by Mr. Justin Winsor and Mr. John Fiske respectively; and there is an essay on "Egotism in Contemporary Art" that is well worth reading.

—In the *Century*, Prof. Josiah Royce of Harvard sends out, under the title of "The Imitative Functions and their Place in Human Nature," a psychological circular which it is to be hoped will meet with general response. His object is to collect data bearing on the psychology of imitation, whether in the child or in the adult, and he asks of all whom it may concern—and it should concern every reader of his article—to observe for him and report to him what they see in others and are conscious of in themselves of such phenomena. He prefaces his appeal, which is an ingenious attempt to enlist the public at large in scientific experiment, with a brief but general survey of his subject. Some prose fragments from Lowell, and a translation in verse of the Finnish epic 'Kalevala,' which he cites as a specimen of spontaneous imagination unconventionalized by literature, will attract attention. There is a note of regret in the reference, as if the author were deploring his own remoteness from such naïve mental conditions. "Book Binding in the Past" gives Mr. Brander Matthews occasion to write entertainingly of an elegant art; and the Servian poet Zmai Iovan Iovanovitch is introduced by a little sketch, with several of his poems done into English by Mr. Robert Underwood Johnson. The leading article, by Mr. William A. Coffin, deals with the French painter Dagnan-Bouveret, and is profusely illustrated with some of the more famous of his admirable pictures.

—The new *Revue de Paris* (New York: Chas. Eitel) began very appropriately with the publication of Balzac's letters to Mme. Hanska, for it was in the original *Revue* of that name that Balzac published the opening pages of the 'Lys dans la Vallée' and 'Seraphita.' It was then managed by Buloz, better known as the managing editor for so many years of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. The latter aimed at greater learning, the *Revue de Paris* inclined more to letters and art, and at first glance it seems as though the editors of the new venture intended to maintain this distinction. But only at first glance, for while the literary quality of the *Revue* is high and the purely literary articles are numerous, it is evident that politics is intended to play no small or insignificant part. This is the more probable because it is whispered that the *Revue* is backed financially by the heads of a political party still strong and still hopeful of eventually regaining power. Meanwhile the editors show themselves very catholic in their judgment, and set forth, number by number, a very attractive programme, including unpublished manuscripts of great writers recently passed away and contributions from most of the leading lights. Heine, Wagner, and Rudyard Kipling have already been treated of; the younger writers have their place beside the older and better known; Gyp furnishes the main portion of the fiction, and Faguet and Simon are among the critics. If the *Revue* keeps on as it has begun, it will speedily become a favorite.

—M. Ernest Legouvé, in a recent letter to an editor of the *Ménestrel*, gives some rather curious information as to a certain side of Béranger's earlier life. Everybody knows Béranger as a song-writer, but few know of him as a singer of his songs; and yet his whole youth was passed as a singer. He did not publish his songs—for the most part he did not even put them into writing; he simply kept them in his memory, and, when there was occasion, sang them. He found plenty of opportunities. Any dinner, or fête, or reunion of friends would serve, and he would be seen to rise, glass in hand, at dessert, and sing verses which he had, perhaps, only just improvised. The air always played a great part in Béranger's songs. He told M. Legouvé that when the idea of a song came to him, he never tried to put it into form until he had found an air for it. Sometimes he had to seek long and far for this, but he would not give over till he found it. He wanted, as he said, a "love match" between his song and its tune. As to how well he sang, M. Legouvé knows nothing, nor does he know what his voice was, though his impression is that it was not a tenor. What is certain is, that he was a little vain of his performances. This is amusingly shown in a letter of his of the date of 1812 (Béranger had published nothing at that time). In this he says:

"I dined lately with Arnault, Roger, and Auger at Guérin's. This dinner was a little triumph for my songs. I sang only gay ones, and all of them received extraordinary applause. Auger, especially, begged for them, and, great as were the praises which all gave me, I believe they were given in good faith. I never had so formidable an auditory; so I sang badly enough. All the rest sang, too, and they got out of it hardly better than I. They wanted to keep me at Ville d'Avray over the next Sunday and give me a dinner at Etienne's, where I have dined often with Désaugiers, but I didn't care to do that. Désaugiers sings as well as anybody can, *plays* his songs very well, and, in his mouth, everything seems good. I have not that advantage, and in a strange house, where I should not be supported, I should have everything to fear from such a meeting."

What an odd glimpse this affords of Béranger in the days before his glory, giving himself the little airs of a stage baritone. And, after all, how harmless and good-natured his vanity is.

—Some of those who witnessed the recent performance of Terence's "Phormio" at Harvard, may have asked themselves, Who was this master of Latin, complimented as such by the matchless Cæsar, studied as such in "regions Cæsar never knew"? He was an African slave, a captive from the territory of Carthage, a child of the Libyan seaboard, and no more a native born to the Latin speech than *Othello* was to the Venetian. His name, Afer, stamps him for ever as absolutely alien, not only to Rome, but to Europe, yet he could bring out of the language of Rome treasures such as were

in the next generation unknown to Caius Gracchus, her greatest orator and statesman. It was impossible, his contemporaries said, that an African slave should write such Latin. It is impossible, some critics say now, that a Stratford deer-stealer should write such English. Who has helped him? Who wrote his plays for him? What statesman and scholar, what Latin Bacon, is using the amiable, gentle African as a medium for his wit? "We know well," was the answer to these questions in his own day. "It is young Scipio, the child of great Aemilius, the adopted of a greater name; it is he and his friend Lælius who furnish this heathen, swarthy slave with his wit, his pathos, his delicate complications, his faultless language. Our native dramatists and original poets are neglected because these fashionable aristocrats are shooting their sarcastic arrows at us under the mask of a Libyan." And it must be confessed that Terence, defending himself gallantly against the charge, has little better to say than that it is an honor and not a disgrace to be favored by great men; that those whom the people love should love him. If similar charges had been made against Shakspere in his day, would he have made the like answer? So it is that questions of art, like questions of politics, repeat themselves after centuries.

COXE ON THE JUDICIAL POWER.

An Essay on Judicial Power and Unconstitutional Legislation: being a Commentary on Parts of the Constitution of the United States. By Brinton Coxe of the Bar of Philadelphia. Philadelphia: Kay & Bro.

THIS book of 415 royal octavo pages relates to a single subject, the Constitution; to a single element of the Constitution, the judicial power; to a single exercise of the judicial power, the right to declare an act of Congress void. Mr. Coxe, moreover, died before the work was completed, mournfully hoping that his friend and fellow-student in constitutional history, Mr. William M. Meigs of Philadelphia, would be able to take up the imperfect manuscript and complete it for publication. It was found to be too incomplete to enable Mr. Meigs even to ascertain the author's final conclusions. But the reader will agree with Mr. Meigs that, while this is to be regretted, and while it is sad that the purpose of such a truly devoted author was not fully carried out, yet nevertheless "the defect is more apparent than real, for the published portion is entirely capable of standing by itself, and contains all that was intended to form a part of the historical commentary upon the Constitution."

In literary characteristics the book is learned and pedantic; in analysis and criticism it is strong. Here the list ends. It is not a constructive work. It takes to pieces, unravels, disentangles, compares, tests, and reaches results by processes like those of the analytical chemist. The author does this work with wonderful patience and thoroughness, repeating his propositions, and quotations, and citations again and again, so that the reader never has to turn back to a previous page, and is left without even an excuse for misunderstanding what is meant. The book is not light reading: it requires very close attention, and considerable knowledge of the law. The author himself says: "This essay is a legal treatise; it is intended for 'the learned reader'"; and there are sentences in it such as "All the *casus* named in one text were intended to be *aptati* to the *jus* of the other text." But nevertheless it is a book not likely to go unappreciated or to be misunderstood.

Mr. Coxe almost immediately turns his critical microscope upon the indefatigable reporter of the Supreme Court, Mr. Bancroft Davis, who in the last ten years has turned out 43 of the 150 volumes of that court's reports. At the centennial era of the court, Mr. Davis most appropriately appended to 131 U. S. R. 280 pages of matter relating to the Federal judiciary, including a "Table of cases in which statutes or ordinances have been held to be repugnant to the Constitution," etc. From this table the great and notable case of Dred Scott was omitted. Why it was, seems inexplicable. The omission remained unobserved by all eyes until those of Mr. Coxe discerned it. He shows in his careful, step-by-step method that the opinion of the court expressly says that "the act of Congress which prohibited a citizen from holding and owning property of this kind in the territory" "is not warranted by the Constitution, and is therefore void." He then shows that the case, apart from its political interest, was most remarkable in constitutional history as being "the first in which an act of Congress was decided by the court to be unconstitutional for reasons *not* relating to its own judicial department." In all the previous cases the unconstitutional acts concerned the judiciary. In Dred Scott the decision extended to the sovereign powers of Congress.

There are two early cases, "——— vs. The Secretary of War," and "United States vs. Yale Todd," one of which is referred to by Marshall in Marbury vs. Madison, and the other is relied upon by Chief-Justice Taney in United States vs. Ferreira. The latter is said to be remarkable as being the first case where the Supreme Court actually adjudged an act of Congress to be unconstitutional. Chief-Justice Taney so said in the Ferreira case, and it was therefore proper for the reporter to place it on the list; he could do no less. But Mr. Coxe drops these cases into his crucible, and it is extraordinary how the unconstitutional element disappears. Of "——— vs. The Secretary of War" he shows that not a shred exists; that there is no evidence that the case ever existed—no record, order, notice, or paper. The other case did exist, for the judgment of the court is found; and on this judgment Chief-Justice Taney rested his conclusion that the court had adjudged an act of Congress to be void. But Mr. Coxe shows that there is no opinion of the court extant; that there is no statement, memorandum, minute, or scrap of evidence to show that such an opinion ever existed; that there is no speech, argument, newspaper, or private letter which even alludes to the great assumption of judicial power, to the great event of a court for the first time holding an act of Congress unconstitutional; and finally he shows that the constitutionality of the statute was not necessarily drawn in question.

The general argument we may summarize as follows: Mr. Coxe first states the position taken by Mr. McMurtrie in his "Plea for the Supreme Court," that the authority to declare an act unconstitutional was "*lodged by inference, and by inference only*," in the judiciary (the framers of the Constitution not knowing what they were doing); and the position taken by the Supreme Court in the last of the legal-tender cases (110 U. S. R., 421), that Congress can exercise all the ordinary powers of government which foreign sovereignties exercise, provided only that such constructive powers are not "prohibited" by the Constitution. He then examines the power which foreign sovereignties exercise over the judiciary, and draws the conclusion, logically enough, that if both doctrines "be wholly true," it is also true that the Constitution gives to Congress the power to make a law prohibiting the courts from declaring an act of Congress unconstitutional and void.

Having thus put one or both of these authorities in the wrong, Mr. Coxe seizes upon the example of the Supreme Court as a justification for examining the judicial action of the whole civilized world in all ages, and proving thereby that the idea of a court holding a legislative act unauthorized and void was not a new one when the Constitution was framed. Roman law, French law, Swiss law, German law, English law, canon law, pass under his critical review. He goes back to the constitutions of Clarendon, the conflict between Becket and Henry II.—that is to say, the conflict between the statutes of Parliament and the canon law; he takes up colonial judicial history, not merely of our colonies, but of all English colonies, and he shows in many ways that the world had more than once seen a statute declared void ere our Constitution was framed. After thus exhausting the historical part of the subject, Mr. Coxe settles down to the solid and valuable part of his work, and at last brings it to a triumphant conclusion. We regret that the limits of this article do not admit of following him through his careful study and close analyses, which end in a demonstration that must be convincing to every unprejudiced mind. That result is (briefly and imperfectly stated) that the authority of the judiciary is not a matter of inference; that it is expressly *given* though not expressly *defined;* and that the framers of the Constitution *intended* to make this grant of judicial power.

In the *Nation* of December 7, 1893, it was said that the then expected work of Mr. Coxe might throw new light upon the origin of this element of our judicial power. The light has come, and it may be doubted whether an additional ray will ever fall upon the subject. But the stronger light only makes plainer the fact that neither the colonial nor the European precedents exercised the slightest influence on the framers of the Constitution. They were men of some learning and great intelligence, but they were men of affairs, statesmen of the practical type, and they bent all their energy on the solution of the hard practical problem before them. Nothing, moreover, could have been more certainly fatal to the work of the Convention than the memory of these "historical precedents." Had not Connecticut twice enacted statutes to secure the distribution of a man's real property among his children; and did not the Privy Council declare these laws repugnant to the law of England, and force the principle of primogeniture upon the colony against its properly avowed will? What could have been more fatal to the work of the great Convention than the belief that this irremovable, irrepealable Supreme Court which had been set up in perpetuity was another King in Council to annul the laws of the people's representatives? The same thing was true of all the other precedents: the Pope annulling acts of Parliament; the canon law made higher than the statute law; the judges of the Crown defeating the will of the people. If these suggestive precedents had been remembered, the wonder would be that they did not defeat the Constitution.

The framers of the Constitution, in addition to the local suspicion and State jealousy of which so much has always been said, were

confronted by three specific difficulties. The first was the power of the States to issue paper money. All had done so; Maryland and New Jersey were strenuous for retaining the right. Even then Rhode Island had just passed an act (1786) to establish fiat-money, and had ingeniously infused value into fiat-money by making a refusal to receive it, or selling goods at one price in paper and at another in silver, a misdemeanor without trial by jury and without a right of appeal. And the judges who upheld the right of trial by jury in the great case of Trevett vs. Weeden had been turned out of office by the Legislature only a month or two before the Convention began its work. Rhode Island, fortunately, was not one of the States represented in the Convention; but the thing was in the air. The second difficulty was that six States had enacted laws in conflict with the treaty of peace; laws which denied to loyalists rights secured by the treaty. The Congress of that same year had before them a fair prospect of either State rebellion to Federal authority or another war with Great Britain. The third difficulty was that the people of 1787 never would have knowingly consented to that provision of the Constitution which is now our boast and pride, the supremacy of judicial authority, the power of the judiciary to uphold the Constitution against the will of their representatives in Congress. The first and second were difficulties that had to be faced, and the Convention faced them manfully with words, uttered in the Constitution, which gave no uncertain sound. Of the third the Convention spoke beneath its breath. The framers builded better than they knew; they builded much better than they spoke. In terms they did not say that the Supreme Court should have power to annul a legislative act, or to declare a State statute void; but they placed conditions in the Constitution which rendered these results inevitable. When they wrote into the instrument the words, "This Constitution, and the Laws of the United States *which shall be made in pursuance thereof*," "shall be the supreme law of the land," and the words, "The judicial Power shall extend to all cases in law and equity arising under this Constitution," the rest must follow. It was as inevitable as that human affairs would bring legal controversies. The greatest stroke of all, however, was in committing the trust to an independent judicial tribunal which should be above and beyond the grasp of the legislative power.

The portions of the book which relate to European governments we have not attempted to verify or criticise. Occasionally we notice a trivial slip. On p. 266 a typographical error makes the Convention sit in 1786. On p. 220 there is a very singular mistake, inasmuch as it is three times repeated in one short paragraph. "Seven" cases are alluded to where only six were intended. We notice also some semi-political flings which are below the purpose and character of the book; and we notice with great regret a passage in which Mr. Coxe, leaving his proper rôle of scholar and critic, breaks into a political wail just as he reaches the successful climax of his work. The passage has no connection with his argument, and if Mr. Meigs had heroically cut it out, notwithstanding that the author had put it in type, we think every sensible person would have said, Faithful are the wounds of a friend.

WINSOR'S CARTIER TO FRONTENAC.

Cartier to Frontenac: Geographical Discovery in the Interior of North America in its Historical Relations, 1534–1700. With full cartographical illustrations from contemporary sources. By Justin Winsor. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1894.

One might think at first sight that this book was a rehash of the fourth volume in Mr. Winsor's 'Narrative and Critical History of America.' It seems to be nothing else as we turn over four-score maps which are identical in both works—as are divers views of Indian forts and fights as well as portraits in costumes of church and court. Such a first impression, however, vanishes the moment we examine the letter-press. The whole of the present volume is Mr. Winsor's own composition, while the larger part of the fourth volume, though edited by him, was written by other hands. Moreover, whatever had been written by Mr. Winsor himself in his great history he has here presented in such new relations that it becomes altogether new matter. What was merely cartographical now becomes cartographico-historical or historico-cartographical.

It is a favorite theory with certain French writers that Basque and Breton fishermen, those mediæval Nimrods of the sea, while chasing whales, were so engrossed in pursuit of their quarry that they crossed the ocean unawares and had begun fisheries on the Grand Bank before the era of Columbus. However this may be, Mr. Winsor's aim, starting from a date when nothing of North America beyond Newfoundland was known to the French, is to show them discovering the St. Lawrence, the chain of great lakes to the utmost corner of the West, and the Mississippi, with their affluents and watersheds. This discovery was made by individual adventurers, by societies secular and religious, as well as by national officials. It was prompted sometimes by curiosity, more often by commercial enterprise, religious zeal, and military movements. Its rate of progress was very unequal. Its morning sunrise was with Cartier in 1534, but within a decade a dim eclipse darkened and deadened it for sixty years and more. The next sunburst was the era of Champlain. The wondrous story has been told by Parkman in half-a-dozen volumes with a vividness and vivacity not likely to be surpassed, and which have given it a wide popularity. It remained a desideratum to knit together the scattered sketches into one whole body. This work Mr. Winsor has done, and that admirably.

A special charm was added to Parkman's relations by his own travels in the track of the original explorers. Personal observation enabled him to give his pictures a more truthful local coloring, and the more since many of his trips were taken in the primitive fashion. Despairing of rivalry in the line of travel, Mr. Winsor made a new departure in another direction. As Harvard's librarian he lived in the midst of cartographical treasures unequalled on this side of the Atlantic. The gathering of them was begun more than a century ago by Ebeling, who, as the city librarian of Hamburg, the chief German port, had special facilities for his life-long search. His accumulations were presented to Harvard by a Boston merchant in 1818, and formed a nucleus which has been growing ever since. It was early remarked that Hume's appointment as Edinburgh librarian turned him into a historian, and Irving informs us that he was himself led to think of writing his Life of Columbus when he first beheld the materials in such profusion made ready to his hand in the archives of Madrid. In like manner the surroundings of Mr. Winsor, not only in the Harvard library but in other cartographical fountains near and far, which yielded him the streams he needed, have given direction to his studies and made them subserve his purpose.

His object was to show not only how discoveries were made, but how they were bit by bit made known through maps, strangely wrong and again strangely right; and as far as possible by contemporary maps, which may be considered as eye-witnesses. With this view he has taxed all the world. We have facsimiles here from originals found only in the British Museum, or the Propaganda in Rome, or the French Archives of the Marine and Colonies. Then, maps appear which, lurking long in the collections of private individuals, seemed born to blush unseen. The Portuguese are also laid under contribution, and especially the Dutch, as Mercator, to whom we owe the word atlas, and Ortelius, whose type of map was much copied in the decades introducing great French discoveries. One of the most curious maps was made in Florence by Dudley, a son of Leicester, Queen Elizabeth's favorite, and the inheritor of Kenilworth Castle from his father. The unique American copy is a Harvard rarity. This map of Dudley's, which sets down a navigable water, or strait, between the St. Lawrence and the Bay of Fundy, affords a representative specimen of geographical errors which of necessity abounded in early maps. Thus, too, Lake Champlain was sometimes charted east of the Connecticut, and Lake Michigan north of Lake Huron. Step by step errors were eliminated. Instalment after instalment during the rise and progress of French exploration from the mouth of one of our two chief rivers to the innermost recesses of its source and down to the mouth of the other, unfolds such a geographical panorama as has never been elsewhere beheld. The multitudinous stages of the development of arcana in Mr. Winsor's maps show each an individuality of its own which in a degree turns a chaos into a cosmos. The resultant and cumulative impression is analogous to that made on one who visits the museum at Cairo, where the relics are ranged chronologically so that each epoch has a hall all to itself. In the long lapse from Cartier to Frontenac each map represents a dynasty with features of its own.

Mr. Winsor's comparative studies in maps show how they "have had an obvious tendency to a true conception of physical realities even at eras when scarcely any attempts were made to solve geographical problems by exploration." On the other hand, they convict more than one nation of strange ignorance as to what another had achieved. Thus, Heylin's map of 1657 sets down only one of the great lakes thirty-five years after Champlain had charted them all but one. Such ignorance seems astonishing in an English cosmographer whose folio went through more editions than almost any other work of its class. But what can surprise us in the maps of a writer in whose letterpress we read as follows?

"Water making but one globe with the earth is yet higher than it. This appears, first, because it is a body not so heavy; secondly, it is observed by sailors that their ships move faster to the shore than from it, whereof no reason can be given but the height of the water above the land. Thirdly, to such as stand on the shore, the sea seems to swell into the form of a round hill till it puts a bound upon our sight. Now that the sea, hovering thus over and above the earth, doth not overwhelm it can be ascribed only to his Providence who *hath made the waters to stand on an heap that they turn not again to cover the earth*," etc.

Our citation is from page 27 of the first folio,

1652, five years before the edition which Mr. Winsor appears to suppose the earliest folio ('History,' iv., p. 385).

The map of Sylvanus, representing the opening of the sixteenth century, and that of Franquelin, representing the close of the seventeenth, are placed side by side, both on the frontispiece and outside the cover of Mr. Winsor's volume, as if the force of contrast could no further go. Long as is the cartographical chain, we wish it had at least one link more. All the maps given are more or less inaccurate, and should have been supplemented by another, or by half-a-dozen sectional maps, with all modern corrections. In some maps the legends are less legible than in the fourth volume of the 'History,' from which they were copied. One instance is Cabot's mappemonde (p. 53). In other cases the lettering is vexatiously indistinct. We pass from this topic with the remark that Mr. Winsor, in his new departure, has had to avail himself of a latter-day vocabulary. Dr. Murray dates the word *cartography* from 1859, *cartographer* from 1863, *cartographical* from 1880, *chart* as a verb from 1851, *charting* as a noun from 1854. In 1878 *cartography* had no name to live among the titles of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' but it appeared in the index of 1889. We cannot detect it in the 1865 edition of Brunet. The term *cartographics* we have not yet noticed, but it will soon be coined after the analogy of economics, etc. *Portolano* is not to be found even in the 'Century Dictionary,' though in Italian it is more than four centuries old.

The regal act of French possession with august ceremonies at the outlet of Lake Superior is dwelt on by Mr. Winsor more glowingly than any other scene (p. 206). He says: "There was hardly a spot on the continent that opened more striking vistas of domination along such lines of transit as nature had provided here. Marquette had divined it in relation to the missionary service—speaking of Mackinac as the portal of the southern tribes, as the Soo is to those of the North and West, so that many nations pass these gates," etc. These words were never so true as to-day, but must be transferred from the outlet to the head of the great lake, from which several iron rivers now radiate to the Pacific, and where Duluth and Superior during the last decade had a greater percentage of growth than any two other cities in the country.

Regarding the name Green Bay, Mr. Winsor, as we venture to think, has fallen into a notable mistake. His words about it are: "'Grand Baye,' perverted by the later English to Green Bay" (p. 23). "Grand Baye" is neither French nor English. The phrase means, we suppose, that the word *grand* was changed to green. If this were the fact, we should meet with similar changes in the names of other bays or lakes and rivers that were called grand by the French. But how many can Mr. Winsor show? Again, we cannot allow that Green Bay was often called Grande Baye by the French, and we doubt if it ever was. It is not so called on any one of Mr. Winsor's maps, nor by Joliet, Marquette, or Perrot, nor yet in the Jesuit Relations. In the Relation for 1660 (p. 9) we once read that a certain Father "left the lake of Ouinipegouek, which is properly only a great bay [*une grande baye*] of Lake Huron. Others call it *le lac des Puants*." But *grande* is a descriptive, not a nominal, epithet. The water now termed Green Bay appears on the Ostensorium of Perrot as "La Baye des Puans" in 1686. It so appears in nine of Mr. Winsor's maps; in others, as Sanson's (p. 179), Duval's (p. 216), *Lac* appears instead of *Baye*, but with no prefix. The only case where an epithet like "Grand" may possibly be intended is the following legend on a map of Creuxius (p. 184): *Magnus Lacus algonquintorum, seu Lacus Foetentium*. The name as abbreviated became *La Baye*, without any prefix whatever, in all instances which have come under our notice. If, to conclude, the epithet *Grande* was unknown to French usage, there was nothing in the French name for the English to "pervert into Green."

After returning from the voyage down the Mississippi, Joliet, says Mr. Winsor, "leaving Marquette at Mackinac, passed on to the Sault Ste. Marie" (p. 244). But the truth is that Marquette was not there to be left. He had been grievously ill on the return trip, and hence would naturally stop at the first mission he reached, which was at the Bay of the Puans. Mackinac, as Carver tells us, was fourteen days' sail further. Would the invalid have risked such a voyage, especially in October, and that only to repeat it the next season when he was bound to go south among the Illinois? That Marquette went on to Mackinac is denied by Parkman and Shea, and must be by all who will not show Mr. Winsor to be divided against himself, for he says (p. 249) that "Marquette on his return had lingered at Green Bay till the spring of 1674." But Marquette's account of the Mississippi expedition was written during that winter, and has led the people of Wisconsin to claim him as their earliest author. They naturally object to such a celebrity's being described as passing on from their hospitalities to winter beyond their limits. But the most unkindest cut of all is the assertion that "St. Anthony's Falls are near the modern St. Paul" (p. 276). This remark, which is like saying that Faneuil Hall and Bunker Hill monument stand near the modern Salem, will be counted high treason in Minneapolis.

But we have made too much of peccadilloes in a work which no student of the French in North America can afford to be without, and which is, besides, in its make-up, one of the daintiest of books. The proof-reader, it is true, gives too many signs of nodding, preëminently in conspicuous phrases like "Vexilla Regis proeunt."

History for Ready Reference and Topical Reading. By J. N. Larned. In five volumes. Vol. I., A to Elba. Springfield, Mass.: The C. A. Nichols Co. 1894.

One opens this ponderous volume of 800 pages with some misgiving. "Topical" jars upon the nerves; the work might just as well have been called a "Dictionary" or "Encyclopædia"; and there are already a score of excellent encyclopædias and "conversation-lexicons" in which the reader can find some account of most subjects of historical interest. This misgiving is heightened when one learns the plan of the undertaking; which is to cull the articles from historical literature—a column or so from this writer, a paragraph from that—and make not only the work as a whole, but every important article, a mosaic of scrappy quotations. The editor cherishes, indeed, the hope that the selections will be found to have been chosen "as one might pick choice fruits, . . . careful to keep their flavor unimpaired." But, alas! the "choice fruits" of literature can hardly be cut about for dictionary purposes and packed together without regard to kind, without losing something of their flavor. As Mr. Richard Swiveller observed to the Marchioness—to use a grosser analogy than the editor's—even beer "can't be *tasted* in a sip."

Nevertheless, when one comes to examine the book more closely, one is bound to confess that it looks as if it would be useful in many ways, and that the scheme seems to have been carried out with painstaking care. As a rule, the excerpts are taken from writers of deserved reputation, and if the reader should go wrong, he will go wrong in good company. But there is at least one exception to this rule, and that is in the case of articles dealing with the history of the last two or three decades. We are too near the events of our own time to feel much confidence in interpretations of their meaning; and the wise policy would have been to restrict the articles concerning them to a bare recital of external facts about which there is no question. If any opinion should be expressed, it should be the opinion of men whose other writings give reason for confidence in their judgments. Instead of following either of these two courses, Mr. Larned too frequently presents us with the opinions of anonymous newspaper men. For instance, the writer of the "New York *Tribune* Extra," who here sums up the defects of the government of Dom Pedro of Brazil, may, for all one knows, be a publicist of large knowledge and experience. But Brazil is clearly not yet "out of the wood"; and we must see what "the autonomy of the federated provinces" comes to before we can fairly judge the imperial "system of centralization."

The arrangement is good, on the whole, and there are usually sufficient cross-references. The only place where they fail is, oddly enough, in the important matter of constitutions. The text of some dozen of these documents—from the Argentine Republic to Venezuela—will be found under *Constitution*, and not where they would naturally be looked for, under the names of the several countries. Moreover, there is no indication under Argentine Republic, Brazil, or Canada that the text of the constitution will be found in a later place. This omission might be avoided in succeeding volumes.

The work will deservedly find a place on the shelves of every important library; and instead, therefore, of criticising particular articles, it may be more useful to call attention to parts of the scheme which are capable of improvement as the undertaking goes on. The only pieces of original writing of any length are to be found in the appendices, and it will be worth while for the editor to consider whether the style of these appendices cannot be pruned of exuberances and made a little more simple. Thus, to speak of "the Danubian, Balkan, and Levantine States," together with "the Austro-Hungarian lands immediately adjoining" (App., p. vi), as "forming *one* of the great *fulcrums* for national movements," is surely an unnecessary extension of the ordinary meaning of "fulcrum." It is with regret, finally, that one feels obliged to urge the editor not to carry out the fell purpose of printing any more of his own original compositions described as "Logical Outlines"—"a number of national histories, printed in colors to distinguish the influences which have been dominant in them." The two "logical outlines" here printed, of Austrian and of Athenian and Greek history, are bad enough to lead even their proud inventor to repentance. Pity for the eyes of his readers who will attempt to distinguish the colors by artificial light should make him pause, if nothing else. And let us quote an example:

"The history of Austria . . . is unique

in being the history of a family and not the history of a state . . . [In *green:* denoting, according to the key in the corner, "social and political influences and conditions."] Territorially the name was attached . . . to an inconsiderable arch-duchy on the Danube; [*red:* "physical or material"] in that corner of Teutonic Europe where the Germans of the middle ages fought back the Turanian races and the Slavs" [*blue:* "ethnological"].

It is difficult to imagine the sort of person likely to be helped by these kaleidoscopic devices. Perhaps a few boys and girls at school will find it easier to compose essays by picking out all the green or blue bits and running them together, and will get credit for it if the master does not discover the source; but one trembles to think of the conceit with which their easily found and high-sounding knowledge will fill them. A work in many respects so solid and scholarly will certainly gain by the omission of features more suitable to third-rate pedagogy and itinerant memory-teachers.

Random Roaming, and Other Papers. By Augustus Jessopp, D.D., Rector of Scarning, Norfolk. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

THESE papers lack the fulness of material and the consecutiveness of thought and of style that gave substantiality to Dr. Jessopp's earlier writings. They are the leisurely gleanings of fields from which the harvest, a rich and ample one, has already been strenuously gathered. The title paper has been put together from hurried notes of an antiquarian ramble in Sussex and Kent. It starts in a humorous key, but the humor is forced throughout, and the moral reflections are heavy. The chronicles of Castle Acre, in Norfolk, which follow, are also heavy. Most readers will feel, after putting down these essays, that it is better to take to the by-paths of fanciful excursioning with Mr. Stevenson, or to foot the high-road of local history with Mr. Freeman. When, however, he comes to unfold the questionable secrets of "Hill-Digging and Magic," or ingeniously to reconstruct the figure of "A Fourteenth Century Parson," who was lord of the manor also, the old fascination of Dr. Jessopp's pen begins to reassert itself. In the one instance, the rusty memory of an ancient parish clerk is ransacked to illuminate the subject of earth-mounds and barrows; in the other, from the balance-sheet of a rector's bailiff for the year ending Michaelmas, 1306, has been drawn a picture that in vividness and brilliancy is the literary success of the volume.

The last paper, "Village Almshouses," desultory though it is, discloses the most winning and characteristic of its writer's varied phases of thought and sympathy. It is, in substance, an appeal for individualism in charities. But there is in it that which should suffice to conciliate the most uncompromising advocate of organized and impersonal help. Individualism backed by such clear insight into the needs, higher and spiritual as well as lower and corporeal, of the recipients of relief has nothing in common with selfish and demoralizing almsgiving. The conditions that Dr. Jessopp has to deal with are naturally the picturesque and comparatively stable ones of an English country parish. His pages are rich in the idioms and allusions that still surprise and delight by their survival in the ordinary conversation of the people born and bred in the old scenes, amid the old ways. The familiar recurrence of names of venerable places, of quaint terms and time-worn expressions, lends, in the ears of those with whom they have passed out of daily use, a touch of poetry to plain prose. The imagination makes by their help a noble perspective to the commonplace doings of every day. Whatever their shortcomings, these essays are instinct with the charm of a mind that has grown ripe in the rich and mellow Old-World atmosphere.

Driving Lessons. By Edwin Howlett. New York: R. H. Russell & Son.

THE number is limited of those who have been gifted with the peculiar attributes needed for the "elegant pastime" of four-in-hand driving, but all who love a horse and who have a warm corner of the heart for a good and kindly horseman, will be glad to see this work by Mr. Howlett of Paris, whose life seems to have been passed on a coach-box, and who now devotes himself to the instruction of neophytes in his art. The writer of his biographical preface, Comte de Clermont-Gallerande, tells us that Mr. Howlett gives twelve hundred lessons a year. He is the son of a coachman of the Marquis of Hereford. At the age of sixteen he entered the stable of an Italian princess. After thirteen years' service as coachman to various Continental noblemen, he set up a stable of his own in Paris. He is held in high esteem, and he has bred up a whole coach-topful of hearty sons and daughters, who lend an imposing character to the frontispiece of the book, and who are said to be skilful teachers in their father's out-of-door school.

There are twenty full-page reproductions of instantaneous photographs, showing the coach and its team in various evolutions; and the minute and clever instructions of the text are elucidated by figures showing hands and reins and all manner of "correct" details. So clear is the exposition that even he who runs as he reads may learn to "catch double thong" with ease—and to catch double thong is the despair of some old drivers. There is even a series of five cuts giving the entire imposing figure of Mr. Howlett himself in successive positions of the solemn act of taking the reins from the back of the off-wheeler and mounting to the box. Put him in a zoetrope and we should actually see him climb.

While much of this serious instruction is beyond the grasp of the lay mind, much is of general value, and there is a personal element in the book which will appeal to all horsemen; and, strange to say, though this is a horseman's book, the personality is not obtrusive. We see a hearty, wholesome, and genial horse-master who knows his horse, and drives him with tact and skill, and whose touch of the four sensitive mouths of his team is the touch of intelligent control. His "hand" must come up to the old description, and be as firm as the grasp of steel, but soft as the touch of love, and his temper is absolutely smooth, as a number of incidents testify. For example, he met on the Champs-Élysées a baulking team, "all the horses jibbing." He says:

"The people on the coach tried in vain to start them; finally, they sent down for me. As I reached them, the team was standing across the avenue. Having no room to turn around and come down the hill, I was obliged to go up. I looked at all the horses, knowing none of them, and, after picking up the reins, I politely asked them to move on; they responded one after another, two of them running back when they felt the collar pull, but I was so polite that they finally all started away together, and a little while after I could stop and go on with them as I pleased. I suppose that I must have appealed to their better judgment."

Mr. Fish and the Alabama Claims: A Chapter in Diplomatic History. By J. C. Bancroft Davis. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1893.

THE treaty between the United States and Great Britain, concluded at Washington on the 8th of May, 1871, has justly been regarded as one of the most important achievements in our diplomacy. Within its forty-three articles it provided for the adjustment of all matters of controversy then pending between the two countries, including questions of claims, of the navigation of rivers and canals, of fishery rights, and of boundary. But of all these questions the gravest and most difficult was that of the *Alabama* claims, which involved not only contested principles of law, but also the general course of the British Government during the civil war. On both sides national feeling was deeply stirred, and concession was rendered precarious by the prominent advocacy in both countries of extreme and impracticable views. The occasion was one that demanded statesmanship of a high order—a spirit of conciliation, unerring tact, and a clear and discriminating sense of right.

In a brief compass, and without intending to present a complete history of the settlement of the *Alabama* claims, Mr. Davis has undertaken to exhibit the part borne by the late Hamilton Fish, who was then secretary of state, in that transaction. For this task Mr. Davis is exceptionally fitted. Holding at the time the position of assistant secretary of state, he was also American secretary to the Joint High Commission by which the Treaty of Washington was negotiated; and he prepared the American case and represented the United States as agent before the tribunal of arbitration at Geneva. There can be no doubt as to the importance of the services of Mr. Fish in the settlement of the *Alabama* claims. The management of the American cause was in his immediate charge, and although, when he came to negotiate the treaty, he gathered about him eminent and able assistants, his was, as Mr. Davis says, from the beginning to the end, the inspiring, regulating, and dominating mind. In the first informal stages of the negotiation, he found himself at variance with his personal friend Mr. Sumner, who was then chairman of the Senate committee on foreign relations, as to the grounds and the extent of Great Britain's liability. It is in the nature of controversy that both parties generally assume positions that they must yield if they would reach an amicable solution. Mr. Sumner was prominently identified with the position that the hasty concession by Great Britain to the Confederacy of the rights of belligerency afforded a valid ground for a claim of substantial pecuniary redress. On this position Mr. Sumner strongly insisted. The position of Mr. Fish, as stated in his instructions to Mr. Motley, was as follows:

"The President recognizes the right of every Power, when a civil conflict has arisen within another State, and has attained a sufficient complexity, magnitude, and completeness, to define its own relations and those of its citizens and subjects toward the parties to the conflict, so far as their rights and interests are necessarily affected by the conflict. The necessity and the propriety of the original concession of belligerency by Great Britain at the time it was made have been contested and are not admitted. They certainly are questionable, but the President regards that concession as a part of the case only so far as it shows the beginning and the animus of that course of conduct which resulted so disastrously to the United States. It is important in that it foreshadows subsequent events."

This declaration opened the way to the nego-

tiations that resulted in the Treaty of Washington. The services of Mr. Fish in the settlement of the *Alabama* claims did not, however, end with the conclusion of the treaty. In the controversy that subsequently arose as to the jurisdiction of the tribunal of arbitration, he materially contributed by his wisdom and firmness to the solution of the difficulty. From first to last his conduct was worthy of the best traditions of American statesmanship, and Mr. Davis has performed a loyal service in presenting it in so clear a light.

Some Minor Arts as Practised in England. By A. H. Church, F.R.S., W. Y. Fletcher, F.S.A., J. Starkie Gardner, Albert Hartshorne, F.S.A., and C. H. Read, F.S.A. With many illustrations. Macmillan & Co. 1894.

UNDER the above title are collected several papers originally published in the *Portfolio*. They describe English work in impressed horn, bookbinding, old English pottery and wooden trenchers, effigies in wood, and enamels. The fact that English art has been more interesting in its smaller aspects than in some of its larger—has succeeded better in decorative detail, for instance, than in sculpture or the more ambitious painting—is here well illustrated. English bookbinding, for instance, was conspicuously excellent as long ago as the twelfth century, and is still admired in our day. If it was in its early days inferior in precision of workmanship to its recent work, it was freer in invention and stronger in decorative effect. So English goldsmith's work, if we include with it, as Mr. Gardner here does, the early Celtic work, and the Irish up to the twelfth century, was in its time preëminent, especially in the art of enamelling; and some of its best examples belong to the period when the Irish illuminators were showing the way to the rest of Europe. Mr. Gardner, by the bye, is disposed to claim for English workmen a good many examples that have been undoubtingly ascribed to Continental; but without this largess there is enough to make good England's right to eminence. The illustrations of this handsome volume—woodcuts, half-tones, and color-prints—are as excellent as the periodical from which they come would make us expect.

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Allen, Rev. J. H. An Historical Sketch of the Unitarian Movement since the Reformation. Christian Literature Co. $1.50.
Alexander, Mrs. Broken Links. Cassell. $1.
Brown, G. P. Drainage Channel and Waterway. Chicago: R. R. Donnelly & Sons Co.
Chanute, O. Progress in Flying Machines. *The American Engineer.*
Davis, R. H. The Exiles, and Other Stories. Harpers. $1.50.
Ellis, Havelock. Man and Woman: A Study of Human Secondary Sexual Characters. London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Fletcher, W. I. Library Classification. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Graham, Gabriela C. Santa Teresa: Being Some Account of her Life and Times. 2 vols. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $10.
Heredia, José de. Maria La Nonne Alferez. Paris: Lemerre; New York: Meyer & Co.
In Maiden Meditation. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Jusserand, J. J. Piers Plowman: A Contribution to the History of English Mysticism. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Putnams. $3.50.
Lytton, Earl of. Selected Poems. New ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.
Maartens, Maarten. The Greater Glory. Appletons. $1.50.
Our Lady's Tumbler: A Twelfth Century Legend. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 50 cents.
Parker, Gilbert. A Lover's Diary: Songs in Sequence. London: Methuen & Co.; Cambridge: Stone & Kimball.
Rectorial Addresses Delivered at the University of St. Andrews. 1863—1893. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
Steinen, Karl von den. Unter den Naturvölkern Zentral-Brasiliens. Berlin: Dietrich Reimer.
Steel, Mrs. Flora A. The Flower of Forgiveness. Macmillan. $1.
Trimble, Prof. Henry. The Tannins. Vol. II. Philadelphia: J. B Lippincott Co. $2.
Vincent, Henry. The Story of the Commonweal. Chicago: W. B. Conkey Co.
Wakeman, H. O. Europe, 1598—1715. Period V. Macmillan. $1.40.
Wylie, Laura J. Studies in the Evolution of English Criticism. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.10.
Yeats, W. B. The Land of Heart's Desire. London: T. Fisher Unwin.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 17, 1894.

The Week.

SENATOR MILLS'S indignant rebuke of his Democratic associates for abandoning their professed convictions and bringing shame upon their party by their protectionist amendments of the Wilson bill, will be better understood as those amendments are studied in detail. Some of them have the trail of the serpent already visible over them, and the skilfully concealed iniquity of more of them will doubtless be brought to light as they are examined and debated. The general swinging back from ad-valorem to specific duties is of itself a clear sign of surrender to the protectionists. This is one of their oldest dodges. They know that the actual value and cost of products tend downwards all the while, and hence that a specific duty which now amounts, say, to 40 per cent. ad valorem, will in two years equal 60 per cent. and in four 80 per cent., by the sheer force of lessening the cost of production. This little game has been exposed again and again. It was played all through the McKinley bill, and was one of the most crying evils in it. For the Democratic Senators now to rush back to it, after having denounced it, and after it had been so generally discarded in the Wilson bill, is a most suspicious circumstance.

The desire of Senators Gorman and Brice to "discipline" Senator Mills for his denunciation of their tricky work with the tariff bill is a capital illustration of their own obtuseness. What Mr. Mills says meets the hearty approval of all true friends of tariff reform, but it causes them no surprise. They made up their minds long ago about those two bogus Democrats, and have had no doubt that they would exert all their influence on the side of protection. No one expected that they would do their work openly, for, as Mr. Gorman's chief admirer, the *Sun*, said of him during the silver campaign, he and Mr. Brice are always "most busy underground, burrowing for compromise." The compromise they burrow for is always against the interests of the country and their own party, and is invariably one which involves a large degree of personal profit to themselves. If they think to injure Mr. Mills by showing their disapproval of him, they have a very poor opinion of popular intelligence, for the opinion which he has expressed of them is the public opinion of the country to-day. Instead of disciplining him, they ought to unite in a formal rebuke to the American people.

Disgust with the Gorman-Brice tariff bill is so prevalent and deep among Democrats in all parts of the country that if a vote of the party could be taken upon it there would be no doubt as to its fate. Thousands of Democrats are saying that the bill is worse than no bill at all, and that they hope, in case it ever reaches the President in its present form, he will veto it. It would be bad enough were it merely a tariff bill; but when tariff-reformers look at its McKinleyized schedules and at its income-tax attachment, and reflect that this is the outcome of their long years of agitation and their great victories of 1890 and 1892, their feelings become too intense for moderate expression. If the Democratic party has fallen hopelessly into the hands of Brice and Gorman, and can accomplish no tariff reform save what those two protectionist allies are willing to grant, the sooner a tariff-reform party, on that issue alone, is started, the better for the country. There are thousands of honest men in both parties who have been made absolute free-traders by this dallying and dickering of the Democratic jobbers in the Senate, and these will welcome any movement which will place the tariff issue before the people on its merits, with no confusing political issues, in order that it may be argued to a solution and the business of the country freed for all time from the disturbing and disastrous effects of periodic tariff changes.

The decision of the Republican senatorial caucus on Monday night to fight the tariff bill in every particular and at every stage leaves the superior strategy of the Gorman compromisers in sad plight. They were going to be so devilish sly as to give Republican manufacturers protection up to the eyes, in the expectation that these gentlemen would then turn upon the Republican Senators and compel them to vote for the bill, or for some parts of it. For a time it seemed as if the scheme might work, and Senators Allison and Proctor incautiously came out into the open and admitted that things might be worse and that the bill would pass "speedily." But now they have been told to quit talking nonsense like that and to fight the whole bill tooth and nail. Orders have gone out from the Manufacturers' Club of Philadelphia to accept no concession except "the McKinley act as it stands." The *Manufacturer* says that "protectionists from principle must regard with feelings of indignation the alleged protectionists who have of late been flocking to Washington to ask for favors at the hands of the Senators who are urging the new tariff bill," and affirms with much force that the protectionist amendments are a confession of weakness, and that it "would be an act of folly of almost criminal proportions" for Republicans to accept any terms. In like manner the Boston *Journal of Commerce* thunders against accepting "any compromise whatever." All this is what any one not gifted with Gorman's supernatural craft might have foreseen from the beginning.

The Republican intention to filibuster brings the old question of minority rule in the Senate to the front again. The bill will never get into conference unless the Democratic majority in the Senate asserts itself. If the Republicans will not agree to take the final vote after a reasonable time, the vote should be taken with or without their consent, and with or without damage to the dignity of the Senate. The Vice-President intimated last summer, in the course of the silver debate, that he would put the question whenever an assured majority authorized him to do so. He may soon have to do it, and it should be much easier for him to do it now with a party majority at his back than it would have been last September with the Democratic leaders divided.

Why does not some Senator insist that those who speak in the Senate be compelled to speak to the question? In no respect does the "courtesy of the Senate" lead to buffoonery and the blocking of public business more surely than in its toleration of the habit of hitching any kind of a speech to any kind of a bill or motion. Stewart has made his silver speech a dozen times over on the tariff bill. Senator Higgins worked in a long address on the Hawaiian question while the same bill was before the Senate, and Chandler and Frye told trout stories and joked with each other by the hour the other day while the Senate was supposed to be debating paragraphs of the tariff bill. No one ever rises to call a speaker to order for such a gross invasion of the privileges and dignity of the Senate. Yet it is one of the elementary principles and presuppositions of all parliamentary rules that a man who speaks at all must speak, at least ostensibly, to the question under debate. But it appears hopeless to expect any of the senatorial discreditors of senatorial dignity to make a serious move in the matter. Senator Faulkner had the temerity the other day to call Senator Aldrich to order for speaking more than twice on the same day on the same motion, as being in flagrant violation of one of the express rules of the Senate, but a chorus of indignation at such a disregard of courtesy at once went

up, and Senator Faulkner apologetically withdrew his point of order.

There probably never was so droll a use made of the writs of a court of equity as the injunctions which various Western judges have issued to the Coxeyites, forbidding them to seize and carry off trains on the railroads now in possession of receivers. The injunction has hitherto been supposed by the lay world to be a process intended to restrain one of the parties to a suit in equity from committing, or persisting in committing, some act prejudicial, or likely to be pronounced prejudicial by a final judgment, to the other party's rights. But in these cases it has been issued to prevent parties in no way before the court from committing highway robbery. If we are not mistaken, too, it is usually not applied for or issued without notice to the other side. In other words, the Coxeyites ought to have had an opportunity to show cause why the writ should not issue—that is, to be "heard by counsel." Their "cause" probably would have been that the seizure of the trains was necessary to enable them to discharge a great public duty at Washington by urging on Congress the issue of $500,000,000 of irredeemable greenbacks to supply work to the unemployed.

It has been a close race between the Populist Governors of Kansas, Colorado, and Oregon, but the executive of the last named State has come out ahead as the champion of disorder. One of the Coxey "armies" appeared in Portland and committed lawless acts. As one of the railroads concerned was under the charge of receivers appointed by a United States court, Federal troops intervened, but other lawless acts were threatened, over which they had no jurisdiction. There was great public uneasiness, and much doubt as to the ability of the police to preserve order. An effective force of militia stood ready to perform any service required of them. Gov. Pennoyer was absent from his post, conducting a personal canvass for the United States Senatorship. The adjutant-general telegraphed him a statement of the facts, and asked for instructions to the officers of the militia. The Governor replied that he had no instructions to give, and added that he "didn't care a whoop" whether the lawbreakers or the United States troops came out ahead. The message was an official one, but the adjutant-general was ashamed to publish it. The Governor, however, was so proud of it that he read it from the platform to public meetings in both Grant's Pass and Jacksonville, boasting of it as a creditable performance and chuckling over it as a good joke on the city of Portland.

The latest statement of the condition of affairs in the Public Printing-Office at Washington is scarcely less edifying than the many that have preceded it during the past dozen or more years. Mr. Benedict, the head of the office, finds that there are at least four hundred more employees than he can find work for. "There are so many employees on the rolls that not only is there no work for all, but there is not room enough in the building to accommodate the crowd. There are more men in the building than there are desks, chairs, and other places of accommodation. The halls and aisles are rapidly filling up, and the building has become so crowded that hardly room enough is left to work in." In order to obtain room to work in, hundreds of employees have been let out indefinitely on a "system of furloughs." Mr. Benedict has begun his reform by discharging all these absentees, and is determined to keep on pruning the force until the standing-room is thinned out sufficiently to allow the work of the office to go forward. He does not propose, we believe, to build shelves or bunks, as was formerly done, to put the idle employees on in order that more floor room may be obtained. The cause of this ridiculous condition of affairs is the old one, that Congressmen of both parties are continually getting men into the office through "pulls" of various kinds. It is a great scandal, and the only remedy for it is the removal of the office entirely from politics by placing it under civil-service regulations. There has been talk for many years of erecting a new building for the public-printing establishment, but unless the propensities of Congressmen to stuff its force be checked first, nothing smaller than one of the great buildings of the late Chicago Fair would be adequate to accommodate it.

Alabama, like some other States in the South, holds her State election at a different time from the elections for Congressmen and President, the separation having been made in order to avoid possible complications with the Federal election laws while the latter were on the statute book. A Governor will be elected on the first Monday of August, and, under the new election law, voters must register between the 7th and 26th of May, except in the four chief cities, where thirty days are allowed. A registration certificate is required, which the voter must preserve and produce at the polls when he presents his ballot. This requirement is new in the State, although the system has prevailed in the city elections of Montgomery for years and has worked admirably. One motive for the law was undoubtedly the hope that the negroes would overlook the necessity of registering so long beforehand, and that some of them would lose their certificates during the intervening period; but the first reports from the "black belt" indicate that a large proportion of them mean to vote.

The situation of the United States Treasury in respect of the gold movement is briefly this: what ails the Treasury is not lack of gold in particular, but lack of revenue. The secretary a few months ago estimated his deficit for the fiscal year ending June 30 at $75,000,000. Since that estimate was made he has sold $50,000,000 of bonds, for which he received something over $58,000,000, leaving still a shortage of $17,000,000, or more likely $20,000,000, on the year's operations. Under such circumstances, his general balance is sure to fall by that sum, and it really makes no difference whether it be his gold or any other part of his funds, provided his gold does not get so low as to start a panic, of which there is not the least probability. The tariff bill has been so botched and bewitched in the Senate that no additional revenue can be got out of it during the present fiscal year, and we fear not much during the next. Probably the sugar required for a year's consumption will have been imported in advance of the passage of the bill, and thus the revenue which ought to go to the Government will line the pockets of the refiners. So, too, with the increased tax on distilled spirits. As to the income tax, if it passes, a full year will elapse before it will yield anything. On the other hand, the markets are so bare, and will continue to be until the bill passes, that a smart revival of business must then take place. The Treasury will reap its share of the benefit. Its revenues from ordinary sources, exclusive of sugar, whiskey, and incomes, will be much larger than they have been during the present fiscal year. Whatever brings revenue to the Treasury will bring gold, and when it once gets a monthly surplus, however small, all trouble about the gold balance will disappear. If it has to struggle with the present deficit beyond a certain period, it will have to make another loan or "shut up shop," and for this misfortune Congress, or rather the Senate, will be responsible.

Our dearth of great men has been a frequent subject of remark and lament among our most thoughtful citizens, but no one, we believe, has anticipated Mr. Brooks Adams in pointing out the sure remedy. Others have talked in a futile way about the levelling-down tendencies of democracy, and about the need of a great public question to bring forth great men, but he brushes all this aside and goes straight to the point—lack of cheap money. In his little pamphlet on 'The Gold Standard' he calls upon us to trace, among other high mysteries, the "impulse given to intellectual activity as the tide of money ran from south to north" in Europe in the six-

teenth century, as the flood of silver from the New World began to pour in after the discovery of America. Raphael and Michael Angelo were in their prime in 1515, and four years later silver had worked as far north as Germany and induced Luther to nail up his theses. Calvin could be born in silver-blessed France as early as 1509, but in England the white metal was so slow in arriving in fructifying quantities that Shakspere could not see the light till 1564. To produce great men of science was a still harder job for silver, as Mr. Adams observes, since it took about a hundred years of the "stimulant" to bring Galileo and Kepler into the world. As Mr. Adams remarks, "nothing is more curious" than this, and we cannot too soon set about enriching our own barren land with vast quantities of fertilizing silver coin. We knew before that it could drive some men crazy, but we did not know that it was the fruitful mother of genius and greatness.

It is natural, but entirely unnecessary, for the secretary of the Bimetallic League to give out an official explanation of the "apathy of the House of Commons" on the great question of a "stable par of exchange." From the point of view of the League, there was indeed something hard to account for. There it was, holding a tremendous international meeting in full view of Parliament, and Mr. Balfour had just answered with "an overwhelming yes" the question whether it was possible to make silver circulate on equal terms with gold. To have the House of Commons give an overwhelming no the next evening was somewhat trying to the bimetallist faith, and, above all, to the bimetallist sense of importance. If such things went unexplained, the eager watchers in America might begin to fear that England was not going to be in a hurry about getting down on her knees. But those who know London and the vast business carried on there, whose very life depends on the inviolability of the English standard of value, need no argument to show why the House of Commons should not do so preposterous a thing as to meddle with that standard of value. Mr. Balfour may talk about his overwhelming yes as long and as eloquently as he pleases, but he will get nothing out of the House of Commons but Carlyle's everlasting nay.

The French Government is reported to be about to give silver, and incidentally its embarrassed Treasury, a lift by coining $2,400,000 of subsidiary coin, on which, at the market price of silver, it could pocket a profit, or seigniorage, or whatever the wise it call, of $1,260,000. This great opportunity has come about through the Italian Government's having redeemed its own silver pieces circulating in France, and so given the latter country a chance to coin under the Latin Union agreement whereby each country can coin up to six francs per inhabitant. But the proposal has evoked vigorous protests, and in one of these, an open letter signed by M Rochaïd, we find the happy phrase: "All the world knows that silver money has become simply a metallic assignat." Such a name is not only telling but truthful, and ought to stick. The free-silver men of France to-day are aiming at precisely the same thing as the assignat men of the last century, and in our country they are only new editions of the "shinplaster," and "red-dog," and "wild-cat" financiers of other days.

The new chairman of the finance committee of Tammany Hall, vacated by Croker, is "Johnny" McQuade, formerly a police justice, but during recent years the most favored contractor of the Public Works Department. Justice and contracting are apt to go hand in hand in the circles of Tammany government. Andy White ran the two together for some years, but finally concluded that he saw enough contracting in the Dock Department to occupy all his time, and he left the bench to devote himself entirely to it. He had his system in beautiful operation when the Legislature stepped in and blocked it, and the prospect is now so gloomy for him that Andy may be forced to return to the bench in order fully to occupy his time. He wails publicly that the upsetting of his system has made it necessary to discharge no less than 1,200 men. Anybody can see what a personal loss that must be to Andy. His fellow contracting justice, McQuade, has got a much better thing than contracting in the chairmanship of the Tammany Hall finance committee, but it is said that he is to have it not for himself, but for Mayor Gilroy, whose obedient servant he has been for many years, and that when the mayor's term shall expire in December next, he will succeed both to the boss-ship and the chairmanship of the finance committee.

Capt. Mahan, the commander of the *Chicago*, who is being made much of, though not more than he deserves, by the naval authorities in England, has declined to express an opinion on the naval programme of Earl Spencer, and yet Capt. Mahan's opinion would have been very valuable. When Secretary Tracy went over, he gave his very freely, and it was used against Mr. Gladstone in the House of Commons, although Mr. Tracy could not possibly be supposed to be an authority on naval matters. Capt. Mahan, however, did not mind saying that superiority of force at sea is now more necessary to Great Britain than ever, which appears clear enough. But the reason of it is that Great Britain has immense foreign possessions which can be got at only by sea, and can be held only by means of a fleet which can beat any two or three other fleets. This is a state of things which undoubtedly swells the national pride and is in some ways an advantage to the world. But it is full of inconvenience, and, should a period of declining trade set in, would be a positive calamity. There are probably few Englishmen who would now deliberately enter on the creation of what is called "the British Empire" as a programme. The creation of a fleet competent to protect it is to-day a great burden on all classes in England. Nevertheless, if our naval officers had their way, Capt. Mahan included, they would load us with similar responsibilities, in the shape of outlying dependencies, posts and garrisons, and "coaling stations," without a particle of the excuse which England had for her expansion. She had to find room and fields of activity for an overflowing and enterprising population cooped up on a small island, while we have more space than we can fill in a century or two; and as to fields of activity, now that the Indians are gone, our bolder spirits can always find occupation in seizing trains and "marching on Washington."

There has been no ministry in England in the present century which has had to face so many troublesome questions with so small a majority as the present ministry command. There are home rule, the registration bill, the Welsh church disestablishment, and, though last and least, the budget, to all of which there is fierce opposition among the Tories, and in support of which the Liberals are by no means thoroughly united. The nine Parnellites seem to have finally deserted the ministry, and there is a good deal of lukewarmness among the English about the Welsh church bill, while, on the other hand, thirty-one Welsh votes cannot be counted on with any certainty unless it is pushed. Wales is suffering from that old-fashioned Irish plague of the gentry and landholders belonging to one church (and that the dominant, established church), and the mass of the people to others. And the trouble has been aggravated as usual by the attempt of the landowners to discriminate against Dissenters in letting their farms. There has not been so much of this of late years, but there has been enough to keep old hates burning briskly. The Episcopal clergy, too, have been anything but conciliatory in exacting their tithes—a grievance which grew more serious as the times grew bad. In the present struggle the Welsh church has, as the Irish church had, the English clergy at its back, and the bishops have fulminated a good deal against the Welsh despoilers, which only makes the despoilers all the fiercer.

THE COXEY "PROBLEM."

In spite of the gradual disruption of the Coxey armies, the Coxey "problem" still continues to cause a good deal of discussion in and out of the pulpit. It is not of much consequence in itself. A few thousand ragamuffins "marching on Washington" cannot put the United States Government or social order seriously in peril. To rate it at its full importance as a sign of the times, we must take it in connection with the Populist movement. The Coxeyites are Populists of the lowest grade, mobilized, so to speak, for active service. All Populists look to Washington for aid or relief, but the Coxeyites start for Washington in person. And we must not imagine that because we break up the Coxeyite "armies," or cease to elect Populist governors or legislators, the poison of Coxeyism has left our system. As long as there is a large party, containing "our best people" in this country, preaching the doctrine that American industry cannot flourish without Government aid, that the withdrawal of that aid means ruin and misery, and that every man in business who finds that his market is poor ought to go to Congress for relief, we shall every year find ourselves face to face with the rising tide of Coxeyism. Protection and democracy, as the founders of this republic understood it, cannot indefinitely exist together. Protection leads straight to socialism, of which Coxeyism is simply a filthy eruption. It has been for forty years preparing the world for socialism, notably in the two most democratic countries of the world—France and America. When the French agriculturists the other day demanded protection for their wheat, M. Juarès "went them one better," by demanding that the Government should import the necessary supplies of foreign grain and sell it at prices to suit the times.

During the whole of this period of forty years the doctrine that the state should see that the workingman got good wages has been the main feature in all the protectionist pamphlets and speeches and books and addresses. But the relief was for a good while to pass through the hands of the employers. It was the millionaires and the iron-masters who were to get the Government money, and it was they who were to dole it out to the workingmen. But no intelligent person could expect that, with the ballot in the hands of the laborer, this arrangement would last very long. He was sure to find out that the distribution was not altogether fair, that his wages did not rise in proportion to the rise in the tariff. Having made this discovery, he was sure to ask the question what was the use of having these subsidies pass through the hands of the employers; why could not the workers get them direct from the Government? This question he has now begun to ask, and he will ask it with increasing vehemence every year as long as we follow our present course. This is what Populism means and what Coxeyism means. Both are a widespread turning to Washington for relief on the part of that portion of the population which does not manufacture or mine, and cannot be protected by high duties on imports, namely, the farmers and farm-laborers, and in fact everybody that is poor and in debt or distress. They want money or employment direct from the Government, without the intervention of bosses or employers; and everything that makes money seem easy to manufacture—greenbackism, silverism, joint-metallism, and bimetallism—thus finds favor in their eyes. If we desire social peace and security, we must in this matter take the back track. We must set to work to undo the teachings of thirty years, and try to spread among the people once more the spirit of independence and self-reliance which was the leading American characteristic in the earlier years of the century.

We were in hopes that a beginning in this great work of social healing was made by the triumph of the tariff-reformers at the last Presidential election. The platform contained the following, which is the true democratic gospel, the only one by which a democratic government can last in our time without serious danger to property and order:

> "We denounce Republican protection as a fraud, a robbery of the great majority of the American people for the benefit of the few. We declare it to be a fundamental principle of the Democratic party that the federal Government has no constitutional power to impose and collect tariff duties, except for the purpose of revenue only, and we demand that the collection of such taxes shall be limited to the necessities of the Government when honestly and economically administered."

The Wilson bill in its original form did not carry out this programme. It left protection for protection's sake on a great many articles; it reduced it only slightly on others. In the tinkering which it has since undergone, it has been so altered that nobody would recognize it as a tariff-reform measure. It does not carry out the saving idea of the platform. It does not reverse the Republican policy. It does not start the nation on its return to sound and pure Americanism. On the contrary, it is likely to confirm the working classes in the idea that there is no difference between the two leading parties, and that their only salvation lies in a "social revolution." If it did not contain free wool and one or two other exemptions, it would be no boon to anybody, and the Republicans might well accept it as their own measure. For the great need of the time is not so much a shifting of duties or burdens, as a radical abandonment of the doctrine of Government protection. Tariff legislation must be turned in the direction of total non-interference on the part of the United States House and Senate. To expect them to "foster" industry with either grace, wisdom, or understanding, is preposterous. The collection of taxes to meet the expenses of the Government is as much as they are equal to.

THE SAMOAN TROUBLES.

Common sense in regard to foreign politics has a strange, unfamiliar sound in public life nowadays, and consequently Secretary Gresham's letter in reply to Senator Gray's resolution about Samoan affairs must for most readers have had whatever charm comes from novelty. Samoa is about 3,000 miles from our shores. If it belongs to any "system" it belongs to the Australasian system. Its condition and prospects concern us no more than the condition and prospects of the Cape of Good Hope. The Germans have been at work for years ousting the natives in the very manner which we have practised so successfully in Honolulu; but instead of employing missionaries and sons of missionaries, they have employed common traders, who, by means of mortgages and land sales, have been rapidly getting possession of the islands in the regular Hawaiian fashion, and taking possession of the government in the old-fashioned way with which the white man has made the untutored savage so familiar. Now, if this concerns anybody, it concerns the New Zealanders. They are the coming power with whom the Germans are meddling, and if they do not like it it is for the British to call the Germans to account. But we, in forgetfulness of the traditional policy of the Government, as Secretary Gresham has pointed out, thought we must have a finger in the pie, and we intervened and insisted on a tripartite treaty, under the strange hallucination that whatever happens in the whole Pacific Ocean is our affair. So we are governing the island jointly with the British and Germans, although it is these two Powers which have nearly all the commerce of the place. We have literally no interest in the islands whatever, for we have hardly any trade with them. In 1887, the year of the last "Samoan conference," out of 229 vessels which entered the port of Apia only six were American, and the total value of their cargoes was $60,000, and there has since been no increase.

The government which Secretary Evarts in 1877 said he would like to see set up in Samoa was a "stable, independent native government." The government we have set up under the tripartite treaty is, to use Secretary Gresham's language, "in substance and in form a tripartite foreign government, imposed upon the natives, and supported and administered jointly by the three treaty Powers." The result has been continual unrest, disturbance, and foreign interference. This mania for foreign dependencies at great distances from our shores, which breaks so

completely with all the best traditions of our own Government, and seems to increase with the increasing difficulty of our domestic problems, is due to two causes. One is the theory, broached by Blaine and supported by high-tariff writers, that trade with distant points is started or promoted by "showing the flag," bringing our Government to the knowledge of the natives, or establishing lines of subsidized steamers. People are deceived by the old British phrase, "Trade follows the flag," concocted by Great Britain when she had no rivals, at s a or in manufactures, and could "lick" anybody who tried to compete with her, but senseless in these days, when every barbarian on the globe is pursued by the rival drummers of half-a-dozen great industrial Powers. Trade in our time follows cheapness and durability. All the navies, steamers, and telegraphs in the world will not make people look at your goods unless they are cheaper than other people's—a simple truth which it seems impossible to hammer into a protectionist skull.

The other is the growing disposition to shirk domestic reforms by means of a vigorous foreign policy to be carried out by a large navy. On the same principle on which the rich man acts who pays blackmail to Croker, but who will not work for municipal reform, a large body of our politicians try to either cover up or excuse their indifference to the condition of the suffrage, of the civil service, and of the finances by disputing with European Powers about protectorates and "coaling stations" in distant seas, and pretending that every little rock in the vast expanse of the Pacific is a "strategic point" Nothing to-day does more to lower American character and institutions in the eyes of the foreign world than the kind of men with which we fill our legations and consulships abroad; but it is much easier to try to meet this discredit by sending smart cruisers to show themselves in foreign ports, and bully weak Powers, than to reform our diplomatic service. Our trying to keep the Samoans in order when we cannot protect our great lines of railroads from armies of tramps, is surely a grotesque spectacle; and when twenty Republican Senators vote with a Harvard graduate to levy discriminating duties on the imports of our best foreign customer in order to compel her to change her standard of value—a proceeding in all respects worthy of the Samoan King Malietoa or Mataafa, or Tamasese, whom we have been trying to train in sound politics—surely it is time to let the poor savages alone.

WOMAN IN THE SOCIALISTIC STATE.

It is always interesting to read the additional explanations which the socialists keep making from day to day about the kind of place their "State" will be when they have got full possession of the world. One of these, and a very curious one, appears in the last *Fortnightly* from Prof. Karl Pearson, the professor of mathematics and mechanics in the University of London, in an article on "Woman and Labor." It is extremely wordy and extremely obscure, as such productions are apt to be. There is a great deal about "evolution" and "development" and "transition," and a good deal of condemnation of the "competitive system," which we have heard before without much profit. But he says, "The two, and we might almost say the only two, problems of modern social life are the problems of woman and the problem of labor." Nothing is more curious in these writings than the extensive use of the word "problem." Almost everything animate is a "problem" to a socialist; that is, something he has solved or can solve or explain. Of course, every individual in the world is a problem to himself or somebody, as well as Labor and Woman. But most people select very early in life the problems they think they can solve and let the others alone. The social reformer is not so easily disheartened. When he recognizes anything as a "problem," he sits down before it and does not leave it till he solves it in an article or a book.

Most people will suppose that what Prof. Pearson means by the "Problem of Woman" is the best means of securing her a vote, or the best means of securing her equality with men in the labor market, or the best means of getting husbands for those who are likely to remain unmarried. But they will be mistaken. The women have got beyond these things. What is now in their minds, and what they are going to have, is "insurance against motherhood," on the part of the State—not, of course, the thing we now call the State, but the new socialistic State which is to succeed it. This is what "organized womanhood" is going to insist on, and it will not be content with anything else. The women, it says, who marry and bear children are worsted in the labor market by the single women; that is, are really punished for doing what is woman's highest duty. This state of things will certainly not be permitted in the socialist State—

> "a womankind seeking in all classes to take part in social labor and activity, and, owing to the selective processes now at work, likely to have increased rather than decreased sexual and maternal instincts; conscious, too, of the vital importance of problems of heredity, and for which the problem of population, the question who shall be the parents of its children, will, with the growth of the socialistic tendency, become the chief problem of the State."

Such a womankind will on no account permit this open competition between the married and unmarried women to go on unchecked. The State must help the married women to hold their own, and for this purpose there is to be a fund called a "national insurance against motherhood," which is to subsidize all the mothers when bearing children. "To reconcile maternal activity," Prof. Pearson declares, "with the new possibilities of self-development open to women, is *par excellence* the woman's problem of the future."

What is most startling in this is the prospect it holds out that not only will the socialist State choose our occupation for us and fix our rate of wages, but it will also choose our parents. It is to decide who are to be our fathers and mothers. The privilege of marriage will probably only be accorded by a State board, after a hearing, we hope, "by counsel." The number of children a couple may have will, doubtless, considering the importance of the law of heredity, be settled in the same manner, after a minute examination of their moral and intellectual condition and their physical constitution. It will be easily seen what excitement the election of such a board will create, and what a temptation there will be to wirepulling and corruption of every description on the part of couples who feel doubtful of their ability to pass; or rather, we should perhaps say, *would* create under our present individualistic system, for, of course, in the socialistic State, people will be above such things.

What is the ordinary definition of insanity? Is it not a disregard of the facts of life and the ordinary course of events in human society? If this be a correct definition, may we not entertain harrowing doubts as to the mental conditions of many of these apostles of the new gospel? Their promises about their millennium are every day becoming more wonderful, and showing a closer approach to the hallucinations with which alienists are familiar.

There appears, in fact, just now to be a great wave of mental disturbance passing over the world, due, we believe, in large part to the rapidity with which science and invention have revolutionized social conditions. There is a story of an African chief who was carried on board an English man-of-war, and shown over the ship, including the engine-room. He was so overcome by the wonders he saw around him that he went insane, and committed suicide by jumping overboard. When we read some of these socialistic pictures of the future, and see on every side the worship of silver as a personality with human attributes, and find its abundance made one of the causes of great men, and see the widespread desire to live on the State as if it were an entity of limitless powers and funds, and the widespread belief that if the powers of Government were enlarged the qualities which have made government difficult for ten thousand years would disappear, we suspect that modern progress has proved too rapid and violent for poor human reason, and that, if society had a

neck, there would be much danger of its hanging itself.

A PROTECTED ORTHOGRAPHY.

We have long been accustomed to distrust the Hon. William E. Chandler in any public capacity, and as a reformer particularly we can but view him with strong suspicion. The American Philological Association, or the friends of its "24 Joint Rules for Amended Spelling," do not share our prejudices against the New Hampshire statesman, and are using him as an instrumentality for fastening these rules upon the Government Printing-Office. For a scholar in politics they would more naturally have resorted to the Hon. Cabot Lodge, but as a veteran protector of infant industries Mr. Chandler had superior claims, the Amended Spelling being avowedly in the interest of infants. This class of the community is not, indeed, passionately addicted to the study of public documents, does not cry for them, and has never complained of the difficulty of reading them on account of our absurd English orthography. Still, for their sake, it is proposed to compel millions of adults, English-speaking and foreign, to learn to read and spell anew in order to avail themselves of the products of the Government press. Mr. Chandler, being an adept in class legislation, accordingly introduced in the Senate on February 19, 1894, a joint resolution to that effect, embodying the "24 Joint Rules" at full length, and the arguments by which they are supported.

Every one who has watched the slow progress of the reform knows, of course, that the Amenders are aiming at bigger game than the Public Printer. They hope through him to put the screws on publishing-houses and dictionary-makers and text-book makers and journalists. The joint resolution quite frankly professes its design — "to encourage better spelling of the English language, to make easier, more logical, and more rapid the work of pupils in learning to read, and to reduce the cost of printing and writing." A paternal government which regards it as its province to hold up the price of silver, and to foster manufactures, and to furnish work to the unemployed and a living wage to every worker, may well take a hand in this new business, on an economic pretext. Its promoters assure us that one-fifth of the bulk of all printed matter would be saved if a strictly phonic system were adopted. To have the long-winded Allen, Jones, or Peffer, or even Senator Chandler himself, reduced by so large a percentage in the *Congressional Record* would certainly be a boon, even if there were not "millions in it" for the overburdened taxpayer. Nevertheless, we have to ask ourselves if the disfigurement of the public documents with outlandish orthography is a justifiable step in the present state of cultivated public opinion upon the subject, which is far from being unanimous, and whether the Government ought to be dragged into a propaganda which apparently will not go of itself.

We do not now propose to discuss these questions, but we desire to say a word on behalf of the Eye in a controversy which is really between the Eye and the Ear. We are asked to consider mainly the young and their perplexities in learning to read by sound, and the Amenders pride themselves on having comprised in their rules the monosyllables and dissyllables "ever in our mouths." In other words, this small body of colloquial expressions, not too numerous to commit to heart, and presenting very extensive analogies, is to be transformed at the expense of intelligent readers who read without pronouncing because the form of the word is a distinct ideograph. Yet even here the Amenders have not had the courage of their convictions, for while they lop off the initial *w* in *whole*, they do not tamper with it in *who*, though the latter word is used a thousand times oftener. Moreover, the abbreviated *whole* at once competes in understanding with *hole* the noun. These diverse spellings for words pronounced alike are, as Mr. Henry Bradley says, established "useful distinctions," and to abolish them is to impose a hardship upon the child in the very act of pretending to relieve him. So, again, as the digraph *ch* has three if not four values, to strike out the *t* before it in *witch*, etc., is to abandon a perfectly satisfactory, because invariable, guide to the pronunciation. Some schemes for transliteration from the Russian employ *tch* regularly for the corresponding sound of *ch;* but our Amenders would reprobate this. *Gu*, again, if its vowel is sometimes silent and sometimes sounded, infallibly betokens hard *g*, yet the Amenders, having a blind man's spite against silent letters, banish the *u* before *a* and in all native English words, as, *guest*, *guess*, *guild*, thus introducing a fresh source of confusion.

A memorial now being circulated in behalf of the Chandler resolution assures Congressmen that, "because of the faults of the spelling now in vogue, many a bright, sensitiv, truth-luving child is made to feel that spelling is untruthful and cannot be lerned by an exercize of the faculties of reason," with a consequent "hindrance to the development of the natural and truthful instincts of his being." For our part, with all respect to the memorialists, we find this a puerile argument. Perfect consistency will never be reached in the English language—and, we will add, may it never be! But our piecemeal reformers simply bewilder still more the truth-loving child who is taught to pronounce *gess* (guess) with a hard *g* and *George* with a soft, *gild* (guild) with a hard and *gillyflower* with a soft, and who has to be saddled with explanations why *live* the adjective is spelled with a final *e* and *live* the verb without, why he must write *crost* and not *chast*, *lookt* and not *chancd*.

Without novel characters or the liberal use of diacritic marks, there can be no phonic assurance except practice in pronouncing the English vowels. Yet we are told that in "port, post, sport, tomato, potato," for example, "the spelling is truthful, logical, easy to lern, and easy to write and print." Ask a foreigner to pronounce *tomato* and *potato*, however, and see what he will make of them; or the words *thru*, *thuroly*, *enuf*, *lern to spel*. *Muney* is not a whit easier than *money*, or else *lern* should have been spelt *lurn;* and the form *money* (if the claims of the educated, including high-school children, may be feebly protested) accords with the spellings of the Latin and its derivative tongues on the Continent (Lat. and Ital. *moneta*, Sp. *moneda*, Port. *moeda*, Fr. *monnaie*, etc.), with which we should not needlessly put ourselves out of line etymologically. On the other hand, we needlessly foreignize our tongue by multiplying the single *f*, *l*, and *v* endings—*e. g.*, *litl*, *ruf* (rough), *hav*—which are repugnant to the English eye.

The alleged saving of time in writing by all these abbreviations is illusory. It defies computation. No one ever yet owned his debt to Webster for the aggregate leisure obtained by spelling *traveller* with one *l*. The effect on adults who have to accustom themselves to the new-fangled forms in reading and writing will be an irritating loss of time. The expense argument is equally illusory. A writer who checks his verbosity, or who uses short for long words or cultivates a simple rather than an involved style, will save far more than by practising the Amended Spelling. Then, what of the cost of making over our dictionaries, with initial *ph* to be sought for under *f*, *cinder* to be looked for under *s*, etc.? Is there not here loss of time, too, even if there are cross-references? Finally, let us not forget that the difficulties, the irregularities, the want of analogy, in our orthography grow out of the supreme merit of the English language, its capacity to borrow freely and assimilate perfectly from all others; that thousands of children (not necessarily falsehood-loving) have overcome these difficulties unconsciously at the age of three years; that the most approved mode of teaching spelling at the present day is not phonetically—by ear—but by the so-called word-method—by the eye—memoriter practice from the speller having been largely superseded by exercises on the daily lesson in the reader; and that the English race is not intellectually behind any other by reason of the greater time

necessary to acquire the art of reading and spelling.

A CATALOGUE FOR THE NATIONAL LIBRARY OF FRANCE.

A VERY important report has just been issued by the Bibliothèque Nationale of France. A committee of twenty persons, of whom nine were members of the Institute, four librarians, and three inspector-generals of libraries, has been considering the advisability and method of printing the catalogue of the largest library in the world, which contained at the end of last year 1,934,154 "numbers," forming at least 2,600,000 volumes. The report gives an interesting sketch of the history of the cataloguing of the library from the beginning, which is the not uncommon story of an insufficient personnel overwhelmed by great accessions, of neglect, bad judgment, increasing confusion, frantic efforts to remedy the evil, attempts to do too much—apparently a continued struggle to run a great library with a small staff. Finally, on the accession of M. Léopold Delisle in 1875, was inaugurated the present system, which led to the completion of the inventory in December, 1893. Nothing now remains to be done but to add the printed matter, often very important, which is included among manuscripts in the manuscript department, together with a collection of books belonging to the library kept at present in the palace of Fontainebleau, and then to print.

This the committee has unanimously decided to do, on two grounds—first, as a safeguard to the property of the library, and second, as a guide to the researches of students. For a century, losses of books have been frequent. Most of the books recovered come from booksellers and book-lovers who voluntarily restore books which they find on their shelves with the library's marks. The committee believes that the copies of the catalogue which would, of course, be accessible in every public library, would be an important instrument of verification and the best of guarantees for the public property. As for the service which such a catalogue would render to students, it is needless to speak. Scholars in the provinces and abroad will find in it the elements of a bibliography in their respective researches, and within the library a reader will find his book more easily, and will have to wait for it a shorter time, because he will put on the slip by which he demands it the exact shelf-mark, instead of handing in a request for a book which may or may not be in the library, and of which he may or may not have the correct title, and waiting while an attendant hunts it up in several catalogues—an operation which on the average takes thirty minutes. The committee no doubt considered, though they abstain from discussing it in their report, the feasibility of putting this same information before the readers on cards—that is, of extending to the older books the system of cards clamped in volumes which the library has adopted for all books received since 1872. Of the American improvements in card catalogues they perhaps have no idea, and of the Rudolph Indexer they probably never have heard. But to prepare the slips of the inventory of the older books for insertion in the card-books would be a work of some cost, and, while it would give a most useful instrument for the readers within the library, it would be of no use in the other libraries of the country, and, moreover, would not be to the world so glorious a monument of French literature.

The chief reason for printing, in our opinion, is the possibility of making from these printed lists, with no further expense than the cost of cutting up, mounting, and classifying, any number of bibliographies. Titles arranged in chronological order, which would present the history of literature; titles in geographical order, giving the typographical history of every place, so far as its printing is represented in the library; an arrangement by bindings, for all whose bindings are worth mention; an arrangement by donors; an arrangement by languages, forming national bibliographies; a classified arrangement with every refinement that it has entered into the mind of man to conceive; and finally, most useful of all, an arrangement under subjects placed in alphabetical order—all these the happy library that prints its titles can easily have. It is true that it costs money to cut up and mount, and above all to classify; but this is for future consideration. It is a pity that the committee does not discuss the application of logotypy. Perhaps they have considered it and found it too costly, but they say nothing of it. Perhaps if we had had to furnish the money, we should not have regarded these arguments as conclusive; but we are glad that they have appeared so to the committee; for this catalogue, like that of the British Museum, will be a boon to American students, and each of our great libraries will undoubtedly procure a copy. It will be most interesting to compare the two catalogues, and it will be found, we believe, that the two greatest gatherings of books in the world are by no means duplicates of one another. The Museum is, of course, far the fuller in English history and English literature, and its quantities of English pamphlets can nowhere be equalled; the Bibliothèque is correspondingly superior in French history and literature, and not weak in pamphlets, although we suppose it hardly has such numbers of these troublesome but often important issues of the press. What the Museum has, in fact, is not all revealed by its present catalogue; a mass of several thousand Mazarinades, for instance, is represented by a single entry, and the detailed cataloguing is reserved for the Supplement.

The rules suggested for the placing of entries are generally judicious. We do not see the use of having one catalogue for authors and a second alphabet for anonymous works, but this is a matter on which there may well be difference of opinion. Anonymous works whose authors are known will appear under their names—an improvement on the practice of the British Museum. Periodicals and the publications of societies will appear in special catalogues—another matter on which there is a difference of opinion among experts. This is not, we believe, the practice in any American library. It is audacious to disagree on any point with so eminent a committee, yet we can but think that they have not solved the still-vexed problem of books which remain anonymous as well as they might have done. Barbier pointed out the only way of salvation—entry in all cases under the first word, the only rule that cannot be differently interpreted by different cataloguers, giving the only place where one can be sure of finding a work. Panizzi wanted to follow Barbier entirely, but was overruled by his trustees and obliged to make several exceptions. Still, on the whole, the British Museum enters under the first word not an article or preposition. The French committee, however, propose to return to the older fashion—the first significant word—opening the door wide to all sorts of diversities of practice, and therefore preparing many vexatious disappointments to those who use the catalogue. *Remontrances*, for instance, are to be put either under "États-généraux" or under "Parlement," because, forsooth, there would be such a number of titles beginning with *Remontrance*. But will there not be quite as many entries, or more, under États-généraux and Parlement? Other "first words" are to be discarded in favor of "important words" selected by the cataloguer. The committee admit that it will be a work of tact to apply this rule. Certainly it will, and it will be a work of genius to find anything under it.

Again, works published under an initial are to be treated as anonymous. "The contrary system adopted by the British Museum has resulted in filling 192 columns [there are nearer 250 now] of that catalogue with titles entered under the letter B alone. This is enough to explain the decision of the committee." What an inadequate reason! The titles do not take any more room under B than they would anywhere else, and they are easier to find. It is not harder to put one's finger on B., T. A., than it is on Bacon, T. A.; it is as easy to find any one among the ten B., T. A., if there are so many, as it is to find it among the ten Bacon, T. A. The 192 columns are simply a bugbear which ought not to frighten anybody.

The committee mentions with pardonable pride the improvements introduced during the last quarter-century in the service of the library. In 1868 the reading-room had barely a hundred seats, and readers might often be seen wandering disconsolately and vainly in search of an empty one. Now the number of seats is quadrupled (but we must remark that such is the increase in the use made of the library that the vain search for a seat may still be seen). Readers then collected in crowds round the bureau, waiting for their names to be called, when, after a long time, the book demanded issued mysteriously from behind the screen. Now books are delivered to them at their desks (after an average wait of thirty minutes, as we ascertained last winter); and till they are brought the students have at their free disposal 9,000 volumes of carefully selected reference books. In 1868 they had no books whatever to consult during this time, and had to send in a "call-slip" to get the commonest dictionary. Then they were expressly forbidden, by repeated regulations, to consult the catalogue. Now they have author and subject-catalogues of all books received since 1872. In one respect they are even more favored than the readers in the great British Museum reading-room. They have the last numbers of the principal French and foreign periodicals laid out on a table for free use—not, indeed, the popular magazines which one finds in all American and English town and city libraries, and not even as many learned periodicals as one finds in our college and our greater public libraries, but still enough to be of great service. And yet, with all these ameliorations, the public complain. But the administration is not discouraged, and it projects further improvements—another reading-room fitted up for evening use, additional storage-rooms, more attendants.

THE INTERNATIONAL MEDICAL CONGRESS AT ROME.

ROME, April, 1894.

THIS important gathering of medical men (from March 29 to April 5) was composed of more than seven thousand registered members. Of this number probably only one-third took part in the proceedings of one or more of the nineteen sections into which the body was di-

vided to carry on its deliberations. The other two-thirds made the Italian journey more as a vacation outing, spending little or no time at meetings, but taking advantage of the many and varied opportunities for sightseeing and social enjoyment, both public and private. The Congress was formally opened at the large Costanzi Theatre, in presence of the King and Queen and a great concourse of notabilities, by Crispi speaking for the King. He laid particular stress upon the work of medical science in recent years in regenerating unhealthy regions and cities. Prof. Baccelli, the Minister of Public Instruction and president of the Congress, made his address of welcome and salutation in Latin, in dignified and formal sentences, with apt application of the Latin maxims, "Salus populi suprema lex esto," and "Nulla re magis homines ad Deos accedere quam salutem hominibus dando."

Prof. Virchow, the representative of the University of Berlin, in his address at the first general session, traced the history of medicine from the earliest times to Morgagni, the Italian who, in the last century, originated the science of pathological anatomy by his important discoveries of the changes in the tissues produced by disease, from which moment medical science moved forward on solid grounds. The noteworthy address by Prof. Foster of Cambridge, on "Organization in Science," laid bare the present defects and needs of the scientific world. He remarked that the literature of medical and physiological science is now chaotic, that it is impossible for any one worker to keep track of all the work done even in his own chosen field and to find time for any researches of his own; that there should be systematized endeavor in each department of science, directed by an international body—a skilled jury—whereby expenses would be met, the chosen gifted investigators stimulated, the incompetent discouraged; and, finally, that the numerous well-known problems now before us in physiology and biology should be attacked by united, regulated efforts, the results to be published from time to time in one common language, so that the great body of busy men could have early and sufficient cognizance of all true progress. In science, differentiation had come perforce, and now integration was urgently needed to prevent men from going over the same ground, to guide workers, and to repress the publication of crude material. Individual ambition would probably not be checked (though this point demands careful consideration), and the motive and aim of all scientific inquiry—the truth—would be furthered and the results more successfully garnered. Prof. Babesiu of Bucharest spoke instructively on the state of public sanitary laws and hygiene since the development of bacteriology—a period of scarcely twenty years. He predicted that the lately enacted sanitary code of Italy would return many times its cost even to the present generation. Modern states in general provide inadequately for the execution of sanitary laws. Consumption alone, a preventable disease, causes one-seventh of all deaths in civilized nations, whereas the panic inspired by a threatened cholera invasion, which may in comparison take only a fraction of this number of lives, impels lavish expenditure and temporary vigilance backed by the power of the State. The grounds on which this power was formerly withheld from sanitary authorities are disappearing, as the State alone, under the highest medical direction, can deal with members of a community who, by originating a focus of disease, menace the public welfare and involve the lives of an indefinite number of their fellow-citizens.

At the general sessions the discourses were usually in German, French, or Italian, and but twice in English. The papers contributed numbered in all upwards of twenty-five hundred, of which a goodly proportion will probably never get into print. Among the speakers not already named were Nothnagel of Austria, Brouardel of France, Hokvis of Holland, and Jacobi of New York. This American delegate sounded a note of warning against the encroachment of the social festivities upon the real objects of these congresses, which are always announced as being "purely scientific." Yet the newspapers of the city laid much and not undue stress upon the banqueting of the French delegates by the prominent Italians and their fraternal speeches. Prof. Virchow's political career and his part in the *Kulturkampf* were also brought up, his presence in Rome being thus invested with a significance quite foreign to his scientific reputation. The king treated him with exceptional distinction, but this is readily accounted for on purely personal grounds.

The sections met at the Policlinico, a series of five new buildings destined to form part of a magnificent hospital, one of the largest in Europe. It is situated without the walls on a commanding position on the north side of Rome. The plenary sessions were held in the city in an inadequate hall adjoining the handsome Fine Arts building on the Via Nazionale. This building contains a very interesting exhibition of scientific apparatus, books, models, and plans of sanitary and engineering works of many modern institutions and cities, European army medical equipments, medical instruments, rare old medical and philosophical books and writings, including many illuminated manuscripts and *codici di medicina* from the Italian libraries—notably those loaned by the University of Naples. Lavish hospitality was extended by the city and by private individuals, and galleries were freely opened to the guests. The most imposing event was the illumination of the "platea archeologica" on the night of April 3. The whole region from the Coliseum to the Capitol, including the Forum and the Palatine in every part, was lighted up in every detail by oil lamps and torches, with occasional bursts of colored pyrotechnics. The scene was truly extraordinary, and vividly suggested the glories of the great past. The various spaces and heights were divided into "tribunes," and the enormous crowds were fairly well placed and managed for this occasion. Bands of music played at several points, and one composed of guitars and stringed instruments was stationed near the royal tribune. The municipality also gave a reception to the "Congressistos" at the capitol, displaying the buildings and their beautiful contents to the best advantage.

The management of the enormous crowds on most of these occasions has been justly criticised, but never before was there a medical congress exceeding 7,000 members, for the most part, as I have said, more bent on sightseeing than on "wissenschaftliche Arbeit," as a German professor put it. The Eternal City was already full before this crowd streamed down upon it from the north and from all quarters of the world, and lodgings were at a premium. Women who desired to become members of the congress could do so and were on an equal footing with men, and many attended the sectional meetings diligently; at least one of them (a Russian) receiving high, outspoken commendation for her work. The weather was matchless; and at this season, with the bright freshness of spring in the air and over all nature, Rome seemed enchanting. C. A. S.

GREECE REVISITED.—II.

ATHENS, April 17, 1894.

THERE is one respect in which the travelling accommodations in Greece have not improved of late years—one, in fact, in which they have retrograded. This is in the connections with other parts of Europe. Between Constantinople and Greece there has been more or less quarantine all winter, and of this route I cannot speak. But when I was last here, one could be sure of at least three good steamers weekly between Athens and Italy; and, having read the accounts of the imposing ceremonies attending the opening of the Corinthian Canal last August, I had looked forward confidently to the passage through this as one of the new experiences to be enjoyed, and had hoped there might be even a larger choice of steamers than there used to be. Instead of this, however, I found that there is as yet no foreign line of steamers using the canal, which still lies awaiting the traffic that is to come. Various reasons have been reported as to the cause of this delay, but these, as Herodotus would say, I forbear to repeat, well knowing what I am about. There is undoubtedly truth somewhere among the stories I have heard, but it is not worth while to inquire where. The fact is, that for the present there are two steamers leaving Brindisi every week for Patras, that both leave on the same day and at the same hour, that both keep within sight of each other all the way, and that it is merely a chance which reaches its destination first. There is just enough of the flavor of old times in this arrangement to remind one that it is the same part of the world in which he used to travel.

From Patras the journey to Athens has been for some years made by rail, and this day of railway is more than sufficient to make up for the disappointment of not sailing through the canal. The sail through the Gulf of Corinth was always one of the most delightful experiences in Greece, but I do not remember that the scenery was either so attractive or so impressive as it is from the railway, which runs all the way close to the southern shore, and, having crossed the Isthmus, skirts the coast of Megaris. This railway journey is worth crossing the Continent to take. The St. Gothard line is the only one in Europe which for beauty of scenery will at all compare with it, and the scenery along that route lacks the associations which give this a double charm and interest. For the best effects the sun is necessary. On a cloudy day the great element of its beauty—the color—is lacking. But with the sun full upon it, one gets that wonderful combination which I have never seen outside of Greece, of a light landscape against a dark sky, a sky in which the blue is of the purest and deepest, below which the mountains, in their delicate shades of pink and violet, seem to rest like clouds upon the earth, rather than to be a part of it. In the foreground, the gulf plays its part in the color scheme, the muddy rivers of the southern coasts sending out great shafts of green or yellow into the blue or purple of its own waters. Everything is delicate both in line and color. From the mountains along the northern coast rise others behind them, and in the backgrond Kiona, covered with snow, crowns the whole. Parnassos itself is in full view nearly all the morning, and, be-

yond it, the broad back of Helikon, the snow upon them quivering in the thin, clear atmosphere. On the other side of the railway are Erymanthos, Kyllene, and the hills which lead from them down to the sea.

After a comfortable halt for luncheon at New Corinth, we strike the isthmus, crossing the canal at a height of nearly two hundred feet, where it looks like a tiny thread between its huge, shelving walls. The isthmus passed, the line begins to climb the cliffs of Megaris, and here we come upon the most exciting, as well as the most inspiring, part of the day. The train winds along the Skironian rocks, which in many places have been blasted out to accommodate the railway; and, high above the sea, into which we should drop if a bolt gave way, we look out upon Aegina, Salamis, and the shores behind them, Hymettos and Pentelikon in the background, the bay of Eleusis and the mountains of Argolis. Indeed, the whole journey is like a great crescendo passage, reaching its climax as we come down through the Attic plain from the north, with the superb outline of the Akropolis in full view, and below it the city sparkling in the afternoon sunlight.

As to Athens itself, it would be idle to attempt an enumeration of the changes which have taken place in the last nine years. The city has grown, of course; there are more fine houses than there used to be, and many more of the humbler class. The number of good or pretentious shops has likewise increased; but in general the aspect of the city is the same. The streets are still either very muddy or very dusty, accordingly as it rained to-day or yesterday; the number of officers promenading them still suggests an army of untold proportions; and the stony little lanes leading up to the Akropolis are still as tortuous and deceptive as ever. But in what most concerns us there have been great changes, and, if one may judge from a week's experience, all for the better. The antiquities are now really taken care of. Even the Areopagos has an iron railing around the greater part of it, to protect the Grotto of the Furies from the profanations of the degenerate natives who no longer fear their terrors. The ruins of the Dipylon, also, and the cemetery outside it, have been enclosed, and must now be approached through gates which are guarded by custodians.

Of the Akropolis I shall speak presently, but I wish first to say something about what is practically a new creation since my last visit —the National Museum. Those who saw it in former days will remember the general air of shiftlessness which characterized both the building and its surroundings; the great yard between it and the street, filled with inscribed stones, which were arranged in a feeble attempt at order, with here and there among them the fragments of a grave-relief, waiting apparently for Time itself to join them together; the great unfinished façade of rubble, waiting for years—as everything used to wait in Greece—for its outer coating of stucco or marble; the interior, only a part of which was finished, with its cold gray walls, making merely a storehouse for the marble treasures, which were either leaned up against the walls or lying on the floor. A few of the more important statues had been set up, some of the fragmentary reliefs had been put together, and I remember one room around which busts were ranged, Greek and Roman indiscriminately. Now all this is changed. The yard in front has become a park or garden, with a large basin of water in the centre and shrubs and plants arranged in plots about the avenues which lead to the building. The inscriptions have been carried into the basement, where they form part of a valuable epigraphic collection, which was in charge of Dr. Lolling until his death, a few weeks ago. The building is finished, its façade consisting of an Ionic portico, with a long wing running out on either side; and if it is not beautiful, it is certainly no worse than most museums. The interior, which has only one story, consists of a chain of twenty-four rooms or halls surrounding two courts. On the inner or court side of these rooms, and connected with them, is a second series, smaller and narrower, of the kind known as cabinets. From the entrance-hall one passes to the left into the collection of sculpture, which now occupies fourteen of the larger rooms. The size of these has been admirably chosen, as they are all large enough to give an impression of space and dignity, yet most of them will admit but a limited number of statues or large works, so that there is no danger of bewildering or overwhelming the visitor with the sight of too many objects at once. The walls are painted a deep, warm red, and, with few exceptions, the rooms are lighted from one side only, the windows being high in the wall. A top light would have been still more effective, but this is so much better than the average that one cannot complain.

As a whole, I am inclined to say that this is the most effective museum of sculpture I know, yet I am not sure that the beauty of its contents has not something to do with this judgment, and also the fact that it is so vastly superior to what we used to expect. Certainly, if we take the contents themselves into consideration, there is no museum to compare with it, because everything here is Greek. There is, to be sure, nothing equal to the marbles which have gone to London, there is no single figure which equals the Venus of Melos, but there is that unmistakable delicacy of the pure Greek spirit pervading every individual fragment in the collection, from the crude "Apollos" down to the portraits of the Romans, which is not to be found to the same degree in any other collection. I do not know whether this charm is to be analyzed, but perhaps it is due to the very fact that the majority of the works here are of the less pretentious kind—gravestones, votive reliefs, and the like —in which the artistic instinct that was in the people expressed itself least consciously. In looking at these monuments one certainly has the feeling that we are seeing the Greek artist at home, and the feeling is based upon something more substantial than sentiment.

In the central portion of the museum is a large hall containing the works of the Mykenæan epoch—all the treasures found at Mykenæ itself, and those from other sites of the same period, such as Tiryns, Vaphio, Spata, and Menidhi. Here, without question, the museum is unrivalled, as all the other museums in the world combined could not produce a room like this. With the nature of the contents your readers are familiar, and it only remains to say that the arrangement of them is excellent, and the lighting much more satisfactory than that in the room of the Polytechnic Institute where they used to be exhibited. This winter the vases and terracottas have also been moved from the Polytechnic to the museum, where they are now being arranged in the rooms to the right of the entrance. In the first room of this series all the important bronzes in the possession of the Greek Government are being brought together, even the museum of Olympia and that of the Akropolis having been deprived of their principal pieces to make up this collection. The walls of all these rooms are lined with cases, and there are table cases standing about the floor; but few of them have been arranged yet, so that it is too early to describe them.

Turning now to the Akropolis, there is much less change in its external appearance than I had expected to find. I use the word external advisedly, because, although the surface looks practically as it used to do, every cubic foot of soil, down to the living rock, has been carefully turned over in the past twelve years, and sifted of its contents. Many of those who have read the accounts of the excavations must have wondered, as I did, whether the Akropolis was to be stripped of all its covering, and whether the demands of scientific curiosity would result in leaving it too realistic an illustration of the naked truth; but this has not been done. Even on the east front of the Parthenon, where the massive foundations were disclosed to a depth of twenty-five feet or more—I do not remember the exact figures—the soil has been put back, and even the fragments lying on the top have been replaced, though in a somewhat more orderly fashion than they were before. During the excavations all the data were measured, described, and photographed with the utmost detail, so that, although the surface looks as it did formerly, we know what lies, or what used to lie, below it, and, so far as one can foresee, it will never be necessary to excavate the enclosure of the Akropolis again. Some changes have of course resulted from this work. In several places the inner face of the surrounding wall has been left exposed, to show the architectural members of older buildings built into it, the space thus left being carefully protected from caving in by sustaining walls. In the same manner remains of the prehistoric period, and of the building to the southwest of the Parthenon, which lie far below the present level, have been left open, also protected by walls. The fragments of the Parthenon lie about in less picturesque confusion than formerly, but much more conveniently for those who wish to study them in detail, as the soil has been cleared out from around them, and the blocks themselves have been placed with some regard to the relative position in which they belonged.

The little museum on the Akropolis has grown considerably, as everybody knows, from the fruits of the excavations of which I have been speaking. Its chief additions are the painted fragments and statues, the most important of which have been made familiar in many publications. But I notice a very marked change in the condition of the colors of those I saw in 1885. The reds are fast disappearing; and, in fact, they are already gone entirely from many details where they were brilliant when the figures were discovered. The blues and greens have darkened considerably, and give but a poor impression of the bright color scheme which they formerly suggested. The Boston Museum of Fine Arts is to be congratulated on having acquired Gilliéron's water-colors of the best of these figures, made at the time of their discovery. As documents the value of his drawings will soon be inestimable; for even now it would be difficult for those who did not see the sculptures then to realize that some of the colors he noted had ever been on them. This disappearance of the colors is apparently inevitable. With the attention given to the antiquities under the able administration of Mr. Kavvadias, and with the jealous eyes of the members of four archæological schools constantly upon him, we may

be sure that these important traces would have been preserved if possible, but I believe no method of fixing them has yet been discovered. By and by the last scrap will have disappeared not only from these but from similar remains in other museums, and then those who do not like to believe that the Greeks painted their sculptures will no longer have the evidence of their own eyes to controvert them.

In closing this fragmentary account of the improvements which have taken place here within the last few years, I wish to acknowledge my own share of the gratitude and appreciation which every student of Greek art owes to Mr. Kavvadias, to whom much of what I have described is due. Working in behalf of an impoverished government, and with indifferent support from his associates, it is he who has completed and arranged the National Museum, adding largely to its contents, and carried out the work upon the Akropolis, as well as at Epidauros and other sites. Thanks to the liberality with which he administers his office, the foreign students now enjoy privileges and opportunities which were never hoped for in the old days; and, thanks to his energy, *something is done*. That is what used to be promised, and what we used to wait for, but under the old system we waited in vain.

EDWARD ROBINSON.

P. S.—In my last letter I spoke of the Hermes at Olympia as being suspended by the iron brace which is fastened into his back. I have since learned that I was mistaken, as the figure is supported by iron bars running from the knees down even through the pedestal and floor into the ground, the brace being an extra precaution against danger from earthquakes. This explains its presence, but does not excuse the inartistic manner in which such a support has been contrived, or the unsightly effect, which might easily have been obviated by treating it less baldly.

ÎLE DE FRANCE AND PICARDY.—II.

LONDON, April, 1894.

FROM Reims we came to one-syllable Laon, a city set upon a hill—the people say a mountain—apt for defence against the Gallic tribes in the Roman times or the wandering bands of mediæval robbers. A steep climb, that reminds one of Chattanooga or Montreal, brings one to a town which could not be complained of as modern or commonplace. The cathedral is seen, as they say a cathedral should be, through narrow streets that give you a glimpse of part of an arcade, a rose window, a sculptured portal, a columned tower, and make you wish to see more. But it is not merely the immediate neighborhood of the cathedral that is mediæval; the whole city is of a piece. Just covering the top of an abrupt hill, which commands the plain on every side, its lofty position, that repelled the attacks of Gauls, Alans, Vandals, Huns, and Normans, has also kept off the innovations of this century. The stream of modern ideas and fashions has passed by it below, with the railroad and all its abominations. As you lean over the rampart in the evening, there is a long line of blinding electric arcs three hundred feet below you; but if you glance up, you will see that the street light casting its feeble glimmer around is a simple oil lamp. The contrast is typical of the place. Below, the freight-yards, the coal-sheds, the factories, and what bustle there is in a not very bustling city; on the hill, the houses, whose projecting stories and distorted tiled roofs and constantly varying skyline mark them for constructions of another age; the narrow, winding streets, the alleys running under arches, the carved gateways of the larger houses; the images on the corners of the streets; the ancient ramparts, their gates flanked with solid towers, now useless for defence, but dear to the painter and the stroller; the tiny little shops, and the market in the open street. It would be misery to live there, but one might well spend a week or two in becoming familiar with every nook, corner, turn of its streets, and every changing aspect of the distant hills and the vine-clad slopes of the horse-shoe valley enclosed within the mountain's arms—for the hill is a crescent, from which feature some antiquaries derive its name, Laon (old Loon, Latin Laudunum), from *loo*, double, *om*, arm, *dun*, hill. They point in confirmation to Cæsar's name for it, Bibrax, formed from *brachium*, like *biceps*, *bidens*, *bipes*, from *caput*, *dens*, *pes*. But there are those who say that Bibrax is another town, and that *om* never meant arm. *Adhuc sub judice lis est.*

It might perhaps be misery to live here now, but happiness compared to life here in the past. The Laonnois is not that happy country which has no history. Five sieges which the town resisted successfully, sixteen in which it was taken and more or less sacked; four great epidemics, two of which killed each over a third of the inhabitants; uncounted famines; a populace always ready for a fight; bishops always encroaching on the royal rights on the one hand and the liberties of the commune on the other; a great and bloody insurrection, a bloodier revenge of the nobles; a great conflagration; a great massacre—such in abridgment are the annals of Laon. Gaudri, Bishop of Laon, bad successor of a line of bad bishops, who swore to observe the charter which he had sold dear to the citizens, violated it as soon as he could, and in every way possible, and was slaughtered for his reward. Thomas de Marne, afterwards a Sire de Coucy, who harnessed his serfs to his carriage by cords passed through a hole in the nape of the neck and made them pull it till they fainted, who compelled others to give him money by hanging them up by the thumbs, and shut prisoners from whom he could extract nothing in a church which he set fire to, who even suspended his enemies by the tenderest parts of their bodies till these were torn out and the entrails protruded, who yet does not seem to have been much worse than the rest of his race; citizens who thought nothing of pushing a stranger into a trap and keeping him there till he paid a large ransom; municipal authorities who nailed the criminal hand and foot to the rocky bed of his tomb and left him to perish by hunger and thirst; serfs who, when they were at last moved to revolt, anticipated the brutalities of the French Revolution and more—these made a society from which it is not strange that quieter men escaped in crowds to the monasteries.

And yet, in spite of sieges, famines, and pestilences, the city was populous; in spite of fires, pillagings, and ecclesiastical exactions, it was rich; and, though turbulent and constantly at war with its bishop, it ended by having in the fifteenth century, for a population of 13,000 souls, thirty-nine churches and seventeen chapels, with the title of "Laon la Sainte." It must have been that Laon's safety from wandering bands attracted families from the open country; that the ecclesiastics, while they got all they could from the citizens, spent in the city the revenues of the neighboring lands; that though *droits de tonlieu*, *étal*, *vinage*, *rouage*, *jailage*, *lardage*, *rotage*, *jaugeage*, *plait l'évêque*, *jolonie*, *prise de grosses bêtes*, and the like, have an unpleasant sound, they were borne as are rates and taxes now, and, for the ruder impositions, men got accustomed to them; that the situation was good for the commerce of the time and the Laon burghers were enterprising and energetic; and that between the great calamities there were times of peace in which they could work and enjoy.

The cathedral was built in one of these intervals, after Gaudri, with many of the nobles, had been murdered by the burghers, the murdering party slain or driven from the city and their houses sacked, the city and cathedral burned. The extremists of both parties being out of the way, things went on more quietly. The bishop, clergy, and citizens joined to replace their burned cathedral in one of those bursts of enthusiasm which raised all of the great cathedrals of the thirteenth century, when people flocked in crowds to the place where a church was building, as to a pilgrimage, worked without wages, for their food alone, or, if they could not come and work, gave freely of their money for the glory of God and to buy their salvation. If the cathedral was not too large to be finished at one rush, it was quickly completed, as at Noyon and Laon. But if it was conceived on a plan too vast to be carried to an end within a few years, the inevitable cooling of the first ardor caused the work to drag, and either the plan was cut down, like Robert de Coucy's at Reims, or the church was left unfinished, like almost all the French cathedrals, and notably that at Beauvais, which has no nave at all. In two years enough of the cathedral of Laon was up to be dedicated, but parts were added for the next two centuries, and two towers of the transept have never been carried above the eaves of the nave.

The product, therefore, of a time of emotion, the cathedral has in an unusual degree the highest quality of architecture—expression. Besides all that a Christian church should signify, it clearly shows the stern, rugged force of the Laonnese. At a distance it has more the appearance of a castle than of a church; near at hand the lowness of the nave, the flatness of the arches, the solidity of the construction, the heaviness of the whole effect give this impression to one who knows nothing of Laon and its history. When he learns the character of the men who reared it, he feels that they could not have built otherwise. And though the cathedral dates from a period of reaction against the commune, yet no cathedral in its construction is better fitted to serve as the agora of the people. In fact, meetings were held there, causes were pleaded and decided, even merchandise was sold till that desecration was properly forbidden. There, too, were held certain festivals in which the spirit of the inferior clergy, pent up all the rest of the year, was allowed to break forth without restraint—saturnalia that held the same relation to the sacred services which the misshapen animals, grinning faces, and grotesque gargoyles wherewith the early churches are decorated bear to the images of the holy family and the saints: a safety-valve for the popular humor. Many towns had such feasts—Douai that of the Giant Gayant, Cambrai that of the Ducasse, Beauvais the Fête de l'Âne, Laon the Fête des Innocents and the Fête des Fous.

In the first, on St. Nicolas's Eve, the choir boys elected one of their number Bishop of the Innocents (in the Scotch sense, simpletons), and in the mass of that day, at the words of the magnificat, "Deposuit potentes de sede et exaltavit humiles," the boys rushed into the stalls, thrust out the canons, and, while the

curé and the chaplains carried the cross and the candlesticks, the service continued with an inversion of the parts of priests and boys. During the ceremony they chanted a paraphrase on a passage in Revelation, beginning

"Beau sires Diex [Dieu] je vous demant
En dons en mon prologue avant
De la grace sainct espri tant
Que ce vos plaise qe je chant."

After the mass a mystery was performed, and then choir boys, canons, curés, after all sorts of buffooneries in the church, rushed through the streets, singing, dancing, doing their best to make the public laugh. It was not till the sixteenth century that soberer spirits succeeded in getting this extravagance abolished.

The Fête des Fous was like unto it, with the chaplains and vicars as leaders. On the eve of the Fête des Rois a Patriarche des Fous was chosen. All masked and travestied themselves with a mixture of church vestures and theatrical costumes or of men's and women's clothing, and for two days celebrated the church services with every possible grimace, contortion, and joke. The most extravagant was the most applauded. As in the other fêtes, they danced through the streets to amuse the people, and at the end played a religious piece in the church, burlesquing it, making it a *mystère pour rire*, a comic sacred history. In 1456 the canons, wishing to abolish this custom (it is not said whether because it was undignified or because it was expensive to them, for they furnished a great supper to the Innocents and the Fous), were prevented by the bishops, whom it cost nothing. The bishops wisely preferred opening their great edifices to the crowd, even for such follies as this, to letting the people meet elsewhere. In the cathedral the popular assemblies necessarily would have something of a religious character, and the Church would be felt to be the centre of everything.

There are other buildings to fill out a week in Laon: the museum of mediæval curiosities; the library, with its fine manuscripts; the Church of St. Martin, contemporary with the cathedral; the leaning tower, whose foundations seem to have been sapped by a neighboring spring so that it has sunk till it is much more out of the perpendicular than the famous tower of Pisa, and indeed would have fallen long ago did it not rest comfortably on the hill behind it, and on a bit of wall which the attentive townsmen have built for it. But, after all, it is not any one thing so much as the effect of the whole that attracts; a traveller who had spent his week there might well find it more difficult to get away than we who were forced to go after a single night and day.

C. R.

Correspondence.

A WORD MORE FOR STRICKEN GREECE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The advices by mail down to April 27 now received emphasize the gravity of the situation in Greece as already reported by cable. The Athenian papers are full of dreadful details supported by long lists of the slain. In the single deme (municipality) of Larymna, comprising four villages, with an aggregate population of 3,000, 199 persons were killed outright and 130 wounded. The loss of child-life is enormous in its proportion. "Most of the victims are women and children—in the main, babes," writes the *Ephemeris* correspondent in Locris. "Of the men, the aged have paid the heaviest tribute of life to the earthquake. The ruthless dæmon has fallen on the feeblest beings. What dramas and what heartrending scenes! Babes slain upon their mothers' breasts or in their cradles!" And we are told of twenty-one children buried in the ruins of a single chapel. It is an appalling situation as portrayed in the Greek press—whole towns and villages, without a roof to shelter them, fleeing to the mountains or taking to their boats as if the sea might be more merciful than the land. The panic-terror recalls Thucydides's picture of the Plague.

May I, then, urge again the appeal of last week, and give it definiteness by a statement of what we have already done here? On Tuesday last a committee was constituted which at once took steps to interest the community. The appeal was primarily to the college and its immediate friends, but a circular letter was further sent to the secondary schools within our sphere of influence asking for their co-operation. It is not yet time for their response, but as the first fruits of a public meeting to day we have cabled Minister Alexander at Athens the sum of $350. And we hope to do much more.

We received one generous gift of $100, and there were three or four sums of $25 and upwards; but we particularly urged a popular subscription on the part of the college community, based on the unit of the Greek drachma at par (say twenty cents), and it was with pledges aggregating 300 drachmæ from the college classes that our movement started. We have suggested the same unit of contribution for our secondary schools. Will not the teachers of Greek throughout the country move on this line? Twenty cents is a trifle with us, but it means a day's living for a peasant family in Greece. In fact, it will buy nearly two drachmæ of their depreciated paper; and prices there have not gone up as fast as money has gone down. Let us, then, have a popular subscription, covering the entire area of Greek study among us, based upon the drachma and multiples of the drachma; five, ten, fifteen, twenty, twenty-five (say, $1, $2, $3, $4, $5). The committee already constituted here will gladly assist whenever called upon. The chairman is President Andrews, and the secretary is Prof. W. C. Poland, who has served as annual director of our School at Athens.

J. Irving Manatt.

Brown University, Providence, May 12, 1894.

A MEMORIAL TO TENNYSON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It has been decided to erect on the highest point of the famous Down which overlooks the western end of the Isle of Wight, and separates the woods of Farringford from the sea, a lofty granite monolith in the form of an Iona cross. The design has been furnished by Mr. Pearson, the celebrated Royal Academician. With the permission of the masters of Trinity House, the present wooden pile, known to all mariners as the "Nodes Beacon," will be removed and its place taken by the "Tennyson Beacon."

The spot chosen is the "edge of the noble down" which Tennyson loved, and where he often, indeed almost daily, walked. As a land and sea mark, visible from all points by sea and shore for many miles, and in full view of every ship that passes the Needles, the Beacon Cross should form a conspicuous and fitting memorial to one of the greatest poets of our time and race.

A considerable sum has already been subscribed, but $1,000 more will be required to make the monument adequate in scale and finish. Every penny of this could be raised here to-morrow, but the undertaking is properly an international, not a national nor a local one, and I believe that there are many Americans who will gladly welcome the opportunity to contribute to the memorial fund, and it is hoped that the committee will be able to inscribe a record of this fact upon the Beacon Cross. Any subscription, however small, will be gratefully acknowledged by the committee as a loving tribute to the memory of a poet who belonged not to England only but to mankind.

I am desired to ask all who wish to contribute to send their subscriptions before July to the Rev. Joseph Merriman, D.D., chairman of the Tennyson memorial committee, Freshwater, Isle of Wight, England, by whom they will be at once acknowledged. A complete subscription list will be sent in due course to every contributor.

I am, sir, faithfully yours,

Arthur Warren.

Beach House, Freshwater, April 24, 1894.

"THE BILL, AND NOTHING BUT THE BILL."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you permit me to express my gratitude to "L. N. D." for his appreciation of and sympathy with my efforts on behalf of cabinet government? I am sorry I cannot make a better return than to point out that the substitute which he proposes is quite inadequate.

The urgent need is not for a representation of the people, even as a whole, but for the representation of administration—the application, in the guidance of legislation, of the test of experience in the results obtained, whether good or bad, from the enforcement of laws already in existence. This can come only from the chief executive officials who are responsible for administration. Another object, almost equally important, is to furnish a training-ground for the evolution of administrators and statesmen. The men who, in conducting or in undergoing a fire of incessant cross-examination, can demonstrate that they possess these qualities, will furnish candidates for the selection of the people from above instead of those pushed up by caucus work from below. The political education of the people is another consequence by no means to be overlooked.

None of these requirements would be met by a new legislative committee even elected at large, not to mention that they would be looked upon by the other members with almost as much jealousy as the executive officers.

I fear we shall have to stick to the main issue and refuse to accept anything else, however long it may take to get it, and I venture to hope that "L. N. D." can be counted upon to enlist for the war.

G. B.

Boston, May 12, 1894.

Notes.

Dodd, Mead & Co. have in press 'The Issues of the Press in New York from 1693 to 1783,' by Charles R. Hildeburn, a handsome volume of some 500 pages, illustrated with two dozen facsimiles of title-pages, the edition being limited to 350 copies printed from type; also, an English translation of Balzac's letters to Mme. Hanska, lately given to the light in the *Revue de Paris*.

In conjunction with T. Fisher Unwin of London, D. Appleton & Co. will publish an almost epoch-making work by Prof. William Martin Conway, called 'Climbing and Exploration in the Karakoram Himalayas,' with three hundred illustrations and a map. Besides its high scientific value, it is certain to take rank among the most readable works of a class associated in English with such names as Whymper, Stephen, and Tyndall.

The Century Company are about to issue a new Life of Roger Williams, by Oscar S. Straus, and the 'Jungle Book,' stories of animal life by Rudyard Kipling, gathered together from *St. Nicholas* and other sources.

J. Selwin Tait & Sons announce 'Cavalry Life in Tent and Field,' by Mrs. Orsemus B. Boyd, and 'The Green Bay Tree,' by the author of 'A Yellow Aster.'

T. Y. Crowell & Co. have nearly ready an historical and critical treatise on 'Modern Socialism and Social Reform,' by Prof. Richard T. Ely.

'Old and New Unitarian Belief,' by the Rev. John W. Chadwick, will soon be published by Geo. H. Ellis, Boston.

'Concrete Geometry for Grammar Schools,' by E. Hunt, former principal of the Girls' High School, Boston, announced by D. C. Heath & Co., is one of the fruits of the recommendations of the "Committee of Ten."

Henry Altemus, Philadelphia, will publish next month 'The Care of Children,' by Elizabeth Robinson Scovil.

In the strange wave of mysticism which swept over Spain in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, no figure stands out so prominently as that of Teresa de Ávila, who shares with the apostle Santiago the glory of being a patron saint of her native land. Her marvellous career, in which, with endless humility, resolution, and tact, she triumphed over persecution and founded the reformed order of Barefooted Carmelites, while enjoying visions of God and the unutterable raptures of ecstasy, has been the subject of innumerable biographers and has now found a new and most appreciative one in the person of Gabriela Cunninghame Graham, whose two portly octavos bear the imprint of Adam & Charles Black (New York: Macmillan). The authoress has all the enthusiasm necessary for the performance of her task—enthusiasm which seems to have carried her in pilgrimage to the spots hallowed by Teresa's labors—and she has produced a very readable account of the vicissitudes which marked the checkered life of the saint. There is perhaps too great a striving for the picturesque and too voluble a profusion of words, but these are faults readily pardoned by the general reader, who is not over particular about critical accuracy, and who, whether orthodox or heretic, can enjoy the romantic aspect of mystic devotion in its struggle with the hard realities of a selfish world, without inquiring too closely into the distinction between fact and legend. It may be suggested that in an extract from Teresa's *Carta* lxxvi. (vol. ii., p. 200) *letrados* should be rendered "lawyers" and not "men of letters."

Dr. Henry A. Mott's 'Yachts and Yachtsmen of America' (International Yacht Publishing Co.), a formidable first volume, occupies a place not before filled by the numerous publications concerning yachts, such as yacht lists and books of yacht-racing records. In many ways it comprises all the features of a yacht list and racing record, a history of yachting and a treatise upon the various rigs and types of yachts. The author has taken a commendable stand by insisting that rig, and rig alone, is the proper basis of classification of yachts. This will meet the approval of many yachtsmen who, in these days of fin-keels, bulb-fins, centreboard-fin-keels, and other modern variations in types of yacht hulls, find themselves somewhat bewildered by classifications which attempt to make distinctions between vessels based upon their model or type rather than upon the simple standard of rig. 'The Yachts and Yachtsmen of America' is of interest to every yachtsman who belongs to a yacht club, for the reason that nearly all the clubs of America find a place in its pages. The greater part of the book is devoted to historical sketches of yacht clubs, short biographies of leading yachtsmen, and descriptions of celebrated and typical yachts. Doubtless the most attractive feature of the work, and certainly one of the most valuable for reference, is its great number of excellent photographs of American yachts of every type and size.

M. Édouard Grenier, the poet, published in the *Revue Bleue* a series of interesting reminiscences of famous authors he has known or met in the course of his life. These articles have now been republished in book form, 'Souvenirs Littéraires' (Paris: Lemerre), and bear rereading with pleasure. M. Grenier relates delightfully, and makes us enjoy the company of Lamartine, Musset, George Sand, Mérimée, Sainte-Beuve, Augier, and others, as well as his own.

'La Rose de Grenade,' by Jean Rameau (Paris: Paul Ollendorff; New York: Charles Eitel), is well worth reading, if it were only for the first hundred pages, which contain a striking series of descriptions and episodes. It is a novel with a story and not an overdose of analysis, or psychology, or physiology, or anything else that most French novelists love to put into their books nowadays. The story is not new, the complications are familiar, the dénouement is in accord with the rules of poetic justice, and realists will object that the whole thing is trash. It is true that it interests, that it does not nauseate, that it is honestly a novel, and that it contains an effective opening; so the general public will like it, even if realists do not. One thing more: the hero has actually a will of his own, and, if somewhat romantic, is at least not the helpless, will-less sort of personages the novel-reader has been so much treated to.

M. Gilbert-Augustin Thierry has written some historical novels which have been well received. 'Le Masque' (Paris: Ollendorff) is not historical, that is clear; but it is not quite so clear, after one has perused it, that it has a religious character, and that it is "a cry to the unknown God." It reminds one of the nightmare passages in Bulwer-Lytton's 'Strange Story,' but it is not so powerful a work, so gruesome as 'The Haunted and the Haunters,' so fantastic as Hoffmann's 'Tales,' or so awfully oppressive as Maupassant's maniacal sketches. The author calls it a mingling of theurgic mysticism and materialistic mysticism. It may be that; it certainly is not a strong book or a very entertaining one.

As for Paul Gaulot's 'Les Chemises rouges' (Paris: Ollendorff), it is meant for a stirring, exciting historical novel of the days of the Red Terror. It utterly fails, nevertheless, to stir, or excite, or do anything else but make the reader feel exasperated at having waded through so much verbiage merely to feel bored from beginning to finish.

What is most valuable in M. Louis Ducros's new book about 'Diderot: l'Homme et l'Ecrivain' (Paris: Didier) is the chapter on the influence of English literature on the French writers of the eighteenth century. M. Ducros shows how strong the influence of Richardson was upon Diderot when he wrote 'La Religieuse,' and how the manner of Sterne suggested 'Jacques le Fataliste'—now remembered chiefly because M. Sardou found in one of its episodes the plot of his "Fernande." M. Ducros notes that Diderot met Sterne and begged the English author to send back to him in France the works of "Pope, Cibber, Chaucer, Tillotson, and Locke"—a strange medley of names.

M. Léon Gautier has at last brought out the second part of volume ii. of the second edition of his "Épopées Françaises" (Paris: H. Welter). Twelve years had elapsed since the fourth volume was published, and many scholars must long since have given up all hope of seeing the gap in their sets filled. M. Gautier has striven, in the volume before us, to give the complete history of the composition and transmission of the *chansons de geste*, from the earliest period to our own time; and he shows us the mediæval jongleur, the Renaissance romantic poet, and the modern philologist, all playing their several parts in this long and interesting story. Naturally much of what he tells was already known, but much also is new; and incidentally light is thrown upon several difficult problems of literary history. We can mention here only the discovery of a hitherto unnoted passage from the constitutions of Galterus, Archbishop of Sens, in regard to the Goliards, the mere date of which will compel an almost complete revision of the current speculation about the Goliards and their poetry. Now that M. Gautier has got this volume out of the way, it is to be hoped that he will proceed with the task, left unfinished in his fourth volume, of arranging and analyzing the existing *chansons de geste*. If at the same time he could a little restrain the ardor of his faith and his patriotism, his style would be more interesting to foreigners.

A wide welcome will greet the eighth edition of 'Ritter's Geographisch-Statistisches Lexikon,' under the direction of J. Penzler (Leipzig: Wigand; New York: Westermann). The first instalment of the first volume, *A–Amerika*, is before us, and, in the same printed measure, fills sixty-four pages, against forty-two of the sixth edition, which is nearest to our hand. This gazetteer needs no praise—its place is fixed among the most accurate and useful of our works of reference. It embraces all German places having 100, all Swiss and Austrian having 150, and other European places having from 300 to 500 inhabitants. The information regarding each is as full as possible for commercial and literary purposes.

The Napoleonic revival in the field of letters could not fail to find its echo in the ateliers. The first number of the *Figaro-Salon* (New York: Boussod, Valadon & Cie.) contained reproductions of two Napoleonic canvases, and the second, just to hand, contains three, without reckoning in, as we might, Georges Cain's picture of Sardou directing a rehearsal of his "Madame Sans-Gêne," with the actors in the costume of the First Empire.

The publication, under the auspices of the Hungarian Statistical Bureau, of the census reports which were gathered in 1890–'91, shows a lamentable degree of illiteracy among the inhabitants of the lands belonging to the Hungarian crown. Taking the kingdom in its entirety, it would appear that more than one-half of the total population is analphabetical—can neither read nor write; and among the Ruthenians this deficiency amounts to full 87

per cent. In the region west of the Theiss, an area more than a third of the whole of Hungary, the amount of illiteracy does not differ greatly from that of western Europe generally, and it is believed that nearly every inhabitant over six years of age can both read and write. The total population of the kingdom was estimated at the close of 1890 to be 17,349,000 or almost double what it was a hundred years ago, with an increase of 1,700,000 in the last ten years. The Magyars proper comprise upwards of 7,400,000 souls, and the Germans about 2,100,000, the rest being divided, in the order of numbers, among the Croats and Serbs, Rumanians, Slovaks, Ruthenians, and Slovenians. From Dr. Supan's article on the same census in *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for March we learn that the total emigration of Hungarians to America since 1880, when the movement began, is estimated at 80,000, "of whom a large part return to their homes."

In the *Midland Monthly* for May, Mr. B. F. Tillinghast, Secretary of the Iowa Famine Relief Commission, gives the second instalment of his account of that noble charity, accompanied by interesting portraits and pictures of Russian village scenes. He describes the arrival at Riga of the *Tynehead*, with her cargo of corn, the method of despatching the grain to the suffering districts, the hearty voluntary labor of the working-people in forwarding this relief, the self-denial and heroism of all classes of Russian society during that trying time. As we read it we can well believe that the name of America will always be dear to Russians, even to such Russians as had never heard of our land until two years ago.

The article of most general interest in the *Annales de Géographie* for April is upon the Russian colonization of Central Asia. According to the author, M. Ed. Blanc, about one-fifth of the territory acquired during the past forty years is available for cultivation, the remainder being either sand desert or high mountain region. There have been three principal lines of penetration, from Orenburg, Omsk, and the Caspian, all joining at Tashkend. Along these, Russian villages have been planted according to the water-supply—for water, not land, is here the basis of wealth. In some districts each family is given one hundred and fifty acres of irrigable land and a spacious and well-built house with thick clay walls and a sheet-iron roof. The number of colonists is not stated, but to Tashkend alone 60,000 families came after the famine of 1891. In Bokhara, Ferghana, and Samarcand, colonization has not succeeded as it has done in the country of the Kirghiz, the natives of Turkestan proper far exceeding the Slavs in diligence and intelligence. They also show, under the guidance and patronage of the Government, remarkable success in adapting themselves to European methods of cultivation. A singular result of this recent development of hitherto waste regions is that Bokhara is "dying of thirst," her water-supply being exhausted by Samarcand. The only remedy is to take water from the Oxus, nearly two hundred miles distant. A canal for this purpose will probably soon be begun and completed in three years. M. A. Krasnoff contributes an interesting account of the steppes of southern Russia, whose treeless condition he attributes to natural, not artificial, causes, such as the cutting down or burning of forests.

The *Architectural Review*, Boston, is publishing a series of letters from a travelling correspondent, entitled "A Glimpse of Modern Greece," beginning at Olympia. They are very good reading and are charmingly illustrated by the camera.

The *Japan Weekly Mail* of March 17 has a long and curious article on "Foreign Literature in Japanese Garb." The task of presenting European and American books to Japanese readers is not one of translation merely, but of trans-nationalization, so to speak. Japanese views of life are so different from ours that a literal translation would often be incomprehensible except to Japanese who have travelled. Much ingenuity, sometimes perverse, sometimes praiseworthy, has been shown in overcoming this difficulty. Under the first head comes an old version of the "Merchant of Venice" (known in Japan as "Nin-niku saiban," or the human-flesh trial at law), in which *Shylock* is a palpable Aino, *Portia* a smirking music-girl, *Jessica* a Miyanoshita tea-house girl to the life, and so on. Ten years ago English novels were the first favorites; to day Russian and German books have a larger sale, Tolstoi being the most admired of all western writers of fiction. Goethe's 'Sorrows of Werther' is a great favorite, and his 'Reinecke Fuchs' is also popular, although "the Japanese lose much of the exquisite humor of this satire in their sympathy with the woes of the maltreated wolf." Schiller's 'Robbers' has not proved popular. Molière's 'L'Avare' has given general pleasure, while of Zola's books only one has been translated. Disraeli's 'Coningsby' did not succeed, nor did 'Ivanhoe,' partly owing to inadequate translation. Jerrold's 'Curtain Lectures' seems to have struck a responsive chord. 'Robinson Crusoe' also took well. Tennyson's 'Enoch Arden,' Stanley's 'Darkest Africa,' and Mrs. Burnett's 'Little Lord Fauntleroy' are among recent successful productions.

The leading article in the April number of *Die Gesellschaft*, a monthly journal published at Leipzig, is entitled "Caligula, eine Studie über römischen Cäzarenwahnsinn," in which the author, Dr. L. Quidde, an historian residing in Munich, editor of the quarterly *Zeitschrift für Geschichtswissenschaft*, member of the Bavarian Academy of Sciences, and President of the Munich Democratic Union, holds the mirror up to modern sovereigns, and shows a would-be German Cæsar his own feature and image. Caligula was very young and inexperienced when he unexpectedly came to the throne. One of his first acts was to make away with Macro, the counsellor of his predecessor, in order to assert his independence and to indulge his own whims, especially as regards social and economical reforms, of which he was utterly ignorant. Other characteristics mentioned are the extravagance with which the treasure accumulated by the severely frugal Germanicus and Tiberius was squandered, a mania for erecting costly edifices (also a "fad" of Ludwig II. of Bavaria), an irrepressible passion for speechifying on all occasions, a predilection for the sea and pleasure in yachting, military ambition, and fondness for frequently alarming the troops, desire to rejuvenate the army, inordinate zeal in punishing lese-majesty, nervous restlessness and intolerance of opposition, and finally autocratic utterances, such as εἷς κοίρανος ἔστω, εἷς βασιλεύς (let one be master, one king), *oderint dum metuant* (let them hate, provided they fear), recalling *voluntas regis suprema lex* (the king's will is the highest law), *sic volo, sic jubeo* (thus I will, thus I command), *cave ergo adsum* (look out, for I am here), and similar sayings which have recently excited much indignant comment and adverse criticism. Dr. Quidde traces the gradual development and fatal consequences of Caligula's megalomania, and refers twice to the late King of Bavaria, but makes no allusion to any other monarch.

A new stage device was introduced at the Théâtre Libre in Paris on April 26, when M. Luguet's play "Le Missionaire" was brought out. This is an approach towards a revival of the classical chorus. It differs from the chorus, however, in being what may be called a *solus*. It is one actor and not a band. While the drama is proceeding, this person stands in a little loggia that runs along the side of the stage, and in a loud voice makes a running comment on the play, revealing to the audience the true state of soul of the people represented. For instance, one of the personages rushes upon the stage, seizes his wife in his arms, and cries, "Je t'adore!" At once the solus lifts up his voice and declares: "Ce n'est pas vrai. Cet homme ne pense pas un mot de ce qu'il dit." So he goes on throughout the piece. What success this new device will obtain may perhaps be guessed.

—The production of Washington material is continuous, and presents some points of interest. The most novel contribution is that of Mr. W. S. Baker, who has collected in one volume the 'Early Sketches of George Washington' (Lippincott). At the beginning of the Revolution so little was known in England of the Virginia planter who had been chosen to command the Continental army, that hack writers manufactured stories of his career to meet the demand for information. The result was, as a rule, curious rather than instructive—fiction in place of biography. It must have greatly puzzled the readers of that day to read of so many Washingtons, of such diverse origins and experiences. The value of the collection lies in what is told by men who had been with Washington. George Mercer, who was his companion in service in the early colonial expeditions, in 1760 gave a brief sketch of his personal appearance and character. "In conversation he is deliberate, deferential, and engaging. His demeanor at all times composed and dignified. His movements and gestures are graceful, his walk majestic, and he is a splendid horseman." No other writer gives so good an account relating to so early a period in Washington's life. The tutor of Jacky Custis, Rev. Jonathan Boucher, also wrote from personal knowledge, but after the Revolution had divided the two men: "He is shy, silent, slow, and cautious, but has no quickness of parts, extraordinary penetration, nor an elevated style of thinking." Another Maryland divine, Rev. Bennet Allen, saw only negative qualities—mediocre abilities, reserved temper, want of education, and diffidence: "ambitious, with the fairest professions of moderation, and avaritious under the most specious appearance of disinterestedness." In all, fifteen sketches have been brought together, and short notes on the writers by Mr. Baker make it a valuable record. Peale's early study of Washington is reproduced as an illustration.

—In the report of the American Historical Association, that indefatigable collector of Washington lore, Dr. Toner, gives a part of the diary for 1774, with copious notes and references. He has prefixed a notable attempt to trace the history of the Washington books and papers, and, of course, records great losses through interest or carelessness. When Mrs. Washington and Lund Washington destroyed what letters of the general they had, the most free and intimate expressions of the man were lost. Dr. Toner rejects the story that Hamil-

ton and Jefferson induced Lear to surrender to them their more confidential letters to the President. In the *Athenæum* (March 24) Gen. Meredith Read throws a side light on the Washington genealogy, giving the connections of Mildred Warner, daughter of George Reade and grandmother of Washington. By an oversight he omits to mention the wife of George Reade, and that is supplied in the latest issue of the *Virginia Historical Magazine*—Elizabeth, daughter of Capt. Nicholas Martian. A second attempt to sell the doubtful Duché MS. has been made in Philadelphia. The cataloguer guarantees the document, but, as he insists that the original letter to Washington has been lost, his guarantee is valueless. If he would compare his paper with the original in the Department of State, Washington, the guarantee would be better worthy of credence.

—In their 'Report on Governmental Maps for Use in Schools' (Henry Holt & Co.), Prof. Davis and his colleagues, C. F. King and G. L. Collie, a committee of the Chicago Conference on Geography, have opened a new field of culture. The causes of the shapes of the landscape have occupied the attention of an important school of geologists for two decades, and the technical literature thus produced evinces great progress, but the subject has been only sparingly treated in popular works, and its popularization is difficult because the types of form which constitute its best object-lessons are so widely scattered that the student can see but one or two without travel. The best substitute for the actual forms in nature is a series of accurate topographic maps, or maps representing faithfully not only streams, roads, and towns, but plains, valleys, hills, and mountains; and within a few years a rich store of such illustrative material has been placed within easy reach of our teachers and pupils. A half-dozen Government organizations, and especially the Geological Survey and Coast Survey, are engaged or have recently been engaged in the production of topographic and hydrographic maps of superior quality, and these maps may be obtained either without charge or at nominal prices. They offer the geographical student, not ideal types of form, but, what is better, actual types—just such subjects for analysis and explanation as he will encounter if he becomes a traveller. Heretofore this material, created and used for very different purposes, has not served the teacher. In general he is not aware of its existence, or, if aware, he does not know how to use it; and it is the mission of the new pamphlet to remove these two obstacles. It describes the maps as to size, field, and scope, and tells how they may be obtained; it selects for special mention certain individual sheets of peculiar educational value and describes each of them, pointing out the physiographic laws they severally illustrate; and it tells how to make maps most effective as means of instruction. In point of clearness, directness, suggestiveness, and adaptation to its purpose, it is all that could be desired, and it may be commended without reserve to every teacher of geography who is willing to add a new realm of interest to his field.

—By the completion of the map prepared under the direction of the Ministère de l'Intérieur, as just announced by Hachette & Cie. of Paris, France is now provided with two fine topographical charts. One, prepared primarily for the use of the army, and called "La carte de l'état-major," is on a scale of 1:80,000, and was completed in 273 sheets, 63x90 centimetres each. Of this map a new popular issue was begun in 1889 and is still in progress of printing, the latest available corrections being incorporated, and the date of revision being stated on each portion published. It is printed, without colors, in quarter sheets covering about 18x30 kilometres of territory, in such wise that four of them can be united when it is desired to mount them for wall use. These quarter-sheets are sold at 30 centimes each (equal to 6 cents), and the tourist who desires to make pedestrian excursions in France will find them economical and efficient aids to making his way with ease and certainty. Capt. J. Molard of the French army has prepared a useful booklet entitled 'La Carte de l'État-Major: Guide pour sa Lecture,' which is sold for 40 centimes. The map by the Department of the Interior, which may be called, by way of distinction, the civil-service map of France, is on a slightly smaller scale, 1:100,000 (1 centimetre: 1 kilometre), and the sheets are somewhat larger, their size being determined by the crossings of the parallels of latitude and longitude, each sheet covering one-half of a degree of longitude by one-quarter of a degree of latitude. The sheets are about 28x38 to 41 centimetres and cover the same number of kilometres of surface, but in cases where natural boundaries extend somewhat beyond these limits, they are nevertheless included, and the sheets along the national borders are always filled up, the non-French territory being exhibited with the same minuteness (so far as the materials are available) as the ground of France.

—This beautiful map is printed in five colors: red to show the roads, blue for the watercourses, green to indicate forests, lead color to show the conformation of surface, and black for other necessary indications. Its minuteness is remarkable. Five kinds of lines indicate different boundaries, from national to communal; an equal number of styles of type represent administrative distinctions; and, in the case of railroads, not only are double and single-track lines distinguished, but also narrow-gauge roads and tramways, while tunnels, viaducts, bridges, and stations are marked, and care is taken to indicate clearly whether roadways are carried over or under the rails, or across them on a level. The various kinds of roads, national highways, departmental or communal avenues, and even private roads and mountain footpaths, are shown and distinguished, as well as those in course of construction. The limits of river navigation are indicated, and all ports, bridges, ferries, turn-outs, etc., are shown, the same being done in the case of canals. In connection with the names of places, the population of each is stated, down to the smallest hamlet; and conventional signs show the locations of post and telegraph offices, churches, chapels, country seats, farms, water and wind-mills, gas and iron works and other manufactories, lighthouses, beacons and buoys, thermal and mineral springs; while altitudes are stated. Withal the map is remarkably clear and presents a beautiful appearance. There are 587 sheets in all, but any one is sold separately at a uniform price of 80 centimes, or, when folded into a lettered cloth case, 1 franc, while the sheets can be had on demand mounted on cloth at an extra charge of 75 centimes. Certain popular portions of the map are issued in special form, such as the two sheets for Paris and its environs, which are mounted on cloth, folded, and bound as one sheet at a price of 3 francs; and in similar convenient form can be had the Normandy shore, the neighborhood of Saint-Malo, and the forest of Fontainebleau.

—The issue of the hundredth volume of the Munich *Fliegende Blätter*, which has begun with the present year, is an event of considerable interest in the annals of jocose journalism. The first number of this humorous sheet appeared in October, 1844, and took its name from the satirical pamphlets that played such an important part in the polemics of the Reformation and in the German literature and politics of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Its founders were Kaspar Braun and Friedrich Schneider, the former a highly original artist, endowed with an exhaustless fund of trenchant wit and cheerful comicry, the latter as remarkable for his geniality and tact as for his fine literary taste and uncommon business talent. These men were in every respect the complements of each other, and the combination of their opposite qualities supplied all the elements essential to the success of their enterprise. In the beginning the new comic paper was published frequently but irregularly; very soon, however, it became permanently established as a weekly. The early volumes differed from the later ones in giving large scope to political satire, which the state of Germany at that time rendered it difficult not to indulge in. The follies and abuses in state and society, the perversion of justice by secret courts of criminal jurisdiction, the stupid censorship of the press, bureaucratic redtapeism, petty imperiousness of the police, particularism in politics, philistinism in life and literature, and conventionalism and sentimentalism in art, were made the butts of ridicule. During the first twenty-five years of its existence the edition of the *Fliegende Blätter* gradually increased from 4,100 to 12,000; after the achievement of the political unity of Germany in 1871, it rose rapidly to 20,000 and 30,000, and is now nearly 100,000.

—The remarkable freshness and variety of its contents are due to the fact that it is not the organ of a club of wits or any association of professional humorists, and is absolutely free from every sort of cliquism. It is the intellectual product of the whole nation, a faithful mirror of good-natured Bavarian humor and South German *Gemüth*, just as *Kladderadatsch* and *Wespen* reflect the ready raillery and keen sarcasm of Berlin, and *Kikeriki* represents the sprightly persiflage and ironical pleasantry of Vienna. Unlike its elder brother *Punch*, it does not take its tone from the genius of an individual—a Douglas Jerrold or a Thackeray; and it differs from the Italian *Arlecchino* and *Pasquino*, the Spanish *Gil Blas* and *El Cascabel*, and the French *Journal pour Rire*, in being thoroughly decent as well as highly entertaining. Its pages are never sullied by an equivocal allusion or indelicate *double entente*, such as no gentleman would venture to repeat in the presence of a lady, and it is, therefore, a welcome guest at every fireside. Contributions are constantly received from all kinds of people. Every one who thinks he has a good joke or humorous conceit, sends it in; if used, it is paid for; if not, it is conscientiously returned. In turning over the successive volumes of the *Fliegende Blätter*, one gets a general survey of the various changes which art, especially as embodied in the German schools of painting, has undergone during the last half century from the cold classicism of Cornelius, the symbolical idealism of Kaulbach, and the somewhat chalky romanticism of Moritz von Schwind to the realism of Harburger and Fritz von Uhde. It is also interesting to trace here the evolution of wood-engraving and the

rapid improvement in xylographic technics and printing processes, especially within the past twenty years. The present publishers are the sons of the founders of the journal.

THE YOKE OF THE VIRGIN.

A Yellow Aster. By Iota. New York: D. Appleton & Co. and M. J. Ivers & Co.; Chicago: Chas. H. Sergel Co.

Our unappreciated novelists and miscellaneous writers have long enjoyed an enduring theme for times of dearth, to wit, the feebleness of modern English fiction, the reason for which, it is unanimously agreed, may be found in a tacit understanding with the public that the young girl is not to be shocked. The tone of these perennial articles has always been despondent because no one could hit on a practicable scheme for eliminating the young girl from our social system, and it has seemed hopeless to urge the passing of a law declaring it immoral for her to learn to read before she has ceased to be young or a girl and making infringement a penal offence. Deep depression has in consequence settled down upon those among us who crave powerful and inspiring fiction, and a conviction that, as the young girl cannot be got rid of, we must be at the pains of acquiring foreign tongues. But when the time is ripe for reform, deliverance is usually close at hand. In antiquity the hour always produced the man, now it is prolific of the woman, and it is not surprising that there has at last arisen in England a band of untrammelled spirits (feminine) to whom this ridiculous deference to virgins is intolerable, and who have apparently sworn to shatter the fetish. Any respectable object of reverence which they meet upon their way they promptly fling a brick at, for how shall superstition be extinguished if the least of idols be left intact in the shelter of a shrine?

The speed with which this spirited band has accomplished its object is a severe reproach to those who have so long protested without suggestion and mourned without hope. If they are thus deprived of a hitherto reliable source of income, it is no more than they deserve for their dulness and fatal lack of enterprise. They must see that their occupation's gone, for, when their bugaboo, the maiden, can be heard at every corner enticing diffident young men into discussion of the 'Heavenly Twins,' the 'Superfluous Woman,' and the 'Yellow Aster,' it is clear that her existence can no longer be truthfully said to cramp the novelist's genius. Thanks to well-directed and combined attack, the blushing maiden is rapidly becoming extinct; ere long she will have retreated to the mountain passes and desert places, and so awed are we by her ruthless assassins, by their scorn of our sentimentality, their jeers at our prudishness, their scornful diatribes against our sinful indifference to the welfare of the race, that we have not the pluck to pay her, vanishing, the tribute of a furtive tear. The most we dare to do for her is to maintain a critical attitude towards her successors, and, if ever their superiority should seem doubtful, to give her the benefit of the doubt.

It is reasonable to assume that the girl of the future will resemble the creations of those who have annihilated our common, obstructive girl, and that reconstruction will follow the lines of their explicit commandments. Until we can have the felicity of examining the real thing in considerable numbers, we are compelled to restrict ourselves to the fictitious models. Of these the "superb, dominant creature," the "magnificent, inscrutable creature," who is also the "Yellow Aster," presents the most startling variations from the known type of girl, and may therefore be accepted as the nearest to that which we shall presently know in its perfection. Blessed be modern science! All things seeming strange or anomalous or incredible about the "Yellow Aster" are accounted for by her parents, who, to continue the floral metaphor, may be called a blue chrysanthemum and a black rose. Phenomenal they certainly are, quantities hitherto unknown to experience, and an awful example of the dehumanizing effect of exclusive devotion to abstract science. We should like to mention the science of their adoration by name, so as to warn possible fathers and mothers against it, but the author's guarded references to mathematical problems and exhumed skeletons furnish no means for positive identification. Whatever it was, it embittered the Aster fearfully; it gave her strange habits of frowning, and snorting, and smiting her hands; it made her vocabulary harsh and rude; and, though it developed a fine capacity for hating and sneering, it crushed every impulse of tenderness and affection to the extent of making her sceptical about the reality of such qualities.

The childhood of the Aster was therefore not lovely, and even the ministrations of a rector singularly liberal in his ideas and practices, and of his wife, who would wear clothes deemed not fitting to her station, did little to repair the ghastly wrongs inflicted by the unmentionable science. From the moment of her début in society the Aster began to wreak her revenge, and on those innocent beings who, never even having heard of the science, were quite unprepared for her ferocity. Her progress, we are told, was marked by "suggestions of stifled groans and hidden wounds and blood streams." These horrid evidences of anguish must have proceeded from sympathetic spectators, because in the same breath we learn that her "victims fell to right and left without a groan or murmur." In the presence of such misery the most callous of old-fashioned girls would have softened and repented; not so the Aster. When she fled the arena, it was to sit alone, grim and adamantine, taking a vapor bath in "the steam of victims sacrificed in her honor." Cleopatra swallowing pearls is a comparatively poor figure for luxury. Much force is lost through lack of concentration, and it was probably a realization of this truth that induced the Aster to forego the slaughter of many for the joy of torturing one. Sir Humphrey Strange did not rush blindly to his doom. He was a noted traveller, familiar with exotics, and at once recognized the rarity of the Aster, "feeling as a worm before her." To win and wear this unique blossom becomes a consuming passion, and it is as we follow his reflections about ways and means that we perceive the author is done with preliminary battering, and is about to begin the serious attack on our cherished idol, the young girl.

Now, a cardinal principle of our band of reformers, or iconoclasts, as you please, is that life can be purified only by delving for hidden impurity, by spreading it out for general inspection, and, above all, by insisting that it shall be the subject of a searching analysis conducted in partnership by young men and women contemplating matrimony. Some of the band, doubtless hampered by traditional respect for maiden modesty, have weakly leaned to the notion that it is the mother's duty to interrogate the prospective son-in-law about his knowledge of sin and impart the result to her daughter. Fathers and brothers are considered incompetent for this purpose, presumably because, being men, they may be suspected of disinclination to give another man away. Sir Humphrey Strange is a man of mettle. He pounces on the Aster in pensive mood and desires to speak to her "as man to man," or "as if she were God"—this with intention of asking her to marry him and as a preliminary to confession of his previous amours. The Aster's habitual "cold aloofness" is disturbed; she passes from "a burst of angry horror" to a state of "sneering excitement," but listens just the same, as man, or as God, to what Sir Humphrey has to say. It must have been pretty bad, for he is described as "speaking of dozens of spades," and the author's sympathetic comment is that that "is no joke before a virgin-clean woman." No joke indeed, and apparently destructive of the Aster's virgin cleanness, for she at once agrees to marry him "as an experiment," and mourns that their exalted social station prohibits their living together except as man and wife. Her demoralization is so complete that she presently takes to "smiting her clenched fists angrily" and shouting for the "feelings of bad women, women who have sinned, sinned solidly for love." Her longing for these maddeningly elusive feelings affects her almost as extraordinarily as the cult of science affected her parents.

The narration of her struggles to get hold of them is heartrending. For months she preserved outwardly an appalling calm, but, "her room could tell strange tales when she shut herself in and threw up the sponge till another round." Occasionally she sought the woods, let down her hair, and had a round with the wintry blast. But comfort in the form of thrills and glows and spasms refused her call, and at last, in desperation, she rounded on her husband and volubly scourged him for the sin, disgrace, and shame in which by marrying her he had involved her. Alas for Sir Humphrey! All his candor had not sufficed. He might just as well have spoken to her as a woman and politely ignored spades. This scene, wherein Sir Humphrey and, through him, all men are, vulgarly speaking, pulverized, lays the author and the cause sadly open to the laughter of the profane. If much that precedes is not the raving of insanity, how could the situation ever have come about?

In default of any other possible justification, we are obliged to regard it as the climax of effort for the emancipation of the English novelist from the yoke of the virgin. Fearless now of censure or of diminution of sales, our novelists may proceed to tear away any poor shreds of decency that cling to and clog the skirts of society, restricted only by a careful assumption of a burning sense of their duty to the race. Let them, however, still beware of the sparkling, purposeless indecency of the Gaul. The "gay galoot" who should try that sort of thing would speedily be had up before a society for the prevention of vice, and the very ladies who had led him on would shriek with accusation. No, he (in time the band may include a he) must bear in mind that, as his predecessors wrote largely for young girls, it is his glorious privilege to write chiefly for Yellow Asters, and while conscientiously revealing the sin and shame of life and maintaining a high standard of frankness and plainness of speech, he must ever regard himself as an apostle of science and a torch-bearer for virtue. He must also remember that on him is laid the burden of fulfilling prophecy. He is bound to show that power and inspiration which he al-

ways said he would when once his fetters were broken. Should he fail, may he share that fate which (doubtless from a silly infatuation about the exterminated maiden) we trust may yet overtake his female forerunners—"to fill a vacant hour with prattle and be forgotten."

THE TURNING-POINT OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

B. F. Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America, 1773-1783. Vol. XIX., Nos. 1703-1761. 1893.

THERE is no lack of dramatic intensity in the concluding despatches of this volume, nor is the element of irony absent. On December 5, 1777, (No. 1754) Beaumarchais, in his communication to Vergennes, tells how, in the hurry to get to Paris with M. Grand on the news of Burgoyne's surrender, they were both upset; Grand's shoulder was broken, while he himself had a great flow of blood from the nose and mouth, for which he was promptly bled at the foot. Although in addition to these adversities "the vertebræ of the neck were almost broken," he continues sorrowfully, "it is not my postillion who is killing me, it is M. de Maurepas." He is sure, however, that "the true friends of the cause will not be deserted," and with Gallic buoyancy proclaims: "I am the voice which cries for them from the depths of my bed, *De profundis clamavi ad te, Domine, Domine, exaudi orationem meam.*" Then follows one of the early mentions of the surrender which threw the support of France unreservedly in our favor.

No. 1756, also dated on December 5, is from James Lowrey to Mons. St. Piere. If any reasonable doubt exists that St. Piere was Dr. Bancroft, the memorandum by Deane on the back of this letter conclusively decides them to have been the same person. Lowrey's identity is still unknown, but he shows a close intelligence of the doings and sayings, too, of the English ministry. The news of the surrender was received by North "at 12 on Tuesday night [December 3], just after he returned from a long and fatiguing Debate in the House of Commons." Lowrey says that upon Sir William Howe is laid by administration the chief blame of the defeat, because of his expedition to Chesapeake Bay when Washington was so strong in the Jerseys. He should have aided Burgoyne's junction with his army by moving towards Albany.

So much for the news in England and in France. Meanwhile, on December 5 (No. 1757), Stormont writes with much eagerness to Vergennes informing him of the successes of Howe, Clinton, and Cornwallis in the middle provinces during September and October, but utters not a word as to Burgoyne. On the next day he writes to Weymouth (No. 1759), looking for an explanation of the paradox that while Franklin is claiming much for the prosperous condition of things in America (still not a word as to Burgoyne), insinuations, inspired by Franklin, are abroad that *now* is a good time for England to make peace. He holds that Franklin is in correspondence with some one in England, and the Lowrey letter is corroboration that Stormont's opinion was shrewd. On the same day Vergennes writes (No. 1760) to Noailles the following delicate words:

"Lord Stormont, always moderate, has hastened to let me share his modest satisfaction; he has written me a very affectionate letter, to which he annexed a copy of the *Gazette* extraordinary of the 2nd instant. I have duly thanked him for this attention, to which I might have replied by sending him Gen. Burgoyne's capitulation, but I prefer to let him learn it from others. The Americans have lost Philadelphia and captured an army. . . . All this seems to bring us nearer to the moment of the crisis which I have always foreseen."

In No. 1761 is a memorandum only of a despatch to Weymouth, dated the 6th, in which Stormont says that he "is sorry to confirm the news of Burgoyne's catastrophe," and encloses "manuscript copy of 'bulletins' issued by Dr. Franklin, announcing that news." Thus the curtain does not drop on the closing scene of this volume leaving so important a personage of the drama as Lord Stormont ignorant of the situation. Mr. Jonathan Loring Austin arrived at Passey with the news on December 4, so that the news was in London a day earlier than in Paris, and seemingly it took two days more to reach Lord Stormont.

But more important, if less thrilling, than the manner of the reception of the surrender, was the mutual attitude towards America of the Courts of Spain and France at this time. The essential portion of volume xix. relates especially to this matter, and reveals, with remarkable if not flattering clearness, some of the deeper motives which lay beneath the friendliness of both these Powers. It is plainly impossible to show, even in outline, the subtle and discriminating purposes on foot to use the colonies for ulterior ambitions. It is not asserted that these documents now reveal for the first time any startling or hitherto unheard-of plot; only this, that their entire frankness and want of the least savor of international ethics are cynically destructive of some of the illusions which still hover about an American idealization of the Revolution. Nos. 1704, 11, 12, 15, 19, 25, 34, 37, 40, and 45 contain the papers which passed at this time between the two courts through the medium of the Count de Vergennes, the Count de Florida Blanca, and the Marquis d'Ossun. It was at first proposed that France and Spain should, in common, advance "help" to the amount of six millions, on the stringent conditions, among others, that no treaty should be considered between England and America without the consent of the other two Powers, and that, in case of such consideration, there should be an immediate withdrawal of money advances. No. 1711 frankly discusses the cherished plan of weakening England by prolonging war, entirely irrespective of any regard for America. It is evident that Vergennes always had little trust in the "people," and especially in the American people, on the ground that they were incapable of disinterestedness—by which he really meant that the colonists perceived clearly that both France and Spain had large interests in maintaining their separation from England, and that this knowledge of the situation encouraged them to make a too free use, by privateering and by abuses of neutrality laws, of the friendly attitude of these Powers.

The Spanish Court did not meet this proposition of "help" with open arms, and held, to quote Ossun (No. 1715), that "it would not accord with the dignity of two great Powers to lend, but it may be to their glory and their interest to give in suitable proportion." A little later (No. 1719), Ossun, after chronicling the fact that "The Princess of Asturias, Sir, has had inflammation of the gums," speaks of the objections which Lord Grantham makes to Florida Blanca concerning the reinforcement by Spanish soldiers of the garrisons in the French Windward Islands. To Grantham's assertion that the British Ministry would be thought mad if it wished to make war on the two crowns, the Count replied laughingly that "there were so many mad men in the world that it was prudent to take precautions against madness!" But this was a rare exhibition of levity on the part of the Count de Florida Blanca, who could take every one, himself included, with the utmost seriousness. His paper handed to the Marquis d'Ossun (No. 1725), to serve as a reply to the request of the American Commissioners for a loan of £2,000,000 sterling from Spain and France, is perhaps the most weighty, as it certainly is the most grandiose, of this volume. According to the French plan, six million livres tournois were to be raised, one-half by each crown—this loan to be kept secret even from Congress, on the ground offered by Vergennes, that "the time had not yet come when we can bind them by their signatures" (No. 1711)—and to be paid in instalments, which were to cease at once if the colonies should begin to treat for an agreement with England. To this the Count offers a most wordy declaration of benefits already conferred by Spain; he insists that its costly naval armament, by obliging England to maintain in port a large number of ships against possible movements of the French and Spanish squadrons, is a great, if indirect, aid to the insurgents. Secrecy and the absence of any definite settlement with the Deputies made, in his opinion, "a game of *embite* in which by prudent guessing one risks losing or winning, fleeing from covenants difficult to fulfil and to arrange with such people." His own plan is, firstly, to remind the Deputies of past blessings; secondly, to supply them, each court according to its ability, and without a fixed sum in view; thirdly, fourthly, and fifthly, to load them with solemn advice; and, sixthly, to treat the British Cabinet with circumspection and to "lull them," because, forsooth, it is a nation which is never "grateful" for what is done out of friendship and moderation! If we consider that the main objection of Spain to lending money to America really was the fear that in time England might make a favorable peace between herself and her colonies, and thus, perhaps, end the wished-for opportunity of harrying her on the part of Spain and France, it will not be difficult to appreciate the poignant grief of the Count over the baseness of so "ungrateful" a people as the English.

An entire absence of such preternaturally solemn nonsense and of all needless obviousness put the papers of Vergennes and of Franklin in bright contrast to those of Florida Blanca or even of Stormont. Vergennes (No. 1734) regrets the Spanish decision, and soon (No. 1737) announces that the French King will pay the Americans, during the next year, 3,000,000 in four equal parts. Spain at this point (No. 1740) was afforded a fine chance to allay a possible feeling of shame on her own part at the generosity of France by a loud outcry against the seizure, by Americans, of a French vessel belonging to Spaniards and carrying English goods from London to Cadiz. An ample apology for this blunder was offered (No. 1745) by the Commissioners in behalf of Congress, but Spain continued to sulk for some little time. Franklin, who appears to have written this apology, suggests, with his usual sanity, that consuls be appointed to America in order to make reclamations in proper form.

Several letters from Beaumarchais (Nos. 1708, 1754, 1758), enclosing his "Nouvelles d'Amérique," are as irrepressible as ever, and make it constantly more difficult to regard the head of the shadowy concern of Hortalez with other than amused tolerance.

The indefatigable Stormont makes a vigorous

protest against fitting out vessels like the *Hippotame* and *L'Heureux* with arms and cannon, and manning them with French soldiers; but he is met with the customary reply that the French ministry can know nothing of private enterprises or the "cupidity of merchants." In Nos. 1735 and 1736 he urges strong objections against the building of French ships in Holland. Vergennes, however, maintains that the King has a right to build ships in Amsterdam if he wishes, and that only when their purpose is known has any one a right to question it. He says also that a contraband trade cannot be prevented; to which Stormont pertinently retorts, "Do smugglers go in fleets?"

Of interest, as showing Stormont's part in the "Hynson business," are Nos. 1717, 23, and 42, which properly supplement what has already been said on this matter in the *Nation* (Feb. 20, 1890, No. 1286). In order to secure the despatches, which were to be sent from the agents to Congress, by means of a French packet boat, he suggests that "a few hundred Guineas properly employed would probably tempt the French Captⁿ to throw his Despatches overboard in such a manner as to let them fall into our hands." This from the virtuously indignant gentleman who twenty-four hours before was taxing Maurepas with duplicity! Of Hynson, who undertook the work, Stormont says (No. 1723) he is "rather to be led than gained." "The best way, perhaps, would be to endeavour to persuade him that the Despatches He carries, if discovered to us, may lead to a Quarrel with France, and a Reconciliation with America, which is his favorite idea."

Samuel Longfellow: Memoir and Letters. Edited by Joseph May, Minister of the First Unitarian Church of Philadelphia. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1894.

It was necessary that, in the biography of a man so modest, simple, and retiring as Samuel Longfellow, we should feel no sense of contrast or even serious difference between the subject and the author; and this condition has been met in the book which has been written by the Rev. Joseph May. If Mr. Longfellow had ever imagined that his Life would be written, and had got an inkling who would be chosen to write it, he would probably have sought him out, not with Dr. Johnson's sanguinary purpose, but to crush the flower of his intention in the bud. It is fortunate that his modesty prevented an anticipation which might have been fatal to his Life as written here; for had he known with what reserve and delicacy Mr. May would write of him, he certainly might have given him permission to proceed without the slightest violation of his habitual modesty. A biography in more perfect harmony with Mr. Longfellow's character and spirit, his most zealous friends could not desire.

We often have the evidence that the measure of a man's influence is not in anything he does, but in some quality of his personal life, and Mr. Longfellow's fortunes are confirmatory of the truth of this idea. He certainly was not an active man. Born in 1819, and dying in 1892, he was a settled minister for only fifteen years, all told—three in Fall River, Mass., seven in Brooklyn, N. Y., and five in Germantown, Pa. He compiled a 'Book of Hymns and Tunes,' and, with the assistance of his friend Samuel Johnson, two other hymnals, 'A Book of Hymns' and 'Hymns of the Spirit.' He also compiled a vesper service which was remarkable for the sincerity of its several parts, wrote a few articles for the *Radical*, a brief biography of his friend Johnson, and a fuller one of his brother Henry. Here, certainly, was but a small amount of work for a lifetime that was extended over more than seventy years. But it furnishes no measure of his service to society. Virtue was always going out of him to help his neighbors and his friends. His gentle speech, his quiet humor, his ready sympathy, his broad humanity, secured for him the love of all who knew him, and the remembrance of him was a perpetual inspiration to the several parishes to which he ministered.

Mr. May tells very briefly the story of his childhood and his school and college life. Graduating at Harvard in 1839, he entered the Harvard Divinity School in 1842, and his studies there, broken by a year in Fayal, ended in 1846. The school was never better stocked with men of force and genius than while he was there. Among his mates were O. B. Frothingham, W. R. Alger, Joseph Henry Allen, T. W. Higginson, and Samuel Johnson. E. E. Hale was his college classmate and his lifelong friend. The 'Book of Hymns' was compiled when he and Johnson were in the school together. Newman's "Lead, kindly Light" appeared in it as anonymous, and for the first time in a hymnal, though it was written in 1833. "Nearer, my God, to Thee," also, made here its first appearance in America. Mr. May writes briefly of Mr. Longfellow's freedom in changing hymns, and with imperfect sympathy. A letter of Mr. Longfellow's is given, in which he endeavors to justify himself. An essential part is omitted which urged the common identification of Christ with God as a reason for changing "Christ" to "God" in various hymns. A more serious omission is that of any adequate recognition of Mr. Longfellow's personal contribution to the treasury of sacred song. His hymns have been more widely sung than any other Unitarian writer's, and they have had generous welcome far out of the sectarian bounds. Whittier's fame as a hymnist is largely due to the "Sam Book," as Parker called it, of Longfellow and his friend. Not a hymn of Whittier's, written as such, has had any vogue. His famous hymns have all been made out of his longer poems—the most of them by Longfellow and Johnson. 'Hymns of the Spirit,' published in 1864, was another book, not merely the old one revised with a new name. Longfellow's sincerity was manifested by his leaving out "Christ to the young man said," the beautiful hymn that his brother had written for his Fall River ordination. The word Christ was its offence. It was a word, a title, that Mr. Longfellow never in his maturer years permitted himself to use.

Mr. May's characterization of Dr. Noyes's teaching in the Divinity School as "tedious and uninteresting in the extreme" will not be cordially accepted by many of his pupils. Noyes's anticipation of the latest critical results was certainly remarkable. Graduating in 1846, it was not until 1848 that Mr. Longfellow became a settled minister. The humors of his candidating come out in his letters to Hale and Johnson, the two favored correspondents of his early manhood; and Johnson always kept his place. Full of gayety and humor, his letters never fail to please and charm. Often languid and miserable, either he did not write so much about his health as did George Eliot and some other invalids, or Mr. May has been more judicious than their biographers. It was like him, however, to put his best foot foremost and hide his wounds In the barest room he could always find some pleasant feature, and he was always seeking others' happiness in unobtrusive ways.

He was the mildest-mannered man that ever preached an anti-slavery sermon, but he was a Garrisonian abolitionist, and he did not hold back his testimony in the days of great events. It marks the sensitiveness of the pro-slavery mind that even his gentle protestation raised a storm of angry disapproval. This happened in Fall River and also in Brooklyn, where a "John Brown sermon" was the stone of stumbling and the rock of offence. The trouble hastened his resignation in both places. He would have preferred disunion to war, but, though a man of peace, he was perhaps more combative and polemical than Mr. May conceives. When his most precious beliefs were thoughtlessly impugned, he could strike as hard as any one in their just defence.

He was fond of travel and went to Europe many times. Mr. May is sparing of his letters from abroad, using good judgment here as elsewhere. A letter about Carlyle and one about Tennyson are particularly good, recording impressions of their looks and talk. Enjoying every form of art, Mr. Longfellow's delight in music was the sweetest solace of his uneventful life. What Beethoven's Fourth Symphony meant for him is told in a delightful chapter which one should have in hand some day when hearing the music. He was very fond of children, and especially of boys. Many of his letters to one of these are given, a benediction on a young life too soon cut off. His friendship with Samuel Johnson was an ideal relation, abounding in the rarest mutual sympathy and instigation. Both men were extremely characteristic products of the Transcendental movement and members of a clearly defined group, which included also Frothingham and Wasson and Higginson and Weiss. They never surrendered to the scientific invaders.

With the biography comes a volume of sermons, essays, and addresses. They show a vigorous thinker, and a man whose lofty ideality did not prevent his close acquaintance with men's common needs. He was not one of the liberals who cannot distinguish things that differ. He had the frankest predilection for clear thinking, and could say what he did not believe as well as what he did. With all his modesty he had a noble self-respect. On his seventieth birthday he could rejoice that he had lived "seventy happy, peaceful, and not useless years." Each of the volumes has a portrait. Both are highly characteristic, one meditative and the other interested and alert. With these volumes there should be another, a collection of his hymns and other poems, and such a volume is being prepared by Miss Alice Longfellow.

The Art of Music. By C. Hubert H. Parry. D. Appleton & Co. Pp. 374.

Dr. Parry is by many competent judges considered the most original of living English composers, and among the writers on music certainly no one surpasses him in knowledge, style, and the gift of original thought. There are many excellent articles by specialists in Grove's 'Dictionary of Music and Musicians,' but none better than Dr. Parry's on Form, Sonata, Symphony, etc. He has now written a book the modest and somewhat indefinite title of which gives no idea of the treasures to be found between its covers. Were we asked to name a single book which students of music should read and reread for its facts and opinions, we should unhesitatingly select 'The Art of Music.' It is not exactly a book for beginners, since the chapters on Scales and Folk-music presuppose considerable technical know-

ledge; but this ought not to prevent amateurs from reading it, since the greater part of it is intelligible to all who can understand an ordinary newspaper criticism of a musical production.

'The Art of Music' is not a formal history of music and musicians, but rather an account of the evolution of music from primitive times to the present day. Instead of making great composers the centre of interest, and grouping facts about them, Dr. Parry traces the lines of musical evolution, introducing composers merely as illustrations, without dwelling on the details of their lives. But what especially distinguishes his book from most "histories" and "stories" of music is, that it is not a compilation from previous works, but a résumé by one who observes for himself and thinks for himself, thus providing new points of view and new lights. His book is entirely free from the besetting sin of most German histories of music of repeating from other books ready-made opinions which are already obsolete. What it does is, on the contrary, to set up new standards of judgment, and it may be safely said that, with very few exceptions, Dr. Parry's opinions of musicians from Palestrina to Wagner will be the opinions held generally in the next century.

The plan of the book is indicated by the headings of the chapters: Preliminaries, Scales, Folk-music, Incipient Harmony, Pure Choral Music, Rise of Secular Music, Combination of Old Methods and New Principles, Climax of Early Instrumental Music, Beginnings of Modern Instrumental Music, Middle Stage of Modern Opera, Middle Stage of Sonata Form, Balance of Expression and Design, Modern Tendencies, Modern Phases of Opera. A special interest attaches to the chapters on national types of the scale and folk-song, in these days when local and national color plays so great a rôle in music. In a later chapter the author draws an extremely interesting parallel between Bach and Handel, which will open some eyes in England, and which he finally sums up in the words that Bach

"appeals to a much smaller public than Handel, and is totally unacceptable to shallow, worldly, or unpoetical temperaments; but he has given much higher pleasure to those whose mental and emotional organization is sufficiently high to be in touch with him, and there are but few of the great composers of later times who have not felt him to be their most inspiring example."

Dr. Parry does not hesitate to tell modern composers that the day for sonatas is past; indeed, he is able to deduce this fact from the practice of most of these composers themselves, whereas critics and historians have been generally blind to it. While just to Mozart's genius, the author does not overrate it, as most historians do—*i. e.*, he avoids the ludicrous method of German historians of saying *nil nisi bonum* about great composers of the past, whereby they make it impossible to trace the lines of progress. But it is in the modern chapters that Dr. Parry best shows his superiority of judgment over the German historians (Langhans excepted, who is less mediæval in his method and judgments than his colleagues). He assigns Schubert, Chopin, and Wagner their proper place, and has many admirable and suggestive things to say about them. Here, for instance, in the remarks on Wagner's vocal style (p. 362), is a gem of lucid criticism:

"The art is not limited to obvious tune on one side, and chaotic recitative on the other, but is capable of endless shades of difference. Wagner makes *Mime* sing melody because he is a sneaking impostor who pretends to have any amount of beautiful feelings and has none; that, no doubt, is a subtlety of satire, but otherwise he generally reserves vocal melody for characteristic moments of special exaltation."

A few statements in this book will surprise the reader, as, for instance, the one on p. 84, that Irish folk-music is "probably the most human, the most varied, most poetical, and most imaginative in the world." But there is only one point on which we decidedly differ from Dr. Parry. He makes no mention whatever of Robert Franz, and names Brahms as the third in the great trio of song-composers, with Schubert and Schumann. In our opinion his trio is almost as absurd as it would be to make an operatic triumvirate of Mozart, Wagner, and Mascagni. We have made a careful and repeated study of Brahms's songs, and are more and more astounded at their shallowness and emptiness. We have also found invariably that the admirers of Brahms were entirely unfamiliar with Franz. It is only on this ground that we can explain Dr. Parry's blindness to him, and we are convinced that a thorough study of the 257 songs of Franz will cause him to give that marvellously original genius a page or two in the next edition of his book.

Social England: A Record of the Progress of the People in Religion, Laws, Learning, Arts, Industry, Commerce, Science, Literature, and Manners, from the Earliest Times to the Present Day. By Various Writers. Edited by H. D. Traill. Vol. I. From the Earliest Times to the Accession of Edward the First. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1894.

THE appearance of this book is significant in more ways than one. In the first place, it is a sign of the times that an experienced man of letters like Mr. Traill should be ready to undertake the editorial labor, and that good men of business, like Messrs. Cassell and Messrs. Putnam, should be ready to assume the financial risk, involved in the issuing of a portly work of some three or four volumes on "social" history. It is the best sort of indication of the direction in which the interest of the educated public is going. Modern democratic sympathies, the application to history of the conceptions of "evolution" and "organism" and "environment," the pressure of economic difficulties—these and other forces are causing us to look at the story of the past in a new sort of way, to put the emphasis in a different place, to ask new questions. The realization of this it was which, with its attractive style, gave Green's 'History of the English People' its extraordinary success. But even Green made social history subordinate to his narrative of political events; and the coöperative undertaking now conducted by Mr. Traill is perhaps the first considerable work in English which has put social development really in the forefront.

Yet it is a pity that, going so far, Mr. Traill has not gone further. The defect of the work as we now have it is that it creates too great a multiplicity of impressions; it tries to strike us with equal emphasis in too many directions; it ceases to be a story and becomes an encyclopædia. And yet among the many lines of thought there is one which could so easily have been made the main line, and furnished the thread of consecutive interest which now the book lacks. It is pretty clear that just as in the thirties and forties of this century the practical work of constitution-making led to the appearance of constitutional history as a more or less separate branch of study, so now the economic problems of the day are pushing economic history to a position of importance. And one need not accept a materialistic view of history in order to recognize that the economic evolution of society is more fundamental than any other single subject of historical investigation, and that around it and in subordination to it may readily be grouped a very large part of what is best worth attention in law and science and manners. If some such idea as this had governed the construction of the book, we should have been spared the absurdity of having as much space devoted to the details of costume as to the most essential questions of social organization. Mr. Traill had a great opportunity, and he has but half profited by it.

The book is significant in another way: it restores five centuries to English history. Under the influence of the Teutonist school of historians, of which Freeman and Green and Dr. Stubbs were the best-known representatives, the history of the people of England has been made to begin with the English invasion of Britain. The Celtic and Roman periods either have been disregarded altogether, or have been assigned a brief introductory chapter for the purpose mainly of explaining why they are unimportant. But now in 'Social England' we have 120 pages given to "England before the English"; and for this new interest in things before Hengist and Horsa there is an explanation. So long as it was thought that Celtic and Roman life had no abiding influence on the later history of England, its investigation could hardly fail to be regarded as nothing more than the idle sport of archæologists. The explanation, in large measure, of the space here given to pre-English times is that more than one of the writers believe that the degree of continuity between those times and later ages was much greater than has commonly been supposed. It is worth noting that the abandonment of the ultra-Teutonist position would seem to have been the result not of arguments like those of Mr. Coote for the survival of Roman *political* institutions, but of arguments like those of Mr. Seebohm for the continuity of *agrarian* life. Mr. York-Powell—who, as the editor of the 'Corpus Poeticum Boreale,' can hardly be suspected of anti-Teutonic sympathies—now tells us that "the English conqueror found estates cultivated by British *servi* and *liberti* and *coloni*, according to certain rules and customs for the profit of the *dominus* and *patronus* and their own living. He stepped into the Roman patron's, or even the earlier Celtic chief's place, exacted his dues, and farmed more or less after his fashion" (p. 125). And again: "The slaves and bondsmen seem to have lived and worked precisely as they had for their former masters" (p. 122). This is a view of the beginnings of English history which involves the rewriting of many a page of our standard constitutional and legal text-books. Perhaps, however, it will be better not to set about that work just yet; for Mr. York-Powell, with the *élan* which characterizes him, leaps somewhat too hastily from probability to the language of certitude. There is much more in early English social history than the survival of the Roman agricultural system; and much investigation will still be necessary before we can satisfactorily determine the relations of the various elements to one another. We have called attention to Mr. York-Powell's utterance, not because it is the whole truth, but because it marks a reaction from "the forests of Germany" which can hardly fail to be salutary.

American Types of Animal Life. By St. George Mivart, F.R.S. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 8vo, pp. 374, illustrated.

THE recent diffusion of science has made the public more exacting, until it now demands instruction from men of eminence in their specialties rather than from compilers. This book is one of a considerable number of good ones that owe their existence to increased interest in the study of nature and a keener appreciation of the best sources of information. Prof. Mivart is a distinguished specialist, and has an excellent reputation as an authority in various lines of natural history. His brilliancy, energy, and originality invest his subjects with exceptional interest, and his rank among the greater scientists leads to a presumption in favor of the accuracy of his work. The higher education that has caused the distaste for knowledge, so often incompetent, at second hand, has also made the general reader more critical, more ready to detect inaccuracy, and less ready to tolerate it. And so, while our author may be sure his book will be well received, he can hardly expect certain evidences of haste, carelessness, or worse, on its pages to pass without severe criticism. An illustration occurs in the statement, "No single kind of ape which exists in America is found anywhere else," p. 3, which is followed, p. 20, by notice of the green monkey of the Cape Verde Islands, introduced in the Antilles, where it has run wild. A similar instance is that of the raccoon, which is "absolutely peculiar to North America," on p. 211, but extends its natural range "all over the United States, both north to Alaska and south to Costa Rica," on p. 212, and, through "a Southern species, is to be found all over South America as far south as the Rio Negro," on p. 213. Page 129 states positively that "a snake's body can be bent only from side to side," yet this does not preclude descriptions and figures of the manner in which the snake strikes its prey, the cobra raises its body and bends its head forward, or the constrictors twine around and crush their victims. Of course the author meant that a snake does not progress by raising the middle of its body from the ground, like the caterpillars vulgarly called measuring or span worms; he should have said so. A final example, attributable either to defective observation or erratic imagination, may be taken from p. 125, the account of the rattle of the snake:

"Its three terminal segments or vertebræ become united together into one solid whole, and also become enlarged in size and specially modified in form, being swollen at the hinder end. This bony structure is covered with a special development of the soft, deeper skin from which all the outer skin and scales of the body are formed, the soft structure being so subdivided by grooves as to form three segments, which themselves become coated with three corresponding dense layers of outer skin, or, as it is technically called, 'epidermis,' thus forming three horny rings. These constitute all the rattle there is in young snakes which have not yet shed their skin. . . . When the moult actually takes place, the old covering of the tail end is not cast off (being held by the swollen end of the bone before noted)," etc.

In fact, however, half-a-dozen or more of the vertebræ unite, instead of three; the bone they form is enlarged forward and tapers backward, instead of being swollen at the hinder end; the tail, before sloughing, has but one dense outer horny layer, instead of three; the young snake has but one horny ring before the first slough, instead of three; a young snake has no rattle till the first slough provides the first loose ring; and when the moult takes place, the old covering of the tail is not held by the swollen end of the bone but by the skin. Prof. Mivart knows more about birds and mammals than about snakes.

In view of the title-page, the number of illustrations that do not belong to American types is at first a cause of some surprise. The text explains that the type introduces its group, a proper understanding of which is not possible without consideration of old-world members. A study of the class of mammals to which this book is written as an introduction would be incomplete without reference to relations among lower vertebrates. Consequently the turkey, the snake, and the bullfrog are added to the list of the mammalian types—monkey, opossum, bat, bison, raccoon, sloth, seal, whale, and the "other beasts."

Wah-Kee-Nah and Her People. By James C. Strong, Bvt. Brig.-Gen. Veteran Reserve Corps, U. S. A. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1893. 8vo, pp. 275.

THIS volume, so we are told, is called Wakeenah in grateful recognition of the services of a "beautiful, fearless, and true-hearted" Yakima (Oregon Indian) girl who was a servant some forty years ago in the family of the author's brother, and who, while living in this capacity, rescued his child from drowning, and subsequently, at the risk of her own life, saved that of the author. About one-third of the book is devoted to an account of this modern Pocahontas and her people, while all the rest, including some fifty pages given up to a summary of the conquest of Mexico, consists of certain "brief outlines of history," which are dragged into the record, apparently for no other purpose than to furnish a basis for arraigning the white man for the way in which he has ever treated the Indian. In fact, our author's object in recapitulating many of these horrible occurrences seems to have been, in part, "to lessen the blame attached to the Indian for the acts of retaliation, often savage and brutal," to which he has been incited; and, at the same time, to induce those who may read the book "to think upon one of the great questions of the day—how to solve the Indian problem."

This is certainly a praiseworthy motive, and, so far as we are concerned, there cannot be two opinions as to the shameful manner in which these people have been treated, and the necessity of adopting a *modus vivendi* which will insure them against future outrage on the part of the Government as well as from private individuals. On this point there is not room for an argument; and it is an encouraging sign to find that those of us who are familiar with the disgraceful record are not anxious to provoke a discussion by singling out any particular people for condemnation. But, while conceding our own shortcomings, we are not prepared to endorse all the remedies suggested by our author; neither do we accept many of his statements, especially those in which, following in the wake of certain old writers, he describes the manners, customs, etc., of the different tribes with which he deals. Take, for example, as bearing upon the first of these points, what we are told (p. 268) about the class of men sent out as Indian agents. No doubt they were often incompetent, occasionally dishonest, and almost any change would have been an improvement upon the way in which they were formerly chosen. It is even possible, though we doubt it, that the army (p. 271) would to-day furnish better material from which to select these officials than can be found in civil life. So, too, the institution of training-schools, with special reference to instruction in farming, might be a step in the right direction, though the fact that the Indian cultivated corn long before the white man landed on these shores would seem to indicate that the trouble is not so much in teaching him the process as it is in persuading him to undergo the amount of labor necessary to success. However, be this as it may, it is not a point upon which we care to enlarge, for the reason that these suggestions, considered as remedies, do not strike at the root of the disease. To do this with any prospect of success, the system of tribal organizations, with its attendant train of evils, must be swept away, or, as our author (p. 270) aptly says, the Indians, except in the matter of alienating land, must be made "citizens as soon as possible, amenable to and protected by the same laws as the white citizen." Until this is done we may be very sure that the Indian question will not be settled, not even if a school were established on every square mile of the different reservations and all the agents were angels.

In regard to the manners, customs, traditions, etc., of these people a word of caution is rendered necessary by the fact that in these "outlines" fact and fiction are so often mixed as to make it difficult for any one but a specialist to find his way. This, however, is not altogether the fault of the old chroniclers. They saw here a condition of affairs which had no parallel in Europe, and in describing it they had to make use of the only terminology with which they were acquainted. Instead of interpreting their accounts by what we now know of Indian life and habits of thought, it was, at one time, the custom to read them in the light of the civilization that prevailed in Spain, and this led to error. Thus, when we are told (pp. 32, 60, etc.) "that the Indian believed in one God—the author of all good—and in an evil spirit who was ever going about doing evil," we at once call a halt, for we know that his religion was a kind of fetishism, and that he had not reached that stage of progress where the conception of dualism in the spiritual hierarchy was possible. His Manito, or guardian spirit, was sometimes good and sometimes bad, or, measuring it by that of a neighbor and rival, it was either superior or inferior in power, and hence to be cherished or discarded as the case might be. The idea of God and Devil, as we flatter ourselves we understand it, came in with the missionaries. and it is doubtful whether it has been assimilated even by those tribes which are said to be Christianized.

Harmful as is this method of interpretation when applied to our Indians, it is productive of greater error when used with reference to a people "far advanced in civilization," as the Mexicans (p. 250) are said to have been. In this portion of his work our author gives full play to his imagination, and accordingly we read of emperors, temples, palaces, chirography, etc., where a specialist of the Morgan school would speak of a war chief, a medicine lodge, and picture-writing. So, also, an ethnologist like Brinton, instead of telling us that the Mexicans were more advanced in civilization (p. 216) than any of our Indians, would have contented himself with saying that "culture was not monopolized by a few tribes"; and that whenever the surroundings favored such a development "the neighboring tribes, though of different stocks, enjoyed it to nearly an equal degree." Errors (or, if the phrase be preferred, differences of opinion) like these might be multiplied indefinitely. They are the result of the two different methods of interpreting the early chronicles, and to this extent they are excusable. But even if this be

granted, and we overlook mistakes which have an apparent foundation in fact, what shall we say of the statement (p. 263) that "the few Aztecs who remain to-day are mere nomads in the country that was once their own," and this in face of the fact that the aboriginal population of Mexico, according to Bandelier, has increased in the last 360 years, and when we know that President Juarez, who overthrew Maximilian and the empire set up by the French invaders, was an Indian?

In conclusion, we must remind our author that, in recounting the sad incidents that marked the early intercourse between the European and the Indian, it is not sufficient to put ourselves in the Indian's place and look at events solely from his point of view: we must also regard them from the level of the white man, and then judge them by the moral code that prevailed in the sixteenth century and not by that of the nineteenth. Viewed in this way, massacres like those of the Pequots (p. 9) and of the Mexicans by Alvarado can be explained and defended, though, as we have elsewhere said, it would be as reasonable to expect to gather grapes from thorns and figs from thistles as to find that the Spanish conquerors or the English colonists were actuated by sentiments of justice and humanity in all their dealings with the Indians.

A Treatise on Money, and Essays on Monetary Problems. By J. Shield Nicholson. London: Black; New York: Macmillan. 1893.

THIS work consists of a treatise on money, written in the first place for the industrial classes of the Wholesale Coöperative Society and published with several minor essays in 1888, together with half-a-dozen articles that have more recently appeared in various periodicals. Several of the latter, we may say at once, have no particular relation to monetary science, and the remainder are so slight as to give rise to the suspicion that they are inserted as padding. It would have been worthier of Prof. Nicholson's reputation to write this treatise anew, and the subject is certainly of sufficient timeliness and importance to have justified it. This may be said with less hesitation because Prof. Nicholson is really a good writer and clear thinker, who has already done excellent work and will do more; and, it might be added, had it not been for the "burning question" of bimetallism, the 'Treatise on Money' would have had merit enough to justify a second edition.

Bimetallism, however, being at the front, and having received, in this country at least, some rather damaging treatment at the hands of its friends as well as its foes, we should have expected Prof. Nicholson, who is an enthusiastic bimetallist, to look most carefully to the preparation of the bimetallic case. It is therefore a disappointment to find him providing a maximum of reproach and assertion, a modicum of argument, and a minimum of proof. We shall endeavor to lay bare the slight foundation upon which he erects his theories, conceding, by the way, that it is after all upon this foundation alone that any rational theory of bimetallism must rest.

Stripped of its accessories, this basis is the proposition that a depreciating standard of value is economically desirable. Prof. Nicholson thinks there is no reasonable doubt that if the stock of the precious metals had not been increased by the discoveries in the sixteenth century, the progress of trade and industry which took place would have been impossible. The laborers who mine gold create a demand for commodities; this demand raises prices in the country where the gold is mined; these higher prices draw goods from other countries; this makes an increased demand and higher prices there; and so "the whole industry of the civilized world was quickened with new life, and the production and the consumption of all kinds of real wealth were stimulated." But since 1874 there have been diminishing prosperity and diminishing supplies of gold, and the method of concomitant variations enables us to infer that the diminished supply of gold is the cause of the diminished prosperity. Hence the general proposition is reached that increased supplies of money give "a real and generous stimulus to the industrial activity of the world." Conversely, if the supplies of gold diminish and we refuse to use silver as money, we may expect "overproduction, loss of profit, and depression." Prof. Nicholson will not even concede that when prices are declining those in receipt of fixed salaries and wages may fare well, for "employment will be irregular," as declining prices cause decreased profits; although he in the same breath declares that producers experience loss of profits because they are unable to readjust money wages. And finally those in receipt of fixed money incomes do not gain, because the "middle men" rapaciously keep up retail prices while they get the benefit of reduced prices in their wholesale purchases.

It certainly seems as if there was something of the "insane root" in bimetallism to cause sober writers like Prof. Nicholson to go on after this fashion. But, however that may be, it is evident, in the first place, that the opening up of the great wheat fields of the Northwest would have the effects ascribed by Prof. Nicholson to discoveries of silver and gold. His language is as applicable to one case as another. The farmers and laborers of the West created a demand for commodities just as the gold-miners did, and this demand had a similar effect on industry. But, in the second place, the assumption that continually rising prices are economically advantageous is entirely inadmissible. The question lies between borrowers and lenders. What will be the effect upon them of the expectation that a man who borrows a thousand dollars when wheat is ninety-nine cents a bushel can repay it in a year by selling wheat at one dollar a bushel and with a corresponding advance every succeeding year? It is evident that lenders will be cautious and borrowers eager; the result of which would appear in the rate of interest. The borrower would in such case be no better off than before, nor the lender either.

But if this were not the case, and industry was "quickened with new life" by a factitious rise in prices, experience shows that such quickening is followed by paralysis. It is a commonplace of the stock market that most speculators are "bulls," and if we take a survey of the world we find it covered with the wrecks and ruins of the enterprises of too sanguine capital. How much money can Prof. Nicholson prove to have been lost through the benumbing influence of falling prices? For every million that he can imagine to have been lost in this way, we will undertake to demonstrate losses of ten millions through over-confident speculation. Who gets rich in the long run—the man who tries for a high rate of interest, or the one who prefers a low one? Experience answers this question with emphasis. It is not too much to say that if all those contemplating new investments of capital were to be persuaded that they had overestimated the profits to accrue, there would be far less wild speculation and much more sound business.

"The overweening conceit which the greater part of men have of their own abilities is an ancient evil remarked by philosophers and moralists of all ages. Their absurd presumption in their own good fortune has been less taken notice of. It is, however, if possible, still more universal. There is no man living who, when in tolerable health and spirits, has not some share of it. The chance of gain is by every man more or less over-valued, and the chance of loss is by most men under-valued, and by scarce any man, who is in tolerable health and spirits, valued more than it is worth."

These words are as true now as when Adam Smith wrote them, and they are enough in reply to the complaints of the "debtor class," which is composed of those who cannot dispose at the advanced prices which they anticipated of the land or goods in which they have been speculating.

Until it can be shown that bimetallism means something more than what it has hitherto meant, an alternating standard of value, and until some means of obtaining it other than mere bimetallic inflation is devised, cautious people who have capital to invest will prefer the existing standard of value; and when such people have a decided preference, our recent experience proves that any attempt to substitute a depreciating standard does not "quicken industry with new life."

Good Old Dorchester: A Narrative History of the Town, 1630–1890. By W. D. Orcutt. Cambridge, Mass.: The Author.

THIS large and handsome, but yet tasteful and unostentatious, volume tells the story of one of the most ancient and honorable towns in the country. From a moment even earlier than the arrival of Winthrop's company on the shores of Massachusetts Bay, the town of Dorchester maintained herself in dignity and beauty for long over two centuries and a quarter, till her younger sister Boston blotted out her separate municipal existence in 1870. There was not a decade in these two hundred and forty years which did not contribute some striking event, or in which some illustrious character could not be pointed out within the limits of old Dorchester, to signalize the spot which the very earliest pioneers had selected as the home of freedom, of enterprise, and of piety. The current of "remarkables," to use Mather's word, runs in this book naturally after the general course of town histories, but with strong and wise control over the temptation to bring to the surface mere local celebrities, which the mistaken pride of descendants and townsmen seeks to exalt beyond their dues. A goodly number of portraits of the exceptionally eminent men, and views of some of the ancient and historical houses, adorn the book. They are executed in various styles of art, but all in good taste.

Historians of Dorchester are fortunate in being able to draw from more than one contemporary annalist. The journals of the pioneer Roger Clap and the pastor Richard Mather, and the laborious and faithful annals of the town clerk, James Blake, give a chance for intimate acquaintance with colonial and provincial celebrities the like of which exists in very few of our ancient towns. To stimulate readers to investigate Mr. Orcutt's book for themselves, they may be reminded of a very few of the striking incidents and great men of Dorchester, all duly recorded in this volume. In 1633 the first town meeting, the basis of all the free institutions of the New England States and their progeny, was held in

Dorchester—an event shortly to be commemorated by a monument. In 1635 the greater part of the Dorchester Church migrated to the Connecticut River, then a fourteen days' journey, and founded the town of Windsor, Conn. By the persuasions of the saintly Eliot, a large remnant of the Massachusetts Indians was peaceably established within the town limits of Dorchester, and saved from the persecutions and wars that so often wronged their brethren; but the slaughter of one of their number by the agent of King Philip was the spark that fired the wars of 1675-6 all over southern New England. William Stoughton, the witchcraft judge and benefactor of Harvard College, was the most prominent citizen of Dorchester, and died there in 1701. The still more famous Increase Mather was born there in 1639. In 1695 a colony from Dorchester made their way to the banks of the Ashley River and founded the church and town of Dorchester, South Carolina. But, the site not proving all they hoped, they moved to Midway in Georgia; and when the rest of that colony refused to send delegates to the Congress at Philadelphia, Dr. Lyman Hall of Midway, of the old Dorchester stock, represented the colony alone. In 1774 the last half-chest of tea washed ashore from the "Boston tea-party" was detected in Dorchester after an organized search and publicly burned, and the possessor forced to a public apology. In 1776 Washington completed the investment of Boston by the occupation of Dorchester Heights, forcing Howe to evacuate the city. Edward Everett was born in Dorchester on the 11th of April, 1794, and the centennial anniversary of his birth was affectionately celebrated by his native town.

Of later matters, Mr. Orcutt's book describes in an interesting manner the singular opposition against which the railroad to Plymouth had to fight its way through Dorchester; the valuable work done by the late Marshall P. Wilder in promoting horticulture; and the life and genius of the sculptor Ball Hughes. His amusing and characteristic incidents of the long life of "Good Old Dorchester," in church, home, school, and war-time, are quite too numerous even to be hinted at. The spirit of the book is so completely that of affection, as its title indicates, that it does not assume the character of a critical history. Any one examining it from that point of view would not be satisfied with some of the insertions and some of the omissions; and, considering the many distinctions of the ancient town, as indicated above, one may say that there is still room for a real History of Dorchester, even after Mr. Orcutt's labor of love.

Bibliografia delle Tradizioni popolari d'Italia. Compilata da Giuseppe Pitrè. Con tre indici speciali. Torino-Palermo: Carlo Clausen. 1894. Gr. 8vo, two columns, pp. xx, 603.

Dr. Giuseppe Pitrè has appropriately crowned his indefatigable labors in the field of Italian folk-lore by this splendid volume, which puts the student in possession of the vast material collected and ransacked by the compiler during the thirty and more years of his incessant studies. In the interesting preface, the aim of the present work to be helpful to collectors and students is set forth, and the compiler, if he has erred at all, has erred in the direction of copiousness. For this, Pitrè has earned the gratitude of scholars who know the lack of Italian general bibliographies, and the peculiar difficulties that beset the collector in a country which has the admirable, and, at the same time, exasperating custom of publishing the most valuable things in, say, twenty-five copies for wedding presents, which, like other wedding gifts, get into commerce only on the death of the recipients.

The scope of this bibliography may first be shown by what it excludes. It begins with the middle ages, and so omits classical folk-lore, and it further omits the class of popular literature generally known as chap-books (*storie e libretti popolari*), though modern reprints of such as have been the subject of study and have a definite folk-lore (*demopsicologico*) character are included. On the other hand, the editor has admitted the folk-lore of Corsica, Trieste, and Venetian Dalmatia, as well as that of the Slavic or Slavonic, German, Greek, and Albanian colonies in Friuli, Calabria, Terra d'Otranto, Sicily, etc. A more difficult question concerns the inclusion of poetry of a popular nature (*poesia popolareggiante e popolaresca*) and novels and facetiæ of the Italian writers of past ages. Here the compiler has been guided by his own judgment and that of the numerous scholars whom he has consulted. He has included what seemed more popular than literary, and into the second category above mentioned he has admitted Straparola, Basile, Sarnelli, Arlotto, Mainardi, Domenichi, Poggio, Doni, Costo, Gozzi, Lippi, etc., while excluding Boccaccio, Sacchetti, and others of that class.

It will be seen that Dr. Pitrè has understood his task in the broadest sense, and he has further enlarged it by registering all articles in journals of every description, and all works of travel, etc., containing contributions to manners, customs, etc. In this way the 'Bibliografia' is a complete index to the invaluable *Archivio per lo studio delle tradizioni popolari* (Palermo), the oldest folk-lore journal in existence, which has been under the management of Dr. Pitrè since its inception by him in 1882. The 'Bibliografia' is far, however, from being a dry list of titles. The editor has, wherever it seemed helpful, summarized the contents of the work under notice, or given such references as may save the student from purchasing a worthless book or duplicating one he already possesses. It is impossible to be too grateful to Dr. Pitrè for this part of his labor, or for the indexes to be mentioned presently. The work comprises 6,680 titles (it must be remembered that this figure denotes various editions, articles in periodicals, translations, etc.), arranged alphabetically in six classes: tales, stories, legends, and facetiæ; songs and melodies; children's games and songs; riddles, formulæ, cries of vendors, etc., argot; proverbs; usages, customs, beliefs and prejudices. While there is something to be said in favor of one alphabetical arrangement, undoubtedly in a work of this kind a classification by subjects is of great help to the scholar, and any objection to the system is removed by the excellent index of authors, pseudonyms, and titles of anonymous works. There are, besides, two other indexes, one of places, in which the vast material is distributed over its wide geographical range, and one of subjects. The value of this last-named index cannot be overestimated. Although the editor does not claim that it is exhaustive, it is still full enough to save greatly the time of the student in his researches as to any particular topic. The book itself in its typographical arrangement is faultless and reflects the greatest credit upon the publisher, who has also been the friend and enlightened patron of the editor. It may be well to state for the benefit of libraries and amateurs that the edition consists of only 550 numbered copies, and the price is twenty-five lire or francs.

When we consider that Dr. Pitrè (whose works alone furnish 220 titles) is a practising physician at Palermo, with no private fortune or aid from the State, and with the leisure which he can find only in the intervals of an arduous profession, we are lost in wonder at the enormous amount of labor he has accomplished. No one has ever before so fully collected the folk-lore of his country in every direction, or placed all workers in this field under such profound obligations. He has sacrificed all other rewards. May he at least have that of the grateful appreciation of scholars in his lifetime, and may it not be said of him, "Cineri gloria sera venit."

Life on the Lagoons. By Horatio F. Brown. Macmillan.

Seldom have we come upon so satisfactory and charming a book as this. Who has not written about Venice—not poems merely, but descriptive rhapsodies? Byron, Hobhouse, Stendhal, Gautier—the list is but begun. Mr. Howells made his early reputation by his sketches of Venetian life. Mr. James, M. Paul Bourget have more recently written Venice up, as we may properly say. But they, and most of the others, differ from Mr. Brown in this important respect: they write as travellers who see the outside of the wonderful city, and have emotions and enthuse over them; he writes as one who, from long intimacy, has come to know the life of the people to-day, just as, by profound and sympathetic study, he has come to know the history of Venice. Mr. Brown is as free from illusions regarding the Byronic or stage-villain Venetians of the past as he is from the Ruskinian contempt for modern Venetians. He brings forward many quaint legends and many well-told accounts of contemporary customs; he is alive to the unique position of Venice in art and in history. Such qualifications very few of the scores who have written about Venice possessed.

It is impossible to indicate even the pith of his many sketches. In one will be found a clear summary of the rise and fall of the Venetian state; in another, he traces the development of the gondola; in a third, he describes the gondoliers' guilds—almost the last survival of the old social organism. For pure description, read the account of floods in the city, or the "Vision of La Sensa," or "San Nicolò del Lido." The chapters on home life, popular beliefs, and popular poetry contain more information of the most intimate kind than any other English book we know of. So, too, the brief essay on "A Gondolier's Bank" reveals a very curious and surprising aptitude, on the part of the Venetian boatmen, for finance. We are inclined to think that they would be astonished to learn that a majority of the American Congress believed it possible to "coin a vacuum." Curious in another way is the account of the *osele*, or medals which the Doge used to strike and present to several thousand noblemen, each of whom had an hereditary right to receive five wild ducks from the Doge at Christmas-time, but who, when water fowl grew scarce, accepted *osele* instead. The final paper is a rhapsody which, were it not so genuine in sentiment and so tasteful in execution, would be as intolerable as some of the "prose pastels" which we have lately seen.

For any one who is acquainted with Mr. Brown's 'History of Venice,' this volume holds a surprise in its graceful style; in his history he was more formal. To the real love-

er of Venice, the person who not merely has been dazzled by her exterior but has felt her deeper charm, we can recommend this book, as being full of that spirit which comes only of long acquaintance and knowledge and sympathy. The volume has many illustrations which serve to recall well-known views or to reveal scenes in every-day life.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, C. C. Travels in a Tree-top. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
A Catalogue of Books relating to the University, Town and County of Cambridge from 1521 to 1893. Macmillan. $3.
Anderson, H. C. Danish Fairy Tales. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 12 cents.
Brooke, S. A. Tennyson: His Art and Relation to Modern Life. Putnams. $2.
Chatelain, Heli. Folk-Tales of Angola. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Cochrane, Alfred. The Kestrel's Nest, and Other Verses. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Dickens, Mary A. A Valiant Ignorance. Macmillan. $1.
Fletcher, J. B., and Carpenter, Prof. G. R. Introduction to Theme-Writing. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. 60 cents.
Glazier, Capt. Willard. Headwaters of the Mississippi. Rand, McNally & Co.
Green, Mrs. J. R. Town Life in the Fifteenth Century. 2 vols. Macmillan. $5.
Hall, W. E. A Treatise on the Foreign Powers and Jurisdiction of the British Crown. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Hamilton, C. D. P. Modern Scientific Whist. Brentanos. $2.
Lang, Andrew. Ban and Arrière Ban: A Rally of Fugitive Rhymes. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Lavisse, Prof. E., and Rambaud, Prof. A. Histoire Générale du IVe Siècle à nos Jours. Tome III. Formation des Grands Etats. 1270—1492. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Mackay, Thomas. A Policy of Free Exchange. Appletons.
Maclay, Edgar S. A History of the United States Navy from 1775 to 1893. Vol. I. Appletons. $3.50.
McCulloch, Hugh, jr. The Quest of Heracles, and Other Poems. Cambridge: Stone & Kimball.
Muir, M. M. P. The Alchemical Essence and the Chemical Element. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
My Two Wives. Cassell. 50 cents.
Pierson, Rev. A. T. The Bible in Private and Public. F. H. Revell Co. 25 cents.
Poems, Sonnets, Songs and Verses. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Rand, A. C. The Uses of Compressed Air. The Republic Press. $1.
Robertson, Rev. Alexander. Fra Paolo Sarpi, the Greatest of the Venetians. Whittaker. $1.50.
Russell, Prof. I. F. Outline Study of Law. L. K. Strouse & Co. $2.25.
Saltus, F. S. The Bayadère, and Other Sonnets. Putnams. $3.
Samuel, Mark. The Amateur Aquarist. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.
Saward, F. E. The Coal Trade, 1894. *Coal Trade Journal.*
Stevens, Prof. W. A., and Burton, Prof. E. D. A Harmony of the Gospels for Historical Study. Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co. $1.50.
The Dissolution: A Projected Drama. G. W. Dillingham. $1.
The Yellow Book: An Illustrated Quarterly. London: Mathews & Lane; Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.50.
Thompson, D. G. Woman's New Opportunity. Longmans, Green & Co. 25 cents.
Weyman, S. J. The Man in Black. Cassell. $1.
Wheatley, H. B. The Diary of Samuel Pepys. Vol. IV. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Wolseley, General Viscount. The Life of John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough. 2 vols. London: Bentley & Son; New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $10.
Wright, Gen. M. J. General Scott. [Great Commanders.] Appletons. $1.50.
Wylie, J. H. History of England under Henry the Fourth. Longmans, Green & Co. Vol. I., $3.50; Vol. II., $5.
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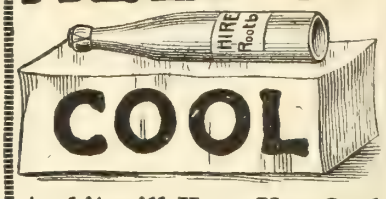

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[*Continued on page vi.*]

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 24, 1894.

The Week.

THE declaration of Congressman Harter against the Gorman-Brice tariff bill will find an echo among Democrats in all parts of the country. As the real character of the bill, as doctored by Gorman and Brice and other protection allies, has been disclosed in one iniquity after another, the disgust of all friends of tariff reform has been deepening, until to-day they are agreed in saying with Mr. Harter that, while there may be a distinction between the present bill and the McKinley act, there is practically no real difference, and that, rather than have this bill become a law, it would be better "to let the McKinley bill, with its enormous taxes and its startling Treasury deficiency, work out its own damnation." The fate of the Democratic party, if it be not hopelessly sealed already, lies in the hands of the Democrats of the House. If they will stand with Mr. Harter for their own bill and unalterably against the Brice-Gorman-McKinley bill, they can force the conference committee to accept it, and can force the Senate also to adopt it. In that way alone can the party save even a shred of its character, and thus have a hope for success in the future.

It is good news, confirmed by the *Wool and Cotton Reporter*, that the Senate finance committee has already been frightened out of its high-protectionist cotton schedule, and has gone back to the House ad-valorem rates This leaves the *Reporter's* leading article in rather ridiculous plight. It was written to show what was the "secret of the success of the Fall River manufacturers" in getting the finance committee to accept their specific schedule. It was, it seems, because they went to Washington and "fought hard" and "labored earnestly with Senator Gorman" and "each member of the committee." Their example was held up by the *Reporter* as a guide to other manufacturers in getting what they wanted, with much wise remark on the proper way to get "arguments" before the committee. But its Washington despatch turned this sweet morsel to ashes in its mouth, and it falls violently upon the committee in this fashion: "And so the shifting, bickering, dickering course of tariff legislation continues." When the dickering gets you your rates, it is "argument" and an "excellent bill" on "correct principles"; but when the dickering goes against you, it is "disgusting and disturbing." We call it good news that the protectionist cotton schedule has been abandoned, because it shows that the finance committee has winced under the public exposure of its trickery in that matter, and also because it shows what the House can do if it stands up stiffly for its own moderate bill as against the Senate surrender.

The report of the debate on Senator Lodge's amendment to declare commercial war on Great Britain in order to compel her to adopt bimetallism has reached us in the *Congressional Record*, Considering that it was led by a Harvard graduate, the successor of Webster and Sumner and Everett, it is enough to make any patriotic American blush. His chief supporters were Stewart of Nevada and Peffer of Kansas. Senator McPherson made a rational speech against the amendment, and asked Lodge whether he meant it to be taken seriously; showing that he does not know Lodge. The whole proceedings read like a discussion in an Oklahoma debating society. Lodge's first and leading argument in favor of his motion was the quarter from which opposition to it came, beginning with that wicked paper, the *Evening Post*, which of course he "never reads," but to which a friend had "called his attention." Then came "the Canadian papers" and the London *Times*. Surely, whatever these oppose must be right. Lodge might have gone further on this line. The whole civilized world is laughing at him. Is not this enough for any ordinary blatherskite or demagogue? The only test of right or expediency possessed by the school of politicians to which Lodge belongs seems to be the disapprobation of decent people. When they find that nearly all good men hate them, and all intelligent men mock them, they slap their knees and cry "Ha, ha!" Their great men, like McKinley in the late canvass, are men who have somehow incurred the detestation of mankind. Lodge was asked whether he really meant to begin a commercial war with England by provoking her to retaliation. He admitted that this would not be unwelcome to him. Retaliatory duties would give free trade "its final blow." He wanted to "strike at English trade," Australian wool, Canadian lumber, and Cape diamonds, and he could not forget that it "was London merchants who begged for the repeal of the Stamp Act." He let out, however, at the close of his remarks, what his "little game" was. What he sought was simply to "put the Democrats in a hole." Listen to this from the "scholar in politics":

> "Politically, I trust that the Democratic party will vote this amendment down. They have paraded in large sections of this country as the only friends of silver. I should enjoy seeing them discuss it with their constituents after defeating this amendment. Politically, I should be delighted to see them kill an amendment which looks to a discrimination against England in the interest of silver."

The sentence of Coxey and two of his associates to imprisonment of twenty days, and the imposition of a fine of five dollars in addition upon Coxey and his "marshal" for "trespassing upon the grass" in the capitol grounds, constitute a fitting outcome for the "great industrial army" movement which was heralded as certain to bring 100,000 men together at Washington. There was an interesting colloquy between the judge and the counsel for Coxey just preceding the sentence. The counsel assured the court that the conviction was asked by those "who are all-powerful in the administration of this government." "Who are they?" asked the judge. "The parties who are dominant, who are all-powerful," replied the counsel. "Who are these myths, these ghosts?" pursued the judge. Then came the awful truth from the reluctant counsel: "Those who are in favor of the gold standard." "If that is so," said the undaunted judge, "they have not reached this court." "On the one side," continued the counsel, "you have the money power, on the other the poor and struggling masses—by which will your honor be influenced?" "By neither," replied the judge; and then he sentenced the representatives of the "struggling masses" to twenty days' imprisonment for violation of the laws, and a low, vulgar fine of $5 for tramping on the grass, as if the great men were no better than ordinary tramps. This marks the end of the most ludicrous movement ever seriously considered by a great people. After a few more struggles with the constabulary and police forces of the far West, the few remaining contingents of the "army" will be scattered or put in jail, and no more will be heard of them.

One of the new "ethical teachers" has been brought up with a turn. The president of Drake University in Des Moines, Ia., Mr. Aylesworth, lost his head over the Coxey business last month. When one of the "industrial armies" under "Gen." Kelly reached the western boundary of the State, he left his institution and visited the camp, professedly to study the "economics" of the movement in a scientific spirit. But he began by authorizing the announcement that he had come in from Omaha, then infected with Coxeyism, because he was "ashamed to hail from Iowa," and he ended his visit by inviting the "General" to address the students of the university when he should reach Des Moines. The army in due course of time reached Des Moines, but Kelly did

not address the students. The reason was that the trustees of the institution had held a meeting and adopted a declaration that the university is not an exponent of any new social scheme, that it believes in the old and homely virtues of industry, economy, and integrity; that its mission is not to engage in crusades for testing theories to correct the ills of society; that the teaching or endorsement of any political dogmas or partisan doctrines is absolutely forbidden, and that any violation of these principles would furnish sufficient cause for the summary dismissal of the offender from the faculty. If the higher institutions of learning are to retain their authority, it will be by such restraint of the flighty Aylesworths at the hands of "level-headed" trustees.

The sanity of the professors who write the editorial pages of the *Yale Review* is in grateful contrast with the much "ethics" which hath made so many college professors mad. In the May number there is a particularly effective refutation of the statement, so commonly accepted, that the present industrial depression is the worst the United States has ever passed through. Testing the matter by the statistics of mercantile failures, in proportion to the total business of the country, and by labor troubles, the conclusion is reached that the panic of 1893 was considerably more disastrous than that of 1884, but somewhat less so than that of 1873-'74, and vastly less so than that of 1857. In regard to the many railroad receiverships which have so powerfully impressed the imaginations of some writers, the article very truthfully remarks that "the crisis has simply served to prevent them [many roads] from keeping up false appearances any longer." Equally just is what is said of labor disturbances: "As yet the strikes of 1894 have not begun to equal those of 1885-'86 in importance, and are far from being as dangerous as those of 1877."

The Populists in the South seem disposed to use the negro vote against the white Democrats. It is many years since colored voters played any part in the politics of Georgia, but they are apparently to have considerable influence this year. At the recent Populist State Convention there was a number of negro delegates, and noticeable deference was shown them, one being made a member of the State executive committee. The regular Democrats are indignant at the third-party men for their inclination to make the negro again a factor in politics, but it is not going to be so easy as it once was to maintain the race line. The repeal of the federal election laws has removed the chief argument which so long held the whites together, and there are signs in all parts of the South that independents will no longer be deterred from seeking the help of the blacks if they see a chance of success in such an alliance.

The expulsion of Powderly from the Knights of Labor calls attention to the downfall of both the man and the organization. Eight years ago both were at the height of their power. The Knights of Labor were precipitating strikes all over the country in the spring of 1886, and the master-workman was treated by the politicians as the head of a new power in the government of the country. During the month of April, Powderly was invited to appear before a House committee, and a member suggested that it might be "well to consider what, in your judgment, can be constitutionally done [in the interest of Labor], and what might be done and ought to be done by amendments to the Constitution." The master-workman thanked the Congressman for the suggestion, and he also promised to comply with the request of another member of the committee that, in considering this question, he would "take into view the complex nature of this government, and the divided responsibility between federal and State legislation, so as to make your suggestions such as the national legislature can duly act upon." Now that the organization has practically collapsed and Powderly himself is expelled by those who cling to the wreck, it is hard to believe that only a few years ago the leader of the Knights of Labor was regarded as one of the "great powers."

The silver plank adopted last week by the Missouri Democratic Convention is represented as a great victory for Bland and his ideas, but an examination of the plank itself does not bear this out. It marks, rather, a complete retreat on Bland's part from the positions which he has stubbornly held for sixteen years. He gives up the ratio of 16 to 1, denies that he is in favor of silver monometallism, and says that silver must be coined only at a ratio which will keep it in circulation concurrently with gold. This is most gentle roaring, and will frighten nobody. It is safe to say that Bland and all his generation will pass away before any such ratio as he now says he is after will be found. In the meantime, and pending the discovery of that undiscoverable thing, he may declaim and demand as much as he pleases. Where his plank is not meaningless mouthing, it is full of concessions and surrenders on his part, which he had to make in order to get it passed at all, just as he was forced to allow the convention to applaud the acts of President Cleveland, the veto of Bland's pet seigniorage bill not excepted. In fact, the attitude of the Missouri Democracy on the currency question is not a whit more threatening, and is really less ludicrous, than that of the Indiana Republicans as shown in their recent convention.

The proposition to amend the Constitution so that United States Senators may be elected by popular vote, has been brought forward again in this Congress, but there does not seem much prospect of its passage, to say nothing of the remoter chances of its ratification by the necessary number of States. There is, however, one way already open for bringing the choice much nearer to the people, by having each party in its State convention name the man whom it will elect in case it secures control of the Legislature. The famous precedent of 1858 in Illinois, when Lincoln and Douglas were thus put forward by the Republicans and Democrats, was imitated by the Democrats in the campaign of 1890, when ex-Gov. Palmer was thus made their candidate for Senator, and Democratic members of the Legislature were instructed to vote for him. The Republicans of Wisconsin also pursued the same course when Senator Spooner's term was approaching its close. But the politicians are by no means agreed as to the wisdom of the policy. The Cook County (Chicago) Republican convention, which always exerts a strong influence upon the State convention, met a few days ago and adopted a resolution declaring its conviction that the nomination of a candidate for Senator would be unwise and inexpedient, and instructing the delegates to oppose such action by every honorable means. The same question came before the Idaho Republican State committee a fortnight ago, and it was found that the members were almost evenly divided as to the advisability of thus designating the choice of the party for United States Senator.

The question of trying the Norwegian liquor system in Massachusetts came before the lower branch of the Legislature on Wednesday week, and the result showed that the "campaign of education" which has been prosecuted during the last month has produced a result. Although the liquor committee had, a few weeks before, made an adverse report, the House, by the overwhelming vote of 132 to 39, adopted a substitute bill permitting cities which have voted for license two successive years to adopt the system if a majority favors its trial. The chief opposition came from the extreme Prohibitionists, who hold that "the commonwealth should not engage in a business which has produced so much woe and misery." But more moderate members, who always vote against license in their towns, favored the system, in the

belief that it would eliminate many of the worst features of liquor-selling as now conducted. The most effective argument seems to have been the undisputed fact that the entire liquor interest of the State is opposed to the measure. The bill has still to pass the Senate.

The system consists in taking the sale of liquor from private individuals and intrusting it to corporations organized under State authority. Its distinguishing feature is that the present motive of the individual dealer to sell the largest possible quantity of liquor is removed, since the company can draw only a small income and the surplus profits must go to the community. Everybody knows that the average saloon-keeper is so anxious to make money that he will break the law by selling after hours, to minors and drunkards, and in other ways; and that he is supported in this policy by his backer, who is often a brewer anxious to swell his output. In the Scandinavian countries the corporation has no incentive to sell large quantities, and its employee not only has nothing to gain but everything to lose by pursuing this policy, since he is paid a regular salary and forfeits his place if he breaks the regulations. There seems to be no doubt that the system has worked well in Sweden and Norway. The consumption of spirits per capita has been reduced more than one-half in each of these countries, while during the same period there has been an increase almost everywhere else in the world. It has been found possible there to keep the companies in good hands and to enforce strict rules. The Massachusetts advocates of the system believe that these results can be duplicated in the United States. A number of well-known citizens, including some earnest prohibitionists, announce their readiness to take stock in such companies if authorized in their towns, and to give careful attention to the supervision of the business.

Mayor Gilroy's appointment of Charles H. Murray as police commissioner is a surprise and a puzzle to all shades of politicians who are not in the secret, but there is not a particle of doubt in any politician's mind that there is a "bargain" or "deal" of some kind behind it. Nobody is so innocent nowadays as to accept the mayor's volunteered explanation that he made the appointment because he believes that the "Republican party, as the minority party of the city, is entitled to representation in the selection of election officers." Nobody, too, accepts without a wink the somewhat ostentatious display of "surprise" by Mr. Murray when the news of the appointment was announced to him. There are no surprises of this kind in Tammany government; no valuable office is given to a Republican politician except after a strictly business understanding as to the uses he will make of it. That the new commissioner is one of the type of Republican politicians whom Tammany has always found useful, his record leaves no doubt. He was for years one of "Jake" Patterson's most active Boys, and he is now endorsed handsomely by such high Boy authorities as "Clarry" Meade, the "wicked Gibbs's" man on the police-justice bench, who says of him, with genuine Boy cordiality: "Charley Murray is a good fellow and will make a first-class commissioner." That means that he will be a commissioner of the "Johnny" McClave type, who votes uniformly with the Tammany commissioners, not because he sympathizes with them politically, but because he approves of their conduct.

We commented recently on the plan of the German bimetallist, Dr. Arendt, to fix the price of silver every year by a popular vote of England, France, Germany, and the United States, and now we learn that the levity of our remarks has given pain to the earnest doctor. He was purely unselfish and benevolent in his intentions, and was, in fact, thinking more of the monetary troubles of France and this country than of those of his own, and he thinks it hard that a philanthropist should be mocked by the subjects, or victims, of his philanthropy. But we are not sinners above all that refuse to let the bimetallists make the world happy, for we have noticed that serious people in France have declined to take Dr. Arendt seriously, and even in his own land he is told by a leading German paper that he is bringing forth the east wind.

Another German professor has come to the help of the bimetallists and the agrarians against the mighty, and devised another plan to put an end to their woes. Prof. Sering is the man, and the plan is the simple one of not paying your debts. He does not state it in that bald way, to be sure, as no man would imagine who knows the awful German intellect and its ability to becloud a simple proposition with great swelling words of vanity. The way the thing is come at is by a long process of reasoning to show that the farmers are the most vital element in the concept of the State, and that therefore any exceptional measures taken in their behalf could be defended as in accordance with the "Staatsraison." After that it is easy to show that what the farmers most need is a scaling down of their mortgages, which Prof. Sering thinks the State should at once set about, just as it took away from the proprietors of feudal estates from a fifth to a third of their possessions, equally on the principle of the *Staatsraison*. We need not now stop to point out how rapidly that principle would spread to others than farmers, if once admitted and applied in their case, and how everybody in debt or distress of any kind would speedily be showing that he was an essential part of the State and a most fit subject for the forgiving of debts. Such learned absurdities, however, will do good as showing that bimetallism, under all its disguises, is simply an elaborate scheme to chouse creditors out of their just dues. A brutally frank English commentator on the London Bimetallic League's meeting summed the whole thing up by asking Mr. Balfour and his kind: "What does all your palavering amount to but a confession that you are insolvent and want to make as good terms as possible?"

The English archbishops and bishops have, apparently, from the worldly point of view, done a very foolish thing in coming out with a manifesto against the disestablishment of the Welsh Church, and have even directed the use of a special prayer against the bill. What is most unfortunate about it is that every one of their arguments—so far as we have received them by the cable—were used against the disestablishment of the Irish Church—probably the most monstrous expression of intolerance the world ever saw. Even that very absurd one, that the poor would lose their rights to seats in the churches, was actually offered to the Irish Catholics. The fact is that the Welsh Church is the church of a small, rich minority, and is supported in the main out of the earnings of the majority, and is detested by them. In our day there is no getting over this fact. Any established church of which it can be said is doomed. The disestablishment of the Irish Church settled the matter as far as Great Britain is concerned. What is still worse for the bishops is that the Irish Church, far from disappearing or sinking into impotence, as was predicted by them, not only has, since its disestablishment, grown in numbers and in religious fervor, but has increased its wealth. Mr. George Russell, a devoted churchman, warmly advocated Welsh disestablishment in the House of Commons in the interest of religion, and supported himself by the Irish example. The bishops doubtless feel that in defending the Irish Church they are defending an outpost of the English Church, and fear that their turn will come next. But they could hardly use better means, in these days, of bringing this about than making themselves conspicuous in defence of causes which the non-religious world think hopelessly bad. In this world the manifesto will not make a single convert. The good churchmen the bishops have with them already. It is the dissenters, and agnostics, and secularists whom they have to fear.

"SCUTTLING" OUT OF SAMOA.

It is very difficult to say anything intelligent about abandoning Samoa, without knowing more than the world generally knows about our reasons for going there. It would probably never have entered into the head of any one in this country to go near the islands if some German traders had not established themselves there early in the seventies, and begun to meddle in native politics, and appropriate native property, and call in German men-of-war when they got into quarrels with the people they were robbing. Their proceedings were so high-handed that they soon came into collision with the American consul, and his complaints had to be noticed. The natives are split up into factions, and are apparently incapable of carrying on a regular government. If this be so, the proper persons to take possession of it or "protect" it are the Australians. It is in their "system." It is nearer to New Zealand than any other civilized state, and is in the direct line of its communication with the rest of the world. But instead of proposing this we entered into a tripartite treaty in 1889 with Germany and England for the establishment of an independent government under foreign advice and assistance. It has not worked well. The islands are still rent by disputes and faction fights, and life and property are reported to be insecure. One of the worst questions arises out of the land titles. The land of the islands has for many years been going steadily to the Germans and other foreign traders, and the natives feel they have been cheated out of it. In fact, if we substitute traders for missionaries, the case of Samoa is very like that of Hawaii. The traders have got the land and the kings are undoubtedly unchaste.

The instructions which Mr. Blaine gave April 11, 1889, to the American representatives at the conference which led to the tripartite treaty, expressed "an anxious desire to secure the Samoans a healthy, prosperous, and civilized life." "We had no desire to dominate," he said, "and every wish to develop a stable and just government." At the same time he made a vigorous protest against any interference with the harbor of Pago-Pago, which we had secured for naval purposes by treaty with the lawful authorities of Samoa, and intimated that the opening of the Nicaragua Canal would make this increasingly important. It is only necessary to say, apropos of this, that Mr. Gresham reports that American commerce with the islands can hardly be said to exist. About six American ships a year visit the place, and the American trade, which amounted to $60,000 in 1889, has not increased. There are no ships, and only a schooner-load of coal, in the harbor of Pago-Pago. In fact, what Mr. Blaine called American interests in the place are no more important than American interests in New Zealand or New Caledonia; and Samoa is between four and five thousand miles from the Nicaragua Canal.

What took us there, except a desire to seem as big and important as Germany, it is difficult to see. The Germans went there when Bismarck was full of his colonization schemes, and when the world seemed too small for the German race. We are sure that the Germans are now pretty tired of the whole business, and would be glad to be out of it. Australia, which is the growing Power in the South Pacific, is pressing Great Britain hard not to renew the treaty, and New Zealand is insisting on her claim to the islands, which lie almost at her door. Senator Morgan says he has no objection to our backing out of the agreement "under conditions," one of which is that we should retain the harbor of Pago-Pago, and that the rights of American citizens should be protected. Of course there can be no objection to our keeping the harbor. In peace it would do nobody any harm. In war, if the enemy had a larger navy than ours, he would take it from us at once. Our ships in time of war, in fact, would hardly venture to go near it. Why we should "keep up our interest in the harbor" because of the Nicaragua Canal, we are unable to see. The canal would benefit all the islands of the Pacific and our Pacific coast, but the special value to the canal of small islands 4,000 miles away we must leave to others to point out. There is no doubt that the Australians will eventually get Samoa and keep it, and we might as well urge now that it be turned over to them. In fact, there could hardly be found a better illustration of the follies of modern diplomacy than the whole Samoan pother.

"PLAYING THE MISSIONARY FOR ALL HE IS WORTH."

The Hawaiian annexationists and their apologists have made so many displays of cynicism, in both politics and morals, that one can hardly be surprised at any fresh exhibition of the kind on their part. A recent confession of their fraudulent methods is so brazen, however, that it surpasses anything which has gone before. The Hawaiian *Gazette* of April 24 has an article on what it calls "The Higher Standpoint," in which it quotes at length from a letter of a gentleman resident in the United States, "who has peculiar facilities for discerning public and private sentiment on important questions." This discerning gentleman writes to the annexationists that their cause made slow headway in this country as long as it was suspected that the revolution was the work of American adventurers, but that "we finally became convinced that there was a deep moral purpose in it, and that this was due largely to the 'missionary' element." Then he concludes:

> "If I were to give you homely advice as a practical politician, I should say, 'Play the missionary for all he is worth.' He may be no better than he ought to be; but so long as our sympathies are enlisted through his share in your affairs, you should use him. Do not undeceive us until you get what you want."

Now, it is astonishing enough that the *Gazette* should print such a letter at all, but it is still more astonishing that it should accept the advice and propose to act on it. It says to "our good friends of the American League" that they must not be "impatient if there is too much missionary in the Government at present." They must remember that "our cause is placed before the American public" at a time when there is much "suspicion on the subject of annexing mongrel communities." With incredible effrontery it adds, "When annexation is secured, then the missionary can be 'played out' and good men 'played in.'"

It is easy to infer from this that the annexationists are not dwelling together as brethren. In fact, the "American League," to which the *Gazette* refers so deprecatingly, is an organization formed for the purpose of ousting the missionaries and taking away the spoils of office which they are now enjoying. This League, moreover, is saying very ugly things about the "too much missionary in the Government." It says that they have been continuing themselves in power for more than fourteen months without a shadow of popular warrant therefor, and that they have now arranged a mockery of a constitutional convention which they can control absolutely, and the results of which they can submit to the popular vote or not, as they see fit. Still more angrily is it saying that they are voting all the while to increase their own salaries and are putting their friends and relatives in office, in utter disregard of the hundreds of American patriots who stand ready to take the places of these greedy missionaries.

Nor can it be denied that the missionary Government is giving some color to these ill-natured charges. It spent a good part of April in passing "an act making special appropriations for salaries and pay-rolls." To guard against unpleasant contingencies, the act was made valid for two years, so that the salaries and pay-rolls will go snugly along till March, 1896, without any further legislative action—which is what we believe the missionaries call the meeting together of nineteen men to vote money out of the public funds for themselves and their dependents. The occasion seemed a fitting one, too, to increase salaries all around, to the common advantage of all concerned in voting them. Indeed, it would appear at this distance that, if the annexationists were playing the missionary for all he is worth for effect on public sentiment in this coun-

try, the missionary himself is playing his chance at the public treasury for all it is worth.

The inspection of the appropriation act, and especially the reading of the debates of the Executive and Advisory Councils upon it, will make this tolerably clear. While the process of raising salaries was going on, one bothersome member raised the point of the propriety of an officer's voting to increase his own salary. He even had the impertinence to read rule 22, which says that "no member shall be permitted to vote on any question where his private right, distinct from public interest, is immediately concerned." But the attorney-general, whose salary had already been raised by the aid of his own vote, promptly ruled that this was plainly a question of public interest, and that therefore every member had a right to vote himself an increase of $1,000 a year. The result is, that the men who now have their hands in the treasury of the 90,000 Hawaiians are paying themselves higher salaries than are received by the corresponding officers of a government representing more than 60,000,000 Americans. The Hawaiian chief justice receives $1,500 a year more than Chief Justice Fuller. Each of the cabinet officers draws $1,000 a year more than the members of our cabinet. The entire act carries an appropriation of $1,648,018, or about one-half the total revenue of the country. Who shall say that even Tammany Hall can teach these missionaries anything about the art of government?

These official records of the provisional Government and the frank confessions of the *Gazette* show what a gigantic bunco game the annexationists have been playing. They have filled the air with cries about a "missionary civilization" being endangered, and about the fruits of sixty years of American philanthropy being imperilled, and all the while the "pals" have been consoling each other by saying: "We know it is tough, boys, but the missionary bait is the only one we can use to catch American gudgeons. Just wait till we get annexation, and you'll see how soon 'good men' will seize all the fat offices. Until then, understand, we are all missionaries."

THE SOFT-COAL STRIKE.

THE fact that there is a general strike among the miners of soft coal throughout the region east of the Mississippi River is well known. The supply of bituminous coal is, in consequence of this strike, becoming so small as to threaten serious results in the near future. But while the general situation is within the knowledge of all, the actual merits of the case and the motives which have influenced the actions of both operators and miners are not so easily ascertained. In the first place, it is to be borne in mind that the Allegheny Mountains divide the soft-coal fields into two regions, which have very little business influence upon each other. The output of Pennsylvania and Maryland, with the greater part of the production of Virginia and West Virginia, seeks markets at tide-water or in the East. With the exception of one field, that of northern Pennsylvania, where, it is said, wages have been reduced in order to secure a larger volume of sales, the miners east of the Alleghenies have no grievance, and do not profess to have any. A miner in southern Pennsylvania or Maryland will earn on an average $700 a year, and could perhaps earn more if he were willing to work steadily throughout the year. This sum, or anything like it, must be considered good wages when we recollect that mining does not call for any especial skill, except to avoid danger. Nevertheless, that danger should be allowed for in estimating proper wages. The miners in the eastern region having no grievance, the strike there is purely sympathetic. By sympathetic is meant that these men were willing to quit work in order to help the cause of their brethren in Ohio.

The Federation of Miners, which has been holding a conference with the employers at Cleveland, was formed as an attempt to consolidate the interests of all the miners in the principal soft-coal fields of the United States. The trouble in the trade which brought on the strike began west of the Alleghenies. In Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, and in the region around Pittsburgh, there has long existed a sort of rough adjustment of mining wages by which the peculiar conditions in each State and the quality of the coal were allowed for in the rate paid per ton. This series of wage differentials, as we may call it, has long been a matter requiring delicate treatment. The adjustment was intended to put the operators of the different fields on a par with each other in the common market of Lake Erie cities and Chicago. Since no standard of output and of volume of sales was possible, these differentials, which include also differences in railway freights, have always proved themselves to be matters of discord and difficult of adjustment. The business depression added greatly to the difficulties of the situation. The capacity for production west of Pittsburgh was larger than the demand for soft coal. Prices of coal were reduced in this way from time to time as competition grew fiercer, until as a last resort the employers in some of the fields reduced the miners' wages. The situation in the Pittsburgh field may be taken as an example. There was an agreement of long standing by which the operators in this field were to pay nine cents per ton more for mining than was paid by their brethren across the river in Ohio. The pressure of competition, and the reduction in wages in the Pittsburgh field, destroyed this differential, thus giving to the Pittsburgh operators an advantage to which the operators of the other States thought they were not entitled. It is said, with how much justice cannot be determined, that the mining companies of Ohio are in secret sympathy with the efforts of the Federation of Miners to restore wages to the old schedule, and thus to put again in force the old differential between the two fields. This will serve as an instance of the complications to which the strike has given rise.

The strike of the miners west of the Alleghenies is thus intended to force the payment of the old rate of wages, which had been reduced because of the fierce competition with which the operating companies fought for the comparatively few orders that were offering. The leaders of the federation recognize that the miners of one State cannot get the old wages if the miners of another State consent to receive less than before, or work to supply the trade demands of the striking section. It was by this argument that these leaders induced the miners of Pennsylvania and Maryland, who had no grievance of their own, to support the Ohio contention by a sympathetic strike, though these two regions interfere but little with each other. Every panic, with its succeeding period of depression, brings about strikes as one of its consequences. Employers of labor strive to effect an adjustment between the lower level of prices and wages. This is usually resisted by the employees, with a consequent disturbance of business until a new adjustment is found. Whether the operators will win the present fight, or the old wages be restored, or whether a compromise is possible, can be decided only by the event. Whatever the immediate outcome, the trade adjustments between the various competing fields, which years of experience have demonstrated to be necessary, must be observed, or future trouble will be inevitable.

GROWING RICH IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE.

WHATEVER be the result of the inquiry which Mr. Goff is carrying on, he is on the right line of investigation. It is the first time in thirty years that any attempt has been made to examine the condition of the police force of this city in the right way. Committees have before now come near doing it, but some mysterious influence always called them off before they reached the true point of attack. The department, from the commissioners down, has for twenty-five years lain under the suspicion of gross corruption. This suspicion has been strengthened by the way the worldly condition of all

the officers has improved during their service, on very moderate salaries. It is a condition of every service in the world, commercial, military, civil, or political, that there shall be nothing mysterious about the manner in which an officer grows rich; that his friends and his superiors shall at least know enough about his affairs to know that honest sources of wealth are, or have been, open to him. Every man who cares for his reputation looks to this for himself. He does not, while holding a position of trust in any one's service, add house to house, and farm to farm, and splendor to splendor without making known to his employer where the money comes from if his salary plainly does not supply it. No bank would allow any officer to indulge in luxuries that his stipend would not warrant without looking into his affairs. The same rule prevails in all armies, and does or ought to prevail in all civil services. No public man ought to get rich in a manner that sets people to wondering over his ways and means. People in fiduciary positions, like judges, have not only to be, but to seem, pure. Public morality cannot be maintained if everybody doubts the integrity of public servants.

It is now fully twenty years since the practice of putting political adventurers, with no pecuniary or social standing, in the Police Commission began. The place is one, owing to its enormous power over the criminal and semi-criminal classes, in which the incumbent needs all the fortification that high character and general public esteem can give him. As a rule, the men who have filled it during the period we have mentioned have had no standing in particular, and have been too obscure to have any public esteem, or to be much ashamed or troubled if suspected of anything discreditable. They have, as a rule, been men to whom money is everything, and reputation a comparatively small matter. Their fortunes, therefore, have always needed close watching, but have never received it. They have come again and again under more or less of a cloud, without bringing on them any inquiry, until Dr. Parkhurst took the matter up and by his charges made inquiry imperative. It ought now to be pushed home. We trust that Mr. Goff and every one concerned will remember that a suspected or accused official has no "private affairs." His affairs become public in every sense of the word as soon as any reputable person says he is a bribe-taker or corruptionist of any description. In such a situation as the police commissioners are now placed in, an honorable man scorns secrecy. He craves an inquiry. He lays everything bare to the world. If death be preferable to dishonor, so, *à fortiori*, is investigation. Alexander Hamilton set a memorable example by accusing himself of a sort of private immorality which the public in his day were least likely to forgive, lest any stain should rest on his character as a public officer.

How necessary official investigation is for the maintenance of public morality, is well illustrated by the way in which Croker has escaped from public life with a large fortune. It is no longer possible to investigate him. Although Mayor Grant swore in 1888 that in 1886 Croker "was very poor indeed," in 1893 he was in possession of a large racing stud, and a stock farm, and a very expensive house in Fifth Avenue. He was during this period in an official, though not a public, position of great influence and authority, and was known to hundreds as the director and controller of all administration in this city, and of all legislation at Albany, and was known to many tens as the receiver of money in return for protection from legislative attacks, or, in other words, from "blackmail." He was, too, engaged in no money-making business or occupation. Horse-racing and horse-raising do not come under these heads, and during the interval between 1887 and 1893 extraordinary depression prevailed in all kinds of business, including real estate. Nevertheless, in the absence of official inquiry, he was able, in his retirement, to procure an apology or defence from a religious paper, the *Outlook*. What is most curious about it is that a precisely similar apology for Tweed, with an ascription of his wealth and that of his associates to "outside operations," appeared in the *Evangelist* in New York within a very short period of the explosion which finally landed him in jail and broke up the ring. One does not need to ascribe such tributes to anything but the genuine kindliness and charitableness of religious editors, combined with the gentle credulity which usually goes with such qualities; but they show the value of official inquiry when the "rise in real estate" is extraordinarily rapid, and does not appear in the sales made at the exchange.

FASHIONABLE POLITICAL ECONOMY.

POLITICAL economy is the study of human nature under certain circumscribed conditions. The true economist is a man who watches and reports the play of the human mind on the phenomena of trade, commerce, and industry. He tells us by observation and sometimes by experiment what men will do, if let alone, when brought face to face with certain facts of human society. He is thus able, as all scientific men ought to be, to predict and to verify his predictions. He is able to tell what will happen if something else happens; what will result, for instance, if this play of the human mind on the phenomena of trade, commerce, and industry is interfered with. His concern, too, is wholly with the human mind of to-day, and not the human mind of 1,000 or 500 years ago; the "historical school" to the contrary notwithstanding. How mines were worked in the middle ages is not his affair; how they are worked to-day is what he has to study. This was the work the old Manchester school did, and the result was that it acquired great influence, and had much effect on legislation and opinion.

But as philanthrōpy spread, the study of the way the human mind plays on industrial phenomena became unpopular. Men arose who said this was a poor occupation; that it had not banished poverty or debt; that the true work of the economist was the study of the way the human mind *ought* to play on industrial phenomena, and generally to make men happy, by legislation. And they fell to denouncing Smith and Ricardo and the Manchester school. These were the "ethical economists," who now have possession of the field, and are filling the world with plans of human regeneration by a freer outlay of human earnings. In the colleges they abound, but the trouble is that the intelligent world generally ridicules their pretension to be called "scientific." The London *Times* says of these professors :

> "Put in plain English, this means that several professors of political economy at the present day hold the pious opinion that an agreement between the leading commercial nations would suffice to fix a ratio between gold and silver. This is not a scientific opinion at all in any proper sense. It is a deduction from facts which are at the disposal of everybody, made by men mostly turned out of one school who have destroyed their own pretensions to authority by turning topsy-turvy the economic 'science' of their immediate predecessors. They have shown us that in this 'science' fashion rules as absolutely as in the science of dressing ladies' hair, and we accordingly set very little store by their opinion, or even by their consensus."

The reason of this contempt is obvious. In leaving the world of fact for the world of opinion, and substituting "ethical concepts" for observation, they put themselves on a level with all the dreamers and speculators of the earth. In the ethical world, one man's ideas are just as good as another's—those of Henry, the dynamiter, who was nothing if not ethical, as those of William Morris, the Christian socialist. All of them are prophets simply, and you can neither refute a prophet nor test him. It may be that, by blowing up all the rich people with bombs, society would be purified, and it may be that, by giving all the capital of the world to the governments, poverty would disappear. Who knows? God is great, and the world is wide.

There has been much speculation as to the causes of this change. Some say it is due to the large number of young professors who have studied

philosophy in the German universities, and thus permeated themselves with a theory of society which made the mere phenomena of trade seem a low, debasing study. Others, like the writer in the London *Times*, say it is due to changes of fashion, such as occur in ladies' hairdressing, and there is something in this, for everybody knows that the philosophy of the day does change as a garment. One day we are all devoted Kantists; the next we are Hegelians, and the next Schopenhauerites and Spencerites. In the field of metaphysics men have from the beginning run to and fro from positivism to transcendentalism, and transcendentalism to positivism, incessantly, and the world has therefore always congratulated itself that it is not ruled by philosophers. Just now, under the excitement of recent economic changes, we are very sentimental, and are weeping over the poor just as the noblemen and gentlemen did before the French Revolution, and it is not wonderful that the economists found economy too dry and cold, and threw themselves into ethics.

In fact, they are using the strictly economic problems now mainly as a means of sharpening their wits. Very few, if any, of the things over which the various "schools" are now disputing have the smallest human interest. The whole value to mankind of the study of political economy lies in its influence on popular opinion. It is not a thing which a scientist can carry into his laboratory and work over in supreme indifference to the rest of the world. Its subject-matter is human affairs, or, as we have said, the play of the human mind on the phenomena of trade and industry. Its object is to get individuals to understand this play and adapt to it their lives and their legislation. If it have not this in view, it is as profitless as the speculations of the schoolmen touching the number of angels that could get into the eye of a needle.

Some attention is called to this point in the notices of the work of some of our American economists in the last number of that wonderfully sane periodical, the *Journal des Économistes*. One author, the editor remarks, disports himself "on the heights of economico-metaphysical speculation." "Reading his work," he says, "is a good intellectual exercise, but has the author contributed to the progress of the science?" Another finds fault with the classical method of estimating the cost of production. The manufacturer says he has spent so much in raw material, so much in wages, so much in wear and tear, therefore his profit must be so much. This is a narrow view. He should have gone back to the cost of the wool in Australia, and followed it through all its changes of place and fashion till it became a frock coat; to which we fear the manufacturer would say, "Shucks!" Another still tries to get at the law of distribution by analyzing and combining the "pain of production" with the "utility of the product" and the "pleasure of consumption"; on which the French economist sensibly remarks "that real life [which is the life the economist has to study] takes no account of these speculations, that political economy can rest only in experience."

This is a state of things greatly to be regretted. Never in any age of the world has there been greater need that economists should speak with a voice of proved and provable authority. Nine-tenths of them are to-day singing "songs of freedom" with socialists and labor agitators, and filling the bellies of the poor with the east wind.

IRISH SURNAMES.

In the newly issued Dublin blue-book, 'Special Report on Surnames in Ireland,' by Robert E. Matheson, which is an appendix to the twenty-ninth annual report on marriages, births, and deaths in Ireland, will be found some very curious and interesting facts in regard to Irish names as now existing in the island. As would be expected, "the great bulk of the most common names are undoubtedly of Celtic origin," but those of English origin are also numerous, and it is a well-recognized fact that the surname is not an infallible clue to the race of the user. Many Irish names have been translated into English. Some Englishmen in past ages took Irish names, and innumerable Irishmen (by which we mean the native Celtic stock) were forced to take English names. The well-known statute of 5 Edw. IV., cap. 3, A. D. 1465, prescribed "that every Irishman that dwells betwixt or among Englishmen in the County of Dublin, Myeth, Vriell and Kildare, shall take to him an English surname of one town, as Sutton, Chester, Trym, Skryne, Corke, Kinsale; or colour, as White, Black, Browne; or arts or science, as Smith or Carpenter; or office, as Cooke, Butler, . . ."

The tables in this Report show the one hundred most prevalent names to be mainly Celtic, with a few remarkable exceptions. The population in 1890 was estimated at 4,717,959 persons, and the estimate of persons bearing any particular name is ascertained by multiplying the births in 1890 of that name by the average birth-rate, which is one for every 44 8-10 persons. The result is that the first three names in order of frequency are Murphy, Kelly, and Sullivan, but the fourth (Walsh) means a Welshman, and the fifth is the ubiquitous Smith. The 26th is Wilson, the 31st Campbell, the 32d Clarke, the 33d Johnston, the 34th Hughes, the 37th Brown, the 42d Thompson, the 50th White. Lower down in the list we find Burns (68), Robinson (73), Cunningham (74), Griffin (75), Ward (78), Reid (81), Graham (82), Higgins (83), King (86), Bell (89), and Scott (90). The last name on this list (Dwyer) represents 8,100 persons, as against 62,600 for the Murphy clan.

One very evident fact is the decadence of the forms in "O" and "Mac," since the relative position is No. 6 for O'Brien, 10 for O'Neill, 13 for McCarthy, 21 for McLaughlin, and 39 for Maguire. Moreover, O'Brien is little over one-half as numerous as Murphy, and O'Neill a little less than one-half. In separate lists we find the names of 135 families with names beginning with "Mac" and about 600 names with "O" prefixed. Of these the most outlandish would appear to be now borne by few persons, since most of them are lacking in the lists of names having five births recorded in 1890, and which are supposed to represent families of 250 persons. Of course some occur in the birth record without the "O" and the "Mac." Only five "Fitz" names are recorded, viz.: Fitzgerald, 330 births, equal to 14,784 population; Fitzpatrick, 249 births, equal to 11,155 population; Fitzsimons, 80 births, equal to 3,584 population; Fitzgibbon, 34 births, equal to 1,523 population; Fitzmaurice, 21 births, equal to 940 population.

As to the predominance of names, it seems that the one hundred principal names embrace about two million of the inhabitants, and an examination of the birth-lists shows that the population is mainly Celtic. The census of 1891 declares 4,581,431 persons born in Ireland, 74,523 in England and Wales, 27,323 in Scotland, and 21,330 abroad, or a total of 4,704,607. Ireland has been a great hive, for centuries throwing off swarms, but receiving comparatively few accessions of other stock. Macaulay states that at the beginning of the seventeenth century the English colony was confined to the seaboard; but, after the terrific inroads under Cromwell, the result was that under James II. the Celtic race was probably somewhat under a million in number, and among them resided about two hundred thousand colonists of Saxon blood. The examination of names to-day indicates that this proportion has been substantially preserved. Ulster is, of course, the stronghold of the invader, and here such names as Smith, Johnston, Stewart, Wilson, Thompson, Campbell, Moore, Bell, Patterson, Bradley, and Brown are numerous, though even here Reilly and Gallagher lead the list.

In this report the author gives little space to the origin and form of names. In 1890 he prepared an official report entitled 'Varieties and Synonymes of Surnames and Christian Names in Ireland,' compiled from the records of births, deaths, and marriages. Nevertheless he collected only the variations of names, and although these are important for local work, they leave us in ignorance of the meaning which underlies the name. Of course every one knows that "Mac" means "son of," and "O" means "descendant," probably "grandson"; "Kil" or "Gil" (*Giolla*), means "servant of," and is usually prefixed to a saint's name, as in Kilbride (servant of St. Bridget), Gilpatrick (servant of St. Patrick), Gilfoyle (servant of St. Paul); though Gilchrist is "servant of Christ," and Gildea is "servant of God." Maol (according to Mr. Matheson) signifies a tonsured person who became the spiritual servant of a saint. Thus Maol-Dubhan, "servant of St. Dubhan," forms Maoldun, anglicised into Muldoon. Other names cited by him are: Carrick, *carraice*, a rock; Clough, *cloch*, a stone; Columb, *colum*, a dove; Cunneen, *coinin*, a rabbit; Darragh, *dair*, an oak; Mullaly, *eala*, a swan; Quilty, *coillte*, woods; Sheedy, *sioda*, silk; McGowan, *gobha*, a smith; Breheny, *breathamh*, a judge; Cleary, *cleireach*, a clerk; Ward, *bhard*, a bard; Colgun, *colg*, a sword; McCraith, *craith*, to weave; Davin, *daimh*, a poet; McIntyre, *Mac-an-t-Saoir*, the son of the workman; Roe, *ruadh*, red; Duff, *dubh*, black; Lauder, *laidir*, strong; Daly, *dall*, blind; McGirr, *gor*, short; Casey, *cathaiseach*, valiant; Dempsey, *diomusach*, arrogant; Brody, *brodach*, proud; Corcoran, *corcurach*, purple or red; Kinnavy, *cnamh*, a bone; McCosh, *cos*, a foot; McClave, *lamh*, the hand.

These few examples, though interesting specimens of names from rank or occupation, from natural objects, from personal qualities, etc., still leave unexplained the great body of surnames.

It remains to consider some composite names, by which we mean such surnames as do not indicate the probable racial derivation of the individual. It is beyond question that the foreign invaders, from the earliest historic times, have abandoned their names for Celtic forms. Thus for De Burgo, or Burke, was used MacWilliam; for De Angulos, or Nangle, MacCostello; De Exeter, MacJordan; Barrett, MacWatten; Staunton, M'Aveeley; De Bermingham, MacFeorais; Fitzsimon, MacRuddery; Poer, MacShere; Butler, MacPierce; Fitzgerald, MacThomas; De Courcy, MacPatrick; Barry, MacAdam. Again, common English names, derived from colors, objects, animals, and the like, were freely translated into Irish. Thus, Bird became Heany; Black, Duff; Gray, Colreavy; White, Banane or Bawn; Little, Begg; Long, Fodha; Fox, Shanahan; Holly, Quinlan; Oaks, Darragh; Rock, Carrick; Waters, Toorish; Monday, McAloon; Boar, McCullagh; Oats, Quirk; Silk, Sheedy; Weir, Corra: and Smith, Gow and McGowan. Of course, the reverse often happened, and the Celt transformed his name into the corresponding English word. We have already cited the statute of A. D. 1465 which compelled the Irishmen within the Pale to take English surnames. All of these causes produce numerous names which are absolutely no indication of race, and in fact the mania of certain Americans of Irish descent to magnify their race now leads them to claim many purely English surnames as Irish, merely on account of the prevalence of the name in Ireland. It is equally mistaken for them to claim many of the Scotch forms in Mac, though more pardonable, since the languages are allied.

The genealogist will find very little satisfaction in such a record of names as this Report gives. The clan system is fatal to all pedigree-making, either among the countless Murphys or O'Briens of Ireland, or the equally numerous MacDonalds or Stewarts or Campbells of Scotland. The line of the chief of the clan is carefully recorded, and that of such of his prominent relatives as have founded territorial families. But, beyond that, the multiplicity of kinsmen bearing the common name destroys all possibility of identification after a very few generations, even where records remain. In Ireland most of the leading clans are still represented; not always, however, by wealthy descendants. Sir Bernard Burke, in his 'Vicissitude of Families,' nearly thirty years ago pointed out the flourishing representatives of M'Murrough, King of Leicester, of the O'Neills, Princes of Clanboy, of the O'Briens, Kings of Thomond, the O'Connors of Connaught, the MacCarthys, and many of the lesser families. Another authority quotes as still existing certain special titles, viz.: Prince of Coolavin, a MacDermott; Knight of Glin, a Fitzgerald; Baron of Killoc, a Russell, The O'Conor Don, etc. On the other hand, there are a few undisputed instances of the representatives of famous families existing in the grade of the poorest peasantry. A generation or two ago, such claims carried a certain reverence from the people; but so thorough has been the work of disaffection caused by emigration, agrarian troubles, and Fenianism, that even in Ireland the ancient affection and respect for "the old blood" has virtually ceased.

Mr. Matheson's two essays should be reprinted in America if the supposed regard of the Irish Celt for his race has any existence. It is noticeable, however, that the Celts born in the United States are not students of the Irish language. While immigrants of other nationalities cling to their native tongue, and insist that their children shall learn it concurrently with the indispensable English, the Irishman seems content to forget the speech of his fathers. The most eloquent Land-Leaguer or Fenian, while raving over the wrongs inflicted upon Erin, would be utterly silenced by the shortest sentence propounded to him upon an American platform in Ireland's venerable language. It is not unreasonable to surmise that the instinct of the race leads our American Celts to perceive that they are doomed to absorption here. The signs all point to this desirable conclusion. The children born here speedily develop strong local attachments, and each generation of course inherits and increases the love of country.

PROTECTIONISM AND SOCIALISM IN ITALY.

ITALY, May, 1894.

A NEW review, entitled *La Riforma Sociale*, and edited by Francesco S. Nitti and Luigi Roux, promises to become one of the best organs for impartial and radical discussion. But these comparatively young writers put forth their theories as new, whereas, were they well read in the writings of the makers of Italy, they would find that, thirty and forty years ago, Cavour, Mazzini, and Cattaneo all agreed on what were and what were not the functions of the State in social matters. In a short, pithy article entitled "The Agrarian Party and its Social Significance," Signor Nitti, after affirming that protectionism is less an economic theory than the consequence of class selfishness, hits the nail on the head when he adds:

"Those agrarians who demand that the State shall secure for their products a remunerative limit—the French *prix de revient*, a fixed price—by the aid of protective and prohibitive tariffs, outrage the principles on which modern society is founded; they claim privileges and monopolies which are the antithesis of liberty and solidarity. Their demand is explainable only by the doctrines of socialism pure and simple. When the workingmen and peasantry demand that the law insure them work and a minimum wage, they are merely claiming for their class what the agrarian party demand for themselves. They are more consistent, and start from higher principles; they speak in the name of the great majority of mankind, whereas the agrarians act in the interests of a very small fraction of a party. The 260 deputies who champion the interests of the agrarian party in the House and clamor for the remunerative limit, cannot honestly oppose the demand of the workingmen for a minimum wage; and, once this is conceded, what are to be the limits of State interference in the economic sphere?"

True, but this is not the first time that it has been proclaimed in Italy. Cavour, who was a wealthy capitalist and a first-class agriculturist, was an out-and-out free-trader on principle. During the tempestuous period of 1848–9 he studied attentively the social as well as the political conditions of European countries, and in the two volumes of his writings, admirably edited by Prof. Domenico Zanichelli, we find (vol. i., p. 360–89) an exhaustive article on the social reforms attempted by the French Revolutionists. In his view, all "these strange systems proposed involve the renunciation of the principles of individual liberty, invest the government of society with unlimited powers, and reduce individuals to automatons." Passing to the proposed organization of labor, he writes:

"With the proclamation that the State ought to provide work for every workingman, the election of a commission to study not only the means for ameliorating the economical conditions of the poorer classes, but also the principles which underlie the relations between employer and employed, between capital and labor, by arbitrary regulations as to the time and wages of labor—by these acts, and still more by imprudent speeches and writings, the Government has manifested its intention to reconstruct on new foundations, as yet hidden, all existing relations of capital and labor in the production of wealth. In a word, the Provisional Government seeks a fresh solution of the great, the tremendous problem of the organization of labor."

After showing what a bad organizer any Government is even of a private industrial undertaking with honest officials and chosen workmen, Cavour asks, What would a national manufactory result in where the worst workmen will offer themselves because they swell the ranks of the unemployed? All his arguments tend to prove that State organization of labor must prove an inevitable failure. As the articles appeared in the *Risorgimento* of March, 1848, and as later failures confirmed the truth of his opinions, they have a certain value for impartial critics.

But socialists will say: Cavour was a capitalist, a conservative, a monarchist; naturally he would be opposed to all attempts to equalize the conditions of rich and poor, of labor and capital. To this we answer that Mazzini, who was neither a capitalist nor a conservative, but a humanitarian and republican, in his 'Systems of Democracy in Europe' came to the same conclusions, and admonished his countrymen to beware of the isms of the sectarians, since only by individual liberty, to be gained for Italy by the ousting of despots and their satellites, and then through the principle of association, could they hope to ameliorate their condition. With regard to individual property, Cavour and Mazzini use the same expressions, and maintain that if that stimulus were removed, men would neither work nor save, invent nor study; that progress would be sapped at its foundations. Where they both agree, again, is on the absurdity, the injustice, the evils of protection; and in this both carry their doctrines to the logical results. "If the State," said Cavour, "has neither the right nor the duty nor the power to regulate the relations between labor and capital, between the employer and the employed, neither can it be rightfully empowered to protect one industry or one class of production by artificial means."

In the second volume of his writings we find (pp. 353–363) a long article on English legislation on the corn trade. Assuming the principle of free trade as accepted, he refutes all the specious arguments of the opportunists and the sophists, and, writing in 1843, concludes:

"When an economic system is proved to be contrary to reason, to justice, to equity; when its ablest defenders are compelled to invoke mere motives of convenience and of opportunity, the system is doomed; shaken at its foundations, the slightest jar will make it totter, the first unusual strain will bring it down from turret to foundation-stone. Hence we may predict in a near future the total abolition of the corn laws, and, as a consequence, the overthrow of all the protective barriers which have for so long a period surrounded the industrial and agricultural operations of Great Britain."

Later we have a long article on the "influence of England's commercial policy on the Continent, and especially in Italy" (vol. iii., pp. 469–532), written for the *Antologia Italiana* in 1847, in which he foresaw that Italy

must gravitate infallibly towards free trade. Curiously, at that time, Cavour, his father and brother, were accused of bringing grain up to famine prices and reducing the people of Turin to starvation. Cavour sent the accusations to the director of the *Antologia*, asking whether "he would care for more articles on the freedom of commerce from the pen of a man who was the object of such accusations." What the editor replied we do not know, but no second article appeared; so the methods of applying free trade in Italy had to wait for their official champion until Cavour openly supported his doctrines in Parliament as Deputy and as Minister. As a Deputy he never allowed an opportunity to pass without deriding the manufacturers and agriculturists who required "protectionist pillows" on which to repose; and in every case where he could not get a duty abolished, he did his utmost to get it reduced. As a Minister, he openly proclaimed his free-trade principles, especially during 1851, when he was Minister of Agriculture and Commerce. His absolute and minute knowledge of all agricultural operations gave him a great advantage over his opponents.

"I quite admit, gentlemen," he said, "that to proprietor-farmers a high rate of duties is seductive, but this is not the case with consumers. If you tax the wine in the low countries, we have more ague and fever; if you tax the bread, the people feed on inferior cereals and we have pellagra and other diseases." Again, he laid great stress on the fact that every protected industry had gone down because the manufacturers, sleeping on their protectionist pillows, no longer brought that keen intelligence, that unceasing activity, which they had exercised to obtain supremacy. Thus he showed how the protection of the various silk industries had lowered the perfection of each, giving the victory to Lyons. Perhaps his most impressive speech is that of April 14, 1851, in answer to the protectionists, headed by Count di Revel, backed up, as he proved, by some of the ultra democrats.

"The ministry," he said, "profess frankly and entirely the principle of free trade, believing that a government in normal times ought never to protect by special duties this or that industry: that it is not its duty, hence it has not the right, to favor one industry more than another; that it has no authority whatsoever for imposing a tax on the generality of consumers for the benefit of special industries. The custom-house exists for the purpose of finance—that is, for the public weal. Frontier duties form a necessary branch of income, but it is neither just nor opportune to impose a tax on the generality of citizens in favor of a special class."

The discussion lasted several days. His opponents, touched in their pockets, brought forward every argument—the ruin of industry, the famine of the workingmen, since no capitalist would risk his money in unprotected industry. Cavour demolished all their arguments by proving that high duties were the cause of smuggling, that many trades were utterly ruined by smugglers, that the high duties were a triple tax on the public, "who pay the smuggler, the Government, and the industrial chief of the protected industry." But his final triumph came through the words spoken on the third day of the discussion—words which Italy would have done well to remember throughout all these intervening years:

"Let us leave the political question entirely aside in order to consider the economic aspect of the case. Humanity tends to the amelioration of the lower classes. Two methods are proposed, and all the systems ideated by the wisest and most audacious intellects are reduced to these two. The first is, Have faith in the principles of liberty, in the principle of free competition, in the free development of the moral and intellectual man, and believe that the extension of these principles will secure greater well-being for all, and especially for the less fortunate classes. This is the doctrine of the political economists; these are the principles professed by the statesmen who are at the head of public affairs in England. Another school professes entirely opposite principles. Its members believe that humanity cannot be helped, that the condition of the working masses cannot be ameliorated, without ever more and more limiting individual actions, without enlarging boundlessly the central action of a moral body, represented by a government which is yet to be created, that shall assume the general concentration of individual forces. This, gentlemen, is the socialistic school. It is useless to deceive ourselves: although this school has arrived at baneful, nay, atrocious deductions, it cannot be denied that its principles contain much that is seductive to generous and elevated minds. Well, the sole means of combating the doctrines of this school, which threatens to invade Europe, is to oppose other principles to theirs. In the economic as in the political and religious field, ideas can be combated only by ideas, principles by principles. Physical repression avails little. For a moment cannons, bayonets may repress theories, may maintain material order, but sooner or later these theories, these ideas, get translated into facts and obtain the victory in the politico-economic order.

"Now, gentlemen, I maintain that the most potent ally of the socialistic school (of course I allude to intellectual alliances) is the protectionist doctrines. They start from absolutely the same principle, and, reduced to their simplest terms, they affirm the right, and hence the duty, of Government to intervene in the distribution and employment of capital, the mission and the power of Government to substitute its own will, supposed to be more enlightened, for the free will of the individual. If this doctrine be admitted as an incontestable truth, I do not see what answer we can make to the working classes who offer the following argument to the Government: You deem it your right and duty to intervene in the distribution of capital, in the regulation of capital. Why, then, do you not intervene for the regulation of the other element of production, viz., wages? Why do you not organize labor? And verily I believe that if you admit the system of protection, you must as a logical consequence admit, if not all, at least a large number of socialistic doctrines. Hence I beg the opponents of the treaties [of navigation and commerce with England and Belgium] who sit on the right, and who are proud, as I am, of the name conservative, to ponder well these considerations, and, once arrived at the conclusion that protectionism is the corner-stone on which socialism builds up its batteries for the destruction of the old social edifice, I trust that they will refuse their vote of support, their authority."

Did space admit, I could quote even more eloquent passages from Cattaneo, who was in correspondence with Cobden from the commencement of his campaign in favor of free trade. Mazzini was none the less opposed to the protectionists and the socialists as they now present their doctrines. But, instead of exalting the principle of free competition carried to its utmost limits, his one ardent desire was to see the Italian workmen become capitalists through coöperation.

But Cavour, Cattaneo, Mazzini are looked on as retrogrades by the modern school, and, as for protection, the demands of the agriculturists are as impudent as they are infamous. With the populations starving and taxed (as far as the very poorest are concerned) beyond all possibility of payment, with poor Sicily still under martial law because the peasants have demanded and do demand that the Government shall revise the outrageous contracts forced on them by the proprietors, here are the farmers and owners of land demanding an additional tax on corn, which already pays five lire per quintal. They pretend that, as the French protected corn until it reached the price of twenty-five lire per quintal, the Italian Government ought to protect them in the same way. Note that they farm so wretchedly that a hectare yields on an average only ten quintals, whereas, I can quote foreign proprietors who make it yield twenty and even thirty quintals. Not content with this demand, in which they are supported by 260 Deputies, to those who say, "But don't you see that you will be none the better off, because the poor people will go back to the inferior cereals?" they make answer, "Oh no! we shall take care of that, because we propose to tax all these—to raise the price of oats to seventy lire per ton, that of maize and beans to twenty-two lire fifty centimes." Yet it is a well known fact that, by so doing, many will be reduced to live on offal. In many provinces the populations never touch wheaten bread save in the hospitals, and there is a proverb in the Basilicata to indicate that so and so is cared for with the utmost tenderness. "Why, he is fed on wheaten bread." The landed proprietors know that this, even without meat, is the cure for pellagra, and yet they insist on their barbarous demands.

Would that I could say with hopefulness that the Government will refuse to accede to the demand. Already the tax on salt is applied, all reduction in the military and naval budgets refused, and "order reigns" in the land. But what will happen when the state of siege is over, it is difficult to foresee. Assuredly, if the starving peasants should present themselves to the Government after the passage of the new corn laws and put the dilemma as put by Cavour, "Now that you have benefited the proprietors and farmers by putting into their pockets money taken by force from the pockets of the very poorest and most numerous class, will you kindly lessen our working hours and compel our employers to fix a minimum wage?" the members of the said Government would find themselves in a cleft stick. The case is so apparent that really I cannot see that much fault can be found with your Coxeyite army, save that they have mistaken the time of day. They should have manifested their desire to the Harrison Administration at the moment of the passage of the McKinley act.

J. W. M.

LONDON'S SUMMER EXHIBITIONS.

London, May 4, 1894.

At the beginning of its career, the New Gallery, inheriting the old Grosvenor traditions, represented a definite school, or movement, in England. Though its managers found place for other painters, it was essentially the headquarters of the Primitives, or followers of the Pre-Raphaelites. But gradually, probably for want of sufficient support from the Primitives themselves, it fell away from its first principles, until this year, in its spring exhibition, it has degenerated into a mere annex of the Royal Academy. It contains little that might not as appropriately be found in Burlington House, and, of this little, nothing is of special note if we except the "Love among the Ruins," by Sir Edward Burne-Jones, a replica in oils of the well-known large water-color which, by such a curious and unaccountable blunder, was virtually destroyed a few months ago. The story must still be remembered by the artist's admirers. As far as one can tell without immediate comparison, the new painting retains the characteristics of the original—the fine blue, recalling Rossetti, in the gown of the female figure; the good decorative intention in the arrangement of the ruins, entangled with

wild roses and brambles; the wan weariness in the lovers' faces; and something of the old weakness and affectation in the technique. It is, in a word, a painting full of some of the finest and some of the worst qualities of the painter, but, with all its drawbacks, immensely more successful than the two new canvases, without a history, which he also exhibits: one, a portrait in which he seems to vie with Henner in the attempted harmony of blacks and whites, but makes the mistake of giving to the living model the corpse-like pallor which the Frenchman has retained for his dead Christ; the other, "Vespertina Quies," a single figure in the manner of earlier Sibyls and Symbols. But for these exceptions, the collection certainly does not call for separate or more detailed criticism.

The chief impression given by the New Gallery, the first to open its doors, was one of mediocrity in the year's work. This has now been confirmed by the display of commonplace at the Royal Academy. But here there are premonitions, as it were, of a coming change or awakening, slight enough, and yet not to be overlooked. As one critic said to me, it is as if the Academy were turning in its sleep. Work that once would have been rejected immediately because of its disregard of academical conventions, has crept in; the canvases of younger men, once disdained or skied, now adorn the line. If the show is not so "modern," or daring, or experimental as to challenge comparison with the Champ-de-Mars (or, I might say, the Champs-Élysées), at least there is a far-away reminiscence of problems that are or have been the concern of exhibitors at the Palais des Beaux-Arts. Impressionism has made some headway; even *pointillisme* is beginning to assert itself. But perhaps the greatest surprise the Academy has to offer is the prominence accorded to Mr. Sargent's decorations for the Boston Public Library, hanging them not merely well, but in much the same position they will occupy eventually in the building for which they are designed.

In every way, Mr. Sargent's is the most important work of the year; important not only as an interesting new departure of an artist who has so distinguished himself in another branch of art, but because of its own vigor and impressiveness. The compositions shown are for a lunette and a section of barrel-vault ceiling (in the entrance hall of the special-library floor), which is to be entirely decorated by Mr. Sargent. The religions of the world give the subject, or motive, he has chosen for the whole design, or series of designs. The one portion now completed represents the oppressed children of Israel in the hand of the heathen — Psalms cvi, 21 *et seq.*, being the text he prints as explanation in the catalogue. The Israelites, naked and martyred, are crouched in the centre of the lunette; on one side is an Assyrian, the figure borrowed from ancient sculptures, and the conventional Assyrian lion; on the other, an Egyptian and the Egyptian ibis; above, emerging from what is apparently an arrangement of wings, is the arm of the Almighty, who regarded the affliction of his people "when he heard their cry." On the ceiling are the idols after whom they strayed; to the right, Astarte, veiled and terrible in her beauty; to the left, a horrible colossal monster, meant, I imagine, for Moloch; between are the signs of the zodiac and strange allegorical figures. It is sufficient to look at the composition to realize the amount of research and study necessary to enable the artist to undertake it. It suggests a patience and a deliberation with which, judging from his usual brilliant and rapid methods, one would scarce have credited Mr. Sargent.

And not only this: he has also adapted his technique to his motive. His treatment is as archaic as his subject; only in the children of Israel is there something of realistic rendering —a realism which, truth to tell, seems to strike a discordant note in the prevailing conventionalism. A barbaric splendor is produced by the gold of the armor and weapons and ornaments, all modelled in high relief and set on the canvas as nimbus and decorations are in old Italian altar-pieces; by the stones and jewels glistening in the robes of Astarte; by the brilliancy of the red wings. No doubt this was the effect Mr. Sargent sought. Otherwise, it would not be easy to account for what seems a want of harmony in the color scheme. The wings are so many unattached spots of red. The filmy blue gauze—a marvel of cleverness in the painting—that envelops Astarte is in almost too violent contrast with the more sombre adornments of Moloch. But, as I say, this probably is intentional; color harmonies not being characteristic of archaic art. Besides, until one sees all the designs together in their proper place—there is a frieze of prophets, I believe, to go under the lunette—it is too soon to speak of the decorative success of the general scheme. The comparatively small fraction exhibited amazes by the knowledge revealed, by the vigor of drawing, and the virility and strength and fearlessness of the composition.

To turn from work done for a definite purpose to the ordinary exhibition *machine* is to make the latter seem more casual and unobserved and "faked" than ever. Indeed, it is the inability of ninety-nine painters out of a hundred to see things for themselves, or to see them intelligently and artistically, that is so deplorable and tedious. Art is not the mere haphazard arrangement which most of the pictures at the Academy are. It is because of its decorative quality, because a beautiful composition has been seen and felt before being intrusted to canvas, that Mr. Edwin A. Abbey's "Fiammetta's Song" stands out in marked relief. On a more ambitious scale than any of the few paintings by him which I can remember, I am not sure that to the size of the canvas he has not, in a measure, sacrificed his effect, and that its charm would not have been strengthened by judicious reduction. But, as it is, there is a stateliness, a dignity in the design that delights. The theme is simple: women in graceful old Florentine costume are grouped about a semicircular terrace, which is backed by tall cypresses and overlooks a broad, beautiful Italian landscape. The decorative intention is as fine and almost as well realized as in Mr. Abbey's late illustrations to the comedies of Shakspere, and shows him to be only less successful as a painter than as an illustrator.

The same quality, with a still more painter-like feeling, is found in Mr. William Stott's "Awakening of the Spirit of the Rose," which is not unlike the Nymph he painted many years since—quite his best-known picture—though a gain in correctness of drawing is more than outbalanced by a loss in poetry of treatment. Another canvas by this artist, "The Faerie Wood," also asserts itself, in the midst of many mediocrities, by its decorative convention and restraint. And it is because Mr. Tuke's "August Blue" is something more than a study of naked boys bathing—though the subject is by no means easy or simple—that it compels attention, where the more ambitious "Sir Percival" from Mr. Hacker's studio and the flaunting nakedness of Prof. Herkomer's model invite the courtesy of neglect.

And so it is with the portraits and landscapes. The bald and brutal presentments of uninteresting, or interesting, people by Academicians, who monopolize too much of the line, are passed over for a quiet, sombre, well-thought-out, and well-balanced portrait of Prof. Blackie, by Sir George Reid, the president of the Scottish Academy, for the work of so young a man as Mr. Charles W. Furse, who, in painting Lord Roberts of Candahar, has borrowed a hint from Velasquez or Sir Joshua, and set his hero against a fine conventionalized landscape; and who, again, in painting a scholar, has, while suggesting character, also made a fine harmony of the gray of the coat and of the books in the bookcase, of the green of the necktie and of the pattern of the chair. Even Mr. Orchardson and Mr. Watts, though the latter has at the New Gallery a portrait of Mr. George Meredith notable for its subject, are less to the fore. The serious work of men like Mr. H. W. B. Davis and Mr. Alfred East and Mr. David Murray; the earnest endeavor to solve a difficult problem—a brilliant sunset after the rain—of a man like Mr. Alfred Parsons, are far eclipsed by a quiet, unpretending landscape, "Returning from Pasture," by Mr. T. Austen Brown, a painter not very widely known. The reason of his success is that he has attempted not only to grapple with a technical difficulty, not only to record a bare transcript of nature, but to make a picture of the simple material chosen—a few cows, a girl driving them, a row of trees, a bit of blue sky, and a glimpse of a near village. Here is new proof, were it wanted, that subject in art is nothing; treatment, everything. It probably will be noted that among the few exhibitors worth special mention members of the Academy do not figure largely. But of them the only other conspicuous fact to be recorded is that Sir John E. Millais is absent altogether. The president's rigid, classic conventions are more formal and academic even than usual. Mr. Alma-Tadema has but an indifferent portrait and a small arrangement of marble. Mr. Fildes has deserted sentiment for royalty, and painted a characterless portrait of the Princess of Wales. And thus I might go through the list of painters.

With the sculptors, however, it is another matter. Here, Mr. Frampton, with his bas-reliefs, and Mr. Onslow Ford, with his portrait busts, give distinction to the galleries. And, above all, there is Mr. Alfred Gilbert, who is represented by a sketch model of the tomb of the late Duke of Clarence. It is an exquisite piece of work. An alabaster sarcophagus is enclosed by an elaborate metal railing, decorated with angels and arabesques; above, a kneeling angel with silver wings holds a golden crown over the extended figure of the dead prince. The model is as lovely and refined and rich as many an old reliquary or casket. But a doubt rises in the mind as to whether the design will be as effective on the large scale ultimately intended. As time goes on, one becomes more and more convinced that Mr. Gilbert is less the sculptor than the goldsmith—the modern Cellini. However, without seeing the tomb itself, it would be impossible to pronounce upon its merits. N. N.

MARSHAL OUDINOT.—II.

PARIS, May 8, 1894.

MME. OUDINOT was called all her life "the lady who made the campaign of Russia." We left her retreating with her severely wounded

husband, attended by a small escort of cuirassiers, which diminished at each station. On the ascent of the hill of Wilna, she says:

"I saw motionless soldiers all along the road; it had been impossible for them to go further; overtaken by the cold, they had fallen, and, when they had fallen, they could not rise again. Pools of blood were seen on the snow. Nothing has ever effaced from my memory the terrible impression which I received from this ascent through a field of dead. Our horses, rough shod for the ice, mounted vigorously this steep hill, and we soon left the painful spectacle behind us. The marshal maintained a profound silence; he felt instinctively all that I suffered from what was under my eyes, but he himself suffered too much to ask questions. We were now going like the wind over the plateau which we had crossed with so much difficulty a few weeks before; but the snow had made the roads very even."

After a most difficult journey, the marshal entered Berlin on January 1. The King, who was at Potsdam, made kind inquiries after the marshal's health, through Prince Radziwill, his brother-in-law. Victor Oudinot joined his father in Berlin. He had been travelling from Wilna with a friend, and reported that they had saved each other's noses by throwing snow in the face, after the Russian fashion, when their noses were beginning to grow unnaturally pale and to freeze. The marshal stayed a little time in Leipzig and in Mayence, and finally returned to Bar, where he slowly recovered. He left for Paris in March, in order to offer his services to the Emperor for a new campaign, which was imminent. The young and heroic duchess was presented to the Emperor, to Marie Louise, to the mother of Napoleon, to the Empress Josephine, and to Queen Hortense. The presentation to Napoleon was characteristic.

"I followed the Duchess of Bassano, who soon found herself alone with Napoleon and me. He took a step toward us, and, making a gesture of the head rather than a bow, he said; 'Good-morning, Madame the Duchess of Bassano.' Then, turning towards me, with the same toss of the head, without changing his expression or the inflection of his voice, he said: 'Good-morning, Madame the Duchess of Reggio.' I bowed, for I had now recovered my spirits. After a moment's silence the Emperor asked for news of the marshal, and then said: 'You are a long-married woman, madame.' A fine smile followed these words and lighted his face. I answered that I had, in fact, already been married sixteen months, but that circumstances had prevented my presentation. 'I know,' said the Emperor seriously, with a shade of interest, 'you made a long journey, and,' he added with well-marked interest, 'you were very cold.' I bowed; he stopped; then asked, 'You are from Champaign?' After my answer, he asked again for news of my husband, and, turning towards my companion, spoke, I think, of her children; then bowed us out together."

This was the only interview Mme. de Reggio ever had with the Emperor. It was thought that she had been received with favor. She says that she saw for ever that "dark blue eye which it was as impossible to fix as it is to fix the sun." The marshal received the command of the Twelfth Corps of the Grand Armée, and the young duchess returned to Bar. Oudinot played his part at Lützen, at Bautzen, at Gross-Beeren; he covered the rear-guard during the retreat, and, stricken with typhus, had to return to his country-place of Jeand'heurs. Soon afterwards France was invaded and the marshal retired to Paris with his wife; he received the command of a portion of the Guard, and left with it for Vitry. There his father and many of his relations and friends lived still. Oudinot was wounded again during the campaign of France, but only slightly, and had not to leave his command. The end of the Empire was approaching. The Duchess of Reggio gives a graphic account of the departure of Marie Louise for the Loire. She was at Versailles, and, on the eve of the occupation of Paris by the Allies, she heard a great noise—

"an incessant and confused noise, which lasted all night, and announced the passage of a great number of men, horses, and carriages. The light of day shone upon the most astonishing spectacle which could well be seen. It kept us motionless at our windows. What was passing before us, my children, . . . was the Empire, the Empire, which fled with all its pomp and splendor; the ministers, in their carriages drawn by six horses, taking with them, with their portfolios, wives, children, jewels, liveries, the whole Council of State, with its archives, the crown jewels, the administrations. And these remains of power and of magnificence were mixed up on the road with poor families who had put on a cart all that they could take from their houses, for fear of plunder! At daybreak the roar of cannon had been heard."

King Joseph, who had been left in Paris for its eventual defence, signed a proclamation ending with these words, "Parisians, I remain with you," and left almost immediately afterwards. At Rambouillet, Mme. Oudinot saw Queen Hortense, who was in flight and had just heard that the Neuilly bridge had been blown up. She was thus separated from her mother, the Empress Josephine, who remained alone at Malmaison. Marshal Oudinot did not wait long to recognize the Bourbons; he felt free after the abdication at Fontainebleau, and he was sent by the Provisional Government to meet the Comte d'Artois. "The marshal," says the duchess, "returned captivated by the charm of a prince whom he served sincerely, not only in action, but by his experience in French affairs." The Comte d'Artois at once appointed him minister of state and gave him a place in the cabinet. The Duchess of Reggio, who belonged to a Legitimist family, has nothing to say about this sudden conversion of her husband, and finds it very natural. In revolutionary times, the most extraordinary things seem almost natural. In a visit which Mme. de Reggio, who had returned to Paris, thought necessary to make to the Empress Josephine, at Malmaison, whom did she meet but Mme. de Staël!

"The personal enemy of the Emperor probably thought it in good taste to put in an appearance at Malmaison. . . . When the Empress and Mme. de Staël appeared, we found that the former seemed very agitated. Mme. de Staël crossed the drawing-room rapidly, bowed, and left. I must tell you that, besides Mme. de Ste.-Aulaire and myself, a third person had been introduced, who was no less than Mme. Walewska, the Polish lady to whom the Emperor was so tenderly attached during the campaign of 1806. These two women, one who had hated Napoleon, the other who perhaps had loved him too much, drawn by the same impulse towards the repudiated wife—was it not a curious contrast and meeting? But the strangeness and the force of events explained everything. Josephine, however, did not leave us time to meditate; after having answered the farewell bow of Mme. de Staël, she came towards the mantelpiece, where we were all three waiting in silence, and, without any preamble, said: 'I am come from a very painful meeting. Would you believe that, among other questions which Mme. de Staël thought fit to put to me, she asked if I still loved the Emperor? She wished to analyze my state of mind in the presence of this great misfortune. I, who never ceased to love the Emperor while he was happy, would I change now?'"

The Empress Josephine was already ill. She died a week afterwards.

The Emperor Alexander paid a visit to Mme. de Reggio. The marshal had assembled all his staff and his relations for this visit.

"General Pajol had his arm in a sling; Victor Oudinot walked with crutches; M. de Xaintrailles was bent double from the effect of a lance wound; M. Jacqueminot was limping, as well as General Pacthod. This was a striking group and produced its effect. With an exquisite good grace, which never left him, the Emperor offered me his hand to lead me from the head of the stairs to the drawing-room, and all the gentlemen followed us. They formed a circle and the marshal introduced them in succession. To each were addressed some questions. 'Gentlemen,' said the Emperor at the end, 'this war has indeed maltreated you; but if on our side we acquired some ability, to whom did we owe it? Yes, the terrible lessons which you gave us at last taught us something.'"

The Duchess of Reggio was very happy in seeing France at peace and the Bourbons on the throne, but her contentment did not last long. When Napoleon left Elba and came back to France, the marshal was at Metz; Marshal Soult, then minister of war, had given him a command in the east, which placed under his orders the garrisons of Metz and Nancy. The marshal gave a great ball and the duchess was dressing when her husband entered her room, and announced to her that a courier had just arrived from the minister of war: Napoleon was marching on Paris. "You will dance, my dear," said the marshal, "you will seem very quiet, you will know nothing and allow nobody about you to know anything." During the dance, which was very animated, the marshal held a council with the generals and colonels of the garrison. He resolved to march on Toul and Langres, in order to oppose the progress of the Emperor. Before starting, he received a message from Marshal Ney, who asked him to coöperate with him against Napoleon. The day after he wrote this letter, Ney changed his mind, and united his troops with those of the Emperor. Already emissaries of Napoleon had been sent to all the garrisons of the east. At Toul, Oudinot resolved to hold a review, to speak to the soldiers, and to end his speech with "Vive le Roi!" The night before, he summoned to his hôtel all the regimental officers from sub-lieutenant to colonel.

"They formed a circle, with the marshal in the middle. He allowed them to seat themselves in silence, and then said to them: 'Gentlemen, in the present circumstances, I make an appeal to your loyalty; we wear the white cockade; to-morrow I shall pass you in review before my departure. How will you and your soldiers answer my cry, "Vive le Roi!"?'

"A dead silence followed these words. Nothing more dramatic ever happened in my presence. Concealed behind a curtain, I was a forced witness of this scene. Two chandeliers gave light enough to prevent anything being lost; but their pale reflections on the sombre and warlike faces produced an indescribable effect. This silence, expressive as it was, could not be accepted by the marshal as an answer. I saw the storm gathering; each minute seemed a century. . . . At last, these words were uttered by the marshal: 'Well, gentlemen?' Then a young officer of inferior rank came forward and said: 'Yes, Monsieur le Maréchal, we must answer you, and nobody here will deny what I am going to say. To your cry of "Vive le Roi!" the troops and we ourselves shall answer, "Vive l'Empereur!"' 'I thank you sir,' said the marshal. He bowed, and they all left the room without saying another word."

The marshal returned to Metz and proclaimed a state of siege. When he heard of the arrival of Napoleon in Paris and the flight of Louis XVIII., he sent in his resignation to the minister of war, Marshal Davout, his old friend. Napoleon felt displeased with Oudinot, and ordered him to retire to his country-place in Lorraine. A few days afterwards he called him to Paris and was very friendly to him, but Oudinot received no command.

Here ends what I may call the heroic part of the memoirs of the Duchess of Reggio. It is difficult to imagine a greater contrast than that between the first and the second part of the volume. The duchess herself seems changed; she is no longer the young woman who shares the retreat from Russia, who admires the hero in her husband. After the second restoration, Oudinot is in high favor, and she becomes herself a lady-in-waiting to the Duchesse de Berry. What she writes about this new period is too much in the style of the court circular. After the Revolution of 1830, she remained in voluntary retirement for many years. Oudinot was less obstinate, and accepted the new régime; he became the Governor of the Invalides, and in that capacity received the remains of his Emperor, brought from Saint-Helena by the Prince de Joinville.

The Duke of Reggio died on September 13, 1847, at the age of eighty-one, at the Invalides, and the Duchess at Bar-le-Duc in the month of May, 1868.

Correspondence.

THE DRED SCOTT CASE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: May I ask the privilege of making two comments upon your review of Mr. Brinton Coxe's invaluable book? First, in your remarks on Judge Bancroft Davis's omission of the Dred Scott case from his "Table of cases in which statutes have been held to be repugnant to the Constitution," you say: "Why it was omitted seems inexplicable. The omission remained unobserved by all eyes until those of Mr. Coxe discerned it." I think there must have been many who observed it, but who concluded, as I did, that Judge Davis omitted it deliberately, on the ground that, after the Court had declared that it had not jurisdiction over the case of Dred Scott, whatever it said further was *obiter dictum*. At least this seems a plausible explanation.

Secondly, it seems due to President Scott to draw renewed attention to his discovery of the New Jersey case of Holmes and Ketcham vs. Walton. This case, decided in 1779, is anterior to Trevett vs. Weeden and the other cases of the Revolutionary period mentioned by Mr. Coxe. It was made known in 1886 (Papers of the American Historical Association, ii., 45), but seems to have escaped Mr. Coxe's extremely careful search.—I am, sir,

Respectfully yours,
J. Franklin Jameson.

Brown University, May 15, 1894.

[The late Mr. Justice Miller continued the work of condensing the reports of the Supreme Court which Mr. Justice Curtis had brought down to 17 Howard. In the second volume of his 'Decisions of the Supreme Court' is the case of Dred Scott, and the following is his concluding syllabus of the decision:

"(9.) Therefore, the act of Congress of 1821, prohibiting slavery in the territory ceded by France, north of thirty-six degrees thirty minutes north latitude, is unconstitutional and void."

With Chief Justice Taney declaring, in what purports to be the opinion of the Court, "Upon these considerations, it is the opinion of the Court that the act of Congress which prohibited the citizen from holding and owning property of this kind in the territory of the United States north of the line therein mentioned, *is not warranted by the Constitution and is therefore void*," and with so eminent a jurist and constitutional scholar as Judge Miller giving as his analysis of the decision the conclusion that it adjudged the statute to be "unconstitutional and void," we must reiterate that the deliberate omission of the case from the table of cases seems inexplicable. The only rational explanation is that the omission was one of those extraordinary oversights which sometimes befall the most careful and industrious of men; and such a man Mr. Bancroft Davis unquestionably is. If it were a less famous case, one might say that Mr. Davis had been misled by the reporters. The head-notes of Howard cover three pages and refer to the statute but once, and then in a vague way, speaking of "an exercise of authority over private property which is not warranted by the Constitution." The first volume of Miller purports to include 19 Howard, but omits the case of Dred Scott; the second volume purports to give only 20 and 21 Howard, but contains the case of Dred Scott, which is in 19 Howard. Mr. Davis, however, is himself too good a constitutional scholar to be misled by such inaccuracies.

As to Holmes vs. Walton, it was not Mr. Coxe who overlooked the case, but our correspondent who has overlooked what Mr. Coxe says about it. He devotes half a page to it (p. 222), and concedes that the date of the decision was with him largely a matter of conjecture, though he inclined to the conclusion that it was in the latter part of 1786 or the earlier part of 1787. Whether it was before or after Trevett vs. Weeden was not the subject of his investigation. All that he cared to determine was that the case was one of those "alluded to by Gerry on June 6, 1787." It is proper, however, to add that Mr. Coxe, apparently, was ignorant of President Scott's researches, and that he, apparently, relied on Mr. Meigs's list of cases published in 1885.—Ed. Nation.]

CONGRESS AND SPELLING-REFORM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Congress of the United States is quite generally recognized as a perpetual source of danger in many other directions, but one might have supposed that the English language, at least, was safe from any worse fate at its hands than to be used for the concealment of thought (or its absence) and for the killing of time. It is certainly to be hoped that the common sense of the country will warn it away from any attempt at the reformation of English spelling.

You have pointed out some of the absurdities of such a course, but the subject was not exhausted. If it be the duty of Congress to economize by amputating a silent *e*, how could it logically stop short of lopping off the useless monosyllable at the end of the famous Congressional "Where are we *at?*" and this would at once drag the whole subject into the realm of party politics. Some future Senator might introduce into his time-killing speech on some amendment to a proposed duty on dandelion roots the whole of Logan's four-days' speech on the Fitz-John Porter case. This would naturally lead some language-reform Democrat to move for a revision of Logan's syntax, in order to keep down the appropriation for public printing, and the result would be worse than the fight over the expunging of anti-Jackson resolutions.

But, seriously, cannot the spelling-reform enthusiasts see the practical difficulties in the way of a wholesale conventional change in English spelling, whether such a change be in itself desirable or not? Do they not know that the vast majority, for a whole generation at least, would go right on in the old fashion, entirely regardless of the precepts and practices of the reformers, or even of the Government Printing-Office? Do they not realize that the poor children whose difficulties with the present system have reached such an acute stage (in the minds of the reformers) would be plunged into confusion worse confounded by the continual appearance of different spellings for hundreds of words in common use? Could anything result from such a condition except a period of anarchy, with no recognized standard, every man spelling as might seem "right in his own eyes"? Has the fact been considered that by the time when the new method should (if ever) drive its opponents from the field, it would be strictly phonetic no longer? Or is it supposed that such a phonetic strait-jacket can be devised as to paralyze the vital organs of phonetic evolution by its grasp, and entail upon our descendants for all time the privilege of using the petrified linguistic corpse of the nineteenth century?

If those who are making war on silent letters through the Chandler resolution will but devote their energies to replacing the present Senate by a body of men who can comprehend the significance of the letters which are not silent in such words as *duty* and *patriotism*, the children of the land will get along well enough with their old spelling-books.

W. H. Johnson.

AN APPARENTLY UNNOTICED SENSE OF *HARD*.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Now that the study of the English literature of earlier days is so industriously prosecuted, the discussion, in a miscellaneous journal like the *Nation*, of an obsolete word, or use of a word, can hardly be considered as misplaced. Without further preamble, then, commentation being postponed for a few minutes, I produce some quotations illustrative of a signification of the adjective *hard* which has long passed away:

"And yit wee weren cast doun and beten down, many tymes, to the *hard* erthe be wyndes, and thondres, and tempestes." Sir John Maundeville, *Voiage and Travaile* (about 1400), p. 284 (ed. 1839).

"Eyther smote other, soo that hors & man wente to the erthe; and so they lay long astonyed, & their hors knees brast to the *hard* bone." Sir Thomas Malory, *Kyng Arthur* (1470-85), vol. i., p. 20 (ed. 1817).

"And the Bishop of Norwich and his councell let brenne thes shippis, with all the pelage, in the same haven, all in to *hard* asshes." Anon., *Cronicles of Englōde*, etc. (1483), sig. D 6r.

"They persed the flemynges cotes of mayle into ye *harde* bones." Lord Berners, Trans. of

Froissart (1523), vol. i., p. 738 (ed. 1812), vol. i., p. 738.

"In good fayth, syr, quod he, I am, in thys mater, euen at the *harde* wall. and se not how to go ferther." Sir Thomas More, *A Dyaloge* (1529), fol. lv., *v.*

"To fret out the rotten flesh, even to the *hard* quick, that it smart again." William Tyndale (about 1530), *Expositions and Notes* (1849), p. 68.

"His weapon entred through bothe wode and stone, and into the erth, to the *hard* head." Lord Berners, Trans. of *Arthur of Lytle Brytayne* (about 1530), p. 142 (ed. 1814).

"But than Arthur put his sword Clarence into his body up to the *harde* crosse." *Id.*, *ibid.*, p. 173.

"He was cloven to the *hard*-tethe, and so he fell downe dead." *Id.*, *ibid.*, p. 322.

"Cicero mocked hir to the *harde* teeth." Rev. N. Udall, Trans. of *Apophthegmes of Erasmus* (1542), fol. 319*v*.

"All the horsses [were] trapped in sondrie couloured ueluettes to the *heard* pauement." Richard Grafton, *Chronicle* (1543), fol. 146.

"Vp to the pappe his string did he pull, his shaft to the *harde* yron." Roger Ascham, *Toxophilus* (1545), p. 134 (ed. 1868).

"Vp is he to the *harde* eares in loue." Rev. N. Udall, *Roister Doister* (before 1553), Act I., Scene I.

"The sorie foxe, being al alone, was eaten vp almoste to the *harde* bone." Sir Thomas Wilson, *The Arte of Rhetorike* (1553), fol. 101 *v.* (ed. 1567).

"And therewithall he thruste the rapier into him, to the *hard* hiltes." William Painter, *The Palace of Pleasure* (1566–67), vol. i., p. 291 (ed. 1813).

"He commanded to strike of all the Rhodians heads, and to raise the city to the *hard* foundations." "The temples wil fall down to the *hard* foundations." Sir Thomas North, Trans. of *Guevara's Diall of Princes* (1568), fol. 359, 412. These passages are not in the edition of 1557, the first.

"Our auncestours . . . pursued vertue at the *harde* heeles, and shunned vyce as a rocke, for feare of shipwracke." Rev. Stephen Gosson, *The Schoole of Abuse* (1579), p. 26 (ed. 1868).

"I . . . wore my wits to the *hard* stumpes." "A Tree . . . though it be often felled to the *hard* roote," etc. "When my Lady came, and saw me . . . wasted to the *harde* bones," etc. John Lyly, *Euphues and his England* (1580), in *Euphues*, etc. (ed. 1868), pp. 272, 291, 297.

"The earth was cast round about him up to the *hard* chin." Anon. (1587), in *Raphael Holinshed's Chronicles* (ed. 1807–8), vol. vi., p. 331.

"But I leave it [pease-pottage] to rusticks, who have stomacks like Ostriges, that can digest *hard* yron." Thomas Cogan, *The Haven of Health* (1589), p, 33 (ed. 1636).

"Following the Argonautes at the *heard* heeles." G. W[oodcocke], Trans. of *Hist. of Ivstine* (1606), fol. 109 *v.*

"Up to the *hard* eares." R. C., *A World of Wonders* (1607), p. 149. The French original, by Henri Estienne, has simply "jusque aux oreilles."

"As for broken heads to the *hard* scalpe, were no dainty." Anon., *The Historie of Frier Rush* (1620), p. 14 (ed. 1828). By a common outworn idiom, *they* is here omitted before "were." *Scalpe* here has the old sense of "skull."

It must have been before the evolution of nightshirts that a man was first said—as even till past the middle of the last century he was sometimes said—"to be in naked bed" and "to go into his naked bed," instead of "to be in bed naked" and "to go to his bed naked." These extinct phrases are to be accounted instances of the absurdity which rhetoricians have dignified by the name of hypallage.

As to "they followed him at the hard heels," however, the like of which expression is twice seen above, we have, in it, I apprehend, nothing of a similar description. I mean that "they followed him at the hard heels" was not intended as a transposition, involving an adjective substituted for an adverb, of "they followed him hard at the heels," that is, as we should now put it, "they followed hard at his heels."

With regard to the other quotations which have been brought forward, it is patent that, for the most part, their *hard*, if thrown back, adverbialized, so as immediately to precede *to*, *into*, *at*, should, in reason, have, unprecedentedly, the sense of "quite," or that of "as far as," much rather than that of "close," "near." In all my quotations, too, there is, pretty clearly, one and the same peculiarity about their *hard*. How is it to be explained?

Ever since English arose, the *ground* or *earth* has, of course, had, equally with *cold*, *hard*, as a common epithet. But why may we not surmise that it was, of old, often called *hard* when there was no appropriate occasion for its being thus distinguished? "The *hard* ground" would, under such circumstances, convey no other idea than that of "the *ground*," or, with the stress worded, "the *very* ground"; and *hard*, being frequently taken, in one connexion, as an equivalent of "very," may easily have come to be taken, in other connexions, as likewise its equivalent. On this view, *hard*, as applied to *ashes*, *quick*, *ears*, *chin*, and *heels*, presents no difficulty. Helpful, doubtless, towards originating "*hard* asshes," "*hard* quick," and the rest, were, after "*hard* ground," such combinations as "*hard* bone," "*harde* wall," "*hard* foundations," in which the epithet not seldom seems to have been merely emphatic.

"Who, *almost*, was there?" As in this question, *almost* was long a synonym of *indeed*, *verily*. And now it has been made out, I think, that *hard* was formerly a synonym of *very*.

Two unusual locutions, in which *hard* has respect to severity or rigour, are, in conclusion, here exemplified:

"The Souldiers of Augustus . . . desired leave to be excused from the service, not because they would be so, indeed, but because they meant *to hold Augustus* (as the saying is) *to hard meat*, and make him grant what they demanded, for feare they should leave him." Sir Richard Baker, Trans. of *Malvezzi's Discovrses upon Cornelius Tacitus* (1642), p. 459.

"But what I answer I would be understood to direct to the Atheist and the Infidel, permitting them that already believe the substance, to vary their phansies with what circumstances they please. But, for these others, *I must hold them to hard meat*, and cut my skirts as short as I can, that they sit not upon them." Rev. Dr. Henry More, *The Grand Mystery of Godliness* (1660), p. 223.

"I asked Jack *at the hard*; and at first he could tell me nothing about it." Sir G. W. Dasent, *Half a Life* (1874), vol. i., p. 275.

F. H.

Marlesford, England, March 9, 1894.

Notes.

James Pott & Co. publish immediately Dr. Henry Drummond's 'Lowell Lectures on the Ascent of Man'—"a study in embryos, in rudiments, in installations." The two summary closing lectures on the Ascent of Mankind are not reproduced.

'A Suburban Pastoral, and Other Tales,' by Prof. Henry A. Beers of Yale, is on the eve of publication by Henry Holt & Co.

'General Washington,' by Gen. Bradley T. Johnson, in the Great Commanders series; and the following novels, 'Cleopatra,' by Dr. George Ebers, 'A Daughter of To-day,' by Mrs. Everard Cotes, and 'Mary Fenwick's Daughter,' by Beatrice Whitby, are in the press of D. Appleton & Co.

Ginn & Co. will issue, this month, 'The Inflections and Syntax of Malory's Morte d'Arthur,' by Charles Sears Baldwin.

Hachette & Cie., Paris (New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer), have begun to publish in instalments Maspero's 'Histoire Ancienne des Peuples de l'Orient,' a work bearing the same title as that of 1875 by the same author, but otherwise wholly new in text and illustrations. The work will form three volumes, or 150 *livraisons*.

Mayer & Müller, Berlin, have undertaken to publish in chronological order the complete mathematical works of Karl Weierstrass, in eight volumes, beginning with his 'Development of Elliptic Functions' in 1841. The second part (five volumes) will embrace the majority of the lectures delivered by Weierstrass at the University of Berlin.

We come to a fresh season of reprints, and at the very top we must name the delightful two-volume edition of the Letters of Edward FitzGerald (Macmillan). Mr. Wright has added some forty to the selection already published in connection with FitzGerald's Writings, and not one of them would we miss; indeed, taken by themselves they illustrate FitzGerald's character at almost every point—his friendships, human interest, critical taste, literary occupation, and inimitable epistolary style. Here we have the dawn of his Omar quatrains, more depreciation of Tennyson's "Princess," more of his Cromwell researches on behalf of Carlyle, another letter from Carlyle himself, more verbal discussion (damning "individual") in a letter to Fitzedward Hall, and a rare boyish reminiscence of country folk shooting at an effigy of Bonaparte by way of celebrating Waterloo. Then we see him longing to revive 'Clarissa Harlowe' with the aid of scissors, and suggesting that Sir Thomas Browne's style would befit a translation of 'Don Quixote.' These are but samples. The bulk of a book, FitzGerald says, destroys his pleasure in the use of it; and this has been borne in mind for the present handy edition. Prof. Wright makes the captivating announcement that he is engaged in editing a voluminous correspondence of FitzGerald with Mrs. Kemble.

There is something about FitzGerald's letters that reminds one of Pepys, and anyhow we mention next the fourth volume of Mr. Wheatley's substantially final edition of the Diary (London: Geo. Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan). It ends even with the third volume of the MS., and with the first half-year, 1665. The illustrations are Kneller's portrait of the diarist, with likenesses also of the Duke of York, Edward Cocker, and Sir William Petty.

Further volumes in the dainty rubricated Shakspere of J. M. Dent & Co. (New York: Macmillan) are "Two Gentlemen of Verona" and "The Merry Wives of Windsor"; the latter being ornamented with the Chandos portrait, the former with a view of the bust in Stratford Church.

'Woodstock' and 'The Talisman' carry on the Black (Dryburgh) edition of the Waverley Novels (New York: Macmillan), the series now making twenty-one volumes.

Charles Scribner's Sons add 'My Farm at Edgewood' and 'Wet Days at Edgewood' to the uniform series of Donald G. Mitchell's works, in neat and unpretentious garb.

The late Dr. Alpheus Todd's 'Parliamentary Government in the British Colonies' has been edited afresh by his son, who supplies a very interesting, if brief, sketch of his father's career, besides bringing the work down to date in respect to the important legislation of the decade since the author's death, in Canada and other colonies. This pious (and useful) labor is in continuation of Mr. A. H. Todd's new edition of his father's 'Parliamentary Govern-

ment in England,' a few years ago. Both are standard works of reference. Longmans, Green & Co. are the publishers.

The Catholics, who felt themselves very near the spirit of Columbus in the celebrations which one is now rather glad to leave behind, have made a parting gift to the Columbian bibliophiles in a pretty book, 'The Columbus Memorial Volume,' in which the Catholic Club of New York and the United States Catholic Historical Society have united in admiration of the man whom some would like to adore as a saint.

'The Natural History of the Christian Religion' (Macmillan) is the taking title of the not very taking book which the Rev. William Mackintosh has written "to trace the origin of Christianity to the common religious instinct." The author has a good endowment of Scotch pertinacity in arguing out every phase of every theory to the bitter end, and this often gives an appearance of diffuseness to his pages, while his express reliance upon the "employment of conjecture" necessarily lends an air of unreality to many parts of his discussion. Strikingly in contrast is the method of Weizsäcker in his 'Apostolic Age of the Christian Church,' the first volume of which leads off in the new series of Williams & Norgate's "Theological Translation Library" (Putnams). Here we have a master of historical investigation, with his eye all the while on the fact, marshalling the different parts of the record into a sequence which has often been dislocated in the traditional form, and which, when restored, clears up many a puzzling tract in the narrative.

The life and works of Mrs. Elizabeth Rowe (1674–1737), the author of the Biblical epic 'Joseph' and of 'Letters from the Dead to the Living,' are discussed by Dr. Theodor Vetter in an excellent brochure ('Die göttliche Rowe') just published at Zürich. Though now one of the "very dead" authors, Mrs. Rowe was a not insignificant figure in her own day. Her relations to the English literature of her century are interesting; but much more remarkable is the impression which her poetry made on her German contemporaries, especially Klopstock, who decorated her with the title "die göttliche." Dr. Vetter's tract sets forth the facts briefly but sufficiently, and is agreeably written.

After twenty-six years of honorable activity the Spenser Society has issued its farewell volume. The first publication of the society was 'The Proverbs and Epigrams' of John Heywood, the last is the same author's 'The Spider and the Flie.' Between these two volumes stand in stately series the works of Taylor the Water-Poet, of Wither, and of Drayton, the 'Tenne Tragedies of Seneca,' the 'Shepheards Calender' of 1579 in facsimile, and many other indispensable reprints. The demise of the society is to students of English the loss of an old and very helpful friend. The excellence of the present volume makes regret the more poignant. The edition of 1556 is carefully reprinted, and the amusing woodcuts, of which there are very many, are faithfully reproduced. Finally, Prof. A. W. Ward, the last president of the Society, has prefixed an introduction which is both a good discussion of the work and a graceful valedictory. *Vivat sequens!*

M. Yriarte has given us, in the 'Livre de Souvenirs de Maso di Bartolommeo dit Masaccio' (Paris: J. Rothschild), a very curious and interesting document. Maso, who must not be confounded with the great Masaccio, was a comparatively obscure Florentine sculptor of the fifteenth century, and not otherwise of great importance than that he had the happy thought to keep, for eight years together, a brief diary and account-book, and that this manuscript has been preserved for us—part of it in the library of Prato and part in the Magliabecchiana at Florence. It forms a unique record of the life of an artist at that period, before artists became the great men that the sixteenth century made of some of them, and when they were humble craftsmen and ready to accept anything in their line of work, from the decoration of a cathedral front to the casting of cannon or church-bells. Maso even records the casting of copper balls for a bed, yet he was a sculptor of enough repute to be named with Michelozzi and Luca della Robbia in the contract for the bronze gates of the sacristy of Santa Maria del Fiore, and an architect eminent enough to be designer-in-chief of the façade of S. Domenico di Urbino, where Luca della Robbia was subcontractor only for the reliefs in majolica and in stone. M. Yriarte gives the manuscript in full in its original crabbed Italian, as well as his own commentary and a translation of the more important passages. There are forty-odd illustrations, but only a comparatively small proportion of their number is strictly relevant to the subject.

To do something new seems to have been the principal aim of the publishers of 'The Yellow Book; An Illustrated Quarterly' (London: Elkin Mathews & John Lane; Boston: Copeland & Day), vol. i. of which, for April, 1894, lies before us. It is bound in boards of a hideous yellow color, with a design, only more hideous than frivolous, in violent black. The pictures (for they are not illustrations and have no connection with the text, but are introduced for their own sake) are of the latest school of English impressionism, and are very slight or very affected or very vulgar. The page is a broad 12mo, and the lines of letterpress, in old-faced type, run straight across it, with old-style catchwords. The matter is, much of it, very modern and very impressionistic, the Whistlerian affectations of Mr. Max Beerbohm's "Defence of Cosmetics" being particularly intolerable. The names of Henry James, George Saintsbury, and Edmund Gosse among the writers, and that of Sir Frederick Leighton among the artists, give, however, a somewhat higher tone to the table of contents, and Mr. Arthur Waugh's essay on "Reticence in Literature" is a healthy protest against many of the vices of "modernity."

Probably no book ever came into this world amid such a clamor of vociferous advertising as has heralded and accompanied the advent of M. Zola's 'Lourdes.' Interviews with its illustrious author began to appear months ago, and clever newspaper paragraphs have since been whetting the interest then excited. On the publication of the first instalment of the romance, Paris broke out in a carnival of *réclame*. Many colored "posters," advertising vans, sandwich men swarmed throughout the city. No such a launching, says M. Gaston Deschamps, has been seen since the days of Boulanger's election or of the glory of Buffalo Bill. Whether the novel will justify all this noise remains to be seen. The opening chapters seem a little clumsy and dull.

Six numbers of a folio "Bibliothèque de Dessin," issued from the Librairie de l'Art, 8 Boulevard des Capucines, Paris, are filled with facsimile drawings by masters old and modern, eight sheets to a number, without letterpress, at two francs the number. Figures predominate—portraits, studies, or imaginative characters—and the total represents the autographic work of Dürer, Rembrandt, Van Dyck, Rubens, Potter, Jordaens, Visscher, Signorelli, Donatello, Da Vinci, Del Sarto, Sanzio, Watteau, Boucher, Rousseau, Millet, Fragonard, Jacquemart, Delaunay, Constable, Herkomer, Legros, and two Americans, Boughton and Knight—to mention only a part. These are very cheap examples of great draughtmanship, and must recommend themselves both for purposes of instruction and for decorative uses. The same establishment sends us four more parts (5-8) of the smaller "Bibliothèque d'Éducation Artistique," continuing the series of choice "Japanese decorative documents" drawn from the Gillot collection. The subjects are flowers and plants, quadrupeds and fish, and strikingly exemplify the keenness of Japanese observation and firmness of stroke in delineating animal life in motion. Humor vies here with the decorative instinct in a way unknown to Western art.

Dr. Harrison Allen's 'Monograph of the Bats of North America,' Bulletin 43 of the National Museum, is a work of great merit. The quality and thoroughness of its descriptions and comparisons, whether external or anatomical, should commend it to all zoölogists having to do with characterization or determination of species. Dr. Allen has devoted his energy to discovery of real additions to knowledge, rather than temporary arrangements; he has gathered a mass of information that cannot be set aside by future students and that is creditable alike to the author and the country. The work is done mainly from the specimens, comparatively little of it from the literature; its extent is shown in the fact that the record, from twenty-one species, with seven varieties, belonging to twelve genera, of two families, required 198 pages of closely printed text and 38 plates of illustrations.

A very dull imagination can infer from its title the labor and the merit of the volume just issued by a committee of the Society of the Alumni of the University of Pennsylvania, viz., 'Biographical Catalogue of the Matriculates of the College, together with lists of the members of the College Faculty, and the trustees, officers, and recipients of honorary degrees, 1749–1893.' A laudable compression has reduced this mass of details to less than 600 large octavo pages. Nothing is in order but to congratulate the University on the industry and devotion of its catalogue committee. Their work will be welcomed everywhere as one more bond in the union of educated men, and one more guide to posterity in tracing the fortunes and descent of a class whose conspicuity is not always commensurate with their influence.

The Geographical Society of Bern has published a report of its proceedings for the years 1891–1892, together with some score of papers presented to the society during this period. Among these we have noted a narrative of travels in Colombia, an interesting sketch of a visit to the King of Dahomey, and a notice by the president, Dr. Gobat, of some of the contributions to North American ethnology published by the Smithsonian Institution. Mr. A. S. Gatschet contributes, in English, some mythic stories of the Yuchi Indians, related to him by the pupil of a mission school at Wialaka, Creek Nation. In the first a council of the various animals, called by the Creator, decides that earth shall be taken from the bottom of the waters to provide solid matter for their home. After the loon and the beaver have failed, the crawfish succeeds in bringing up some mud in its claws which is

given to the Creator, who "rolled it out to a flat mass, spread it on the surface of the waters and it became land."

The geographical unity of the British empire is suggestively treated by Mr. George R. Parkin in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for May. The growth of the empire he holds to have been strictly organic—an expansion due to "the rush of a national life, powerful beyond all precedent, along the geographical lines of least resistance." Some striking illustrations of the close industrial dependence of different parts of the empire are given through figures showing the amount of the great staples of wool, meat, cheese, tea, as well as cotton, produced on British territory or in countries under British protection. An interesting series of maps, historical, political, and commercial, give a graphic picture of the growth of the empire during the last two centuries, the principal ocean steamship and telegraph lines, and the naval and coaling stations. "A Quiet Corner of the Alps," by V. Dingelstedt, is a genial description of the Vièze Valley, one of the most conservative regions in Roman Catholic Switzerland. Mr. Stuart-Glennie supplies a brief narrative of his recent explorations in Greece.

Stone & Kimball, Chicago and Cambridge, have founded a semi-monthly called the *Chap-Book*, of handy small duodecimo shape and tasteful get-up, which is to serve as an original literary medium as well as a means of advertisement for the house. The proportion of Canadian poets in the promised list of contributors is noticeable.

Mr. Francis Olcott Allen, 314 Walnut Street, Philadelphia, desires to learn the colors of the devices furnished by Franklin for the flags of the "Associators" of 1747 in Philadelphia, particularly device No. 1, "a lion erect, a naked scimitar in one paw, the other holding the escutcheon of Pennsylvania: motto, *Patria*."

An imperial photograph of the Rev. Edward E. Hale is the latest addition to Mr. F. Gutekunst's Philadelphia portrait gallery of celebrities. It is a faithful reflection of the features of the author of 'A Man without a Country,' considerably nearer his prime, we judge, than the septuagenarian now is.

—In an interesting and important opinion of the Court of Claims, on April 16, in the case of United States vs. Weil, Judge Nott not only holds, as our readers know, that the President may constitutionally sign a bill during a recess of Congress, but argues that what we call the veto power is no part of the legislative function, and therefore that an adjournment of the Legislature does not in reason affect the question of the power of the executive. Moreover, he traces the clause in the Federal Constitution which gives to the President his power of revising legislation to the Constitution of New York of 1777. That instrument established a Council of Revision having this power, and consisting of the Governor, Chancellor, and the judges of the highest State court, or any two of them with the Governor. The common doctrine, that our ordinary executive veto is founded on the old veto of the English King, is denied. "It is manifest, then, that the [Federal] Convention turned from the Constitution of England to the Constitution of New York. When they did so, the man did not live who regarded the Council of Revision as the successor of the Crown, or its approval or disapproval of bills as an exercise of the royal prerogative or a legislative power." Perhaps it is not unreasonable, however, to consider that all which goes to making up the total process of enacting a law, including the revising process, is a part of the legislative function. It does not at all follow that all parts of it must be done while the two legislative houses are in session.

—As regards the history of the matter, Judge Nott has not mentioned that the Massachusetts Convention of 1779-'80 had been all over this ground long before the Federal Convention, and had furnished since 1780 a model which was closely followed; nor does he allude to the prominent part which Mr. Gerry of Massachusetts took in determining the shape of this part of the Federal instrument. This fact is mentioned by Mason in his learned and valuable book, 'Veto Power,' p. 19, note. All this, indeed, may be thought to leave Judge Nott's interesting point of history untouched, since Massachusetts evidently profited by the New York instrument, and the Federal Convention undoubtedly had it in view. But after all, clear as it is that our American "veto" is no veto at all, do not the debates show that, historically, it developed out of the English executive veto? And was not the New York revision, what Madison calls the Federal revision, "a qualified veto"? The circumstances of the case of U. S. vs. Weil suggest an interesting question as to the power of the President, upon a mere recess, to skip the recess and piece together the days preceding it, after the bill reaches him, and the days following it, after the adjournment, in making up the ten days allowed him for consideration before signing. In 1791 (Opinion of the Justices, 3 Mass., 567), the justices of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts, where five days are allowed, laid it down, in an advisory opinion, that such a recess did not necessarily kill an unsigned bill, but that, if left unsigned for more than five days of *the legislative session*, excluding the recess, it became a law. "When a prorogation takes place," they added, "the session is ended, and a bill or resolve, after the session is ended, cannot acquire the force of law."

—Prof. David P. Todd, in charge of the U. S. scientific expedition to West Africa four years ago, having given the necessary permission, Mr. Heli Chatelain, philologist of the expedition, has published his 'Folk-Tales of Angola' as the first volume of "Memoirs of the American Folk-Lore Society" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), a handsome book of upwards of 300 pages, comprising fifty tales, with Ki-Mbundu text, literal English translation, introduction, notes, music, and two maps of Angola. We must leave to others the task of estimating the linguistic value of Mr. Chatelain's work, which, however, seems to us considerable, and mention briefly its importance for the student of folk-lore. The native African inhabitants of the Portuguese province of Angola belong to the Bantu stock, but they have been in contact with Europeans for four hundred years. A glance at the Ki-Mbundu text shows Portuguese words in abundance, and a cursory examination of the tales reveals the existence of Portuguese, and possibly Italian, stories (see especially Nos. i., ii., iii., v., and xxvi.). It was, however, to the animal tales that we turned with the greatest anticipation, hoping to find many parallels to those in 'Uncle Remus,' Jones's 'Negro Myths from the Georgia Coast,' and Miss Owen's 'Voodoo Tales.' We were disappointed, and the points of contact with our own negro tales are few. The "Tar Baby" is found in No. xxii.; a trait of No. xvii. is found among the Bahaman negroes; No. xxiii. suggests one of Æsop's fables (the sick lion and the fox, Lafontaine vi., 14), and No. xxxiii. another (the cat changed into a woman, Lafontaine ii., 18). No. xviii. is an interesting variant of the Eastern apologue treated by Benfey, 'Pantschatantra,' i., 113, and found all over Europe (see Köhler's notes to Gonzenbach's 'Sicilianische Märchen,' No. 69). Mr. Chatelain's work is, however, extremely interesting and valuable as showing the diffusion of European tales among savages by colonists, missionaries, and traders. Examples of this had previously been afforded by Mr. Jones's book mentioned above, and Miss Owen's work contained curious illustrations of the mutual relations between negroes and Indians. The American Folk-Lore Society is to be congratulated on having made such a scholarly beginning with its "Memoirs," and we shall look forward with interest to the second volume, which is to contain 'Folk-Tales of Louisiana,' by Alcée Fortier.

—Prof. Cook's 'First Book in Old English,' with grammar, reader, notes, and vocabulary (Boston: Ginn & Co.), will be welcomed as a valuable addition to the multiplying means of instruction in Old English. The grammar is a well-condensed compendium on the basis of Prof. Cook's translation of Sievers, and sufficient for the beginner. We are inclined to take issue with Prof. Cook as to his abandonment of the classification of nouns by stems for the sake of supposed ease in learning, and he himself anticipates criticism. This is the mistake made in Sweet's 'Anglo-Saxon Reader,' which classifies by plurals, and this classification very soon breaks down. It is much better for the student to put forth a little more effort in the beginning, and learn once for all the arrangement by stems, which then becomes a secure possession, available for any Teutonic language, instead of having to learn his noun-classification over again at a later period in his course. The prose selections are from Aelfric, King Alfred (*i. e.*, the translation of Beda that goes under his name, and a little from Boëthius), Wulfstan, and 'Apollonius of Tyre.' The poetical selections include a few lines from 'Beowulf,' all too few, and some from 'Judith' and from 'Andreas'; the Greek 'Life' on which a part of 'Andreas' is founded is given in an Appendix, with a translation. The Appendix includes also specimens of the dialects, Northumbrian, Mercian, and Kentish. The notes at the foot of the pages contain copious grammatical references, and these are also found in the glossary, which, though brief in its meanings, is doubtless adequate for its purpose. German cognates are here frequently given.

—Prof. MacLean's 'Old and Middle English Reader,' on the basis of Zupitza's 'Alt- und Mittel-englisches Uebungsbuch,' with introduction, notes, and glossary (Macmillan), has been long in preparation, the text having been printed from Zupitza's third edition in 1886. The delay has, however, much improved the book, for Prof. MacLean has prefixed valuable descriptive notices of the selections, with bibliographical references and brief notes, and a short sketch of Old and Middle English versification by Oscar L. Triggs. The greatest improvement has been made in the glossary, which to the useful meanings given in Zupitza, has been provided with etymological illustrations from cognate languages and with references to Skeat's 'Principles of English Etymology.' It may be questioned whether the ordinary student, at the stage for which this Reader is intended, has

sufficient phonetic and etymological training to profit by these illustrations; nevertheless, they are there for the use of the teacher. There are fifteen selections in Old English, from Cædmon's Hymn to the later Saxon Chronicle (1154), and nineteen in Middle English, from the 'Poema Morale' to Lydgate's 'Guy of Warwick'—all short, and arranged chronologically rather than graded in difficulty; but the Old English student would hardly begin with the Northumbrian dialect. We miss a compendium of grammar, for want of which a constant use of Sievers for Old English and some other work for Middle English is necessary. Prof. MacLean well says: "The time has come to make Old English available for those of English speech as the natural point of departure for the study of Comparative Philology." It is hoped that teachers of English will agree with him, and his book will serve as a useful help to that end. A few misprints in the Introduction may be readily corrected.

—The two most recently discovered orations of Hyperides have been edited, with an introduction and translation, by Mr. F. G. Kenyon, assistant curator of MSS. in the British Museum (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan). The object of the experienced editor has been to furnish, in a convenient and inexpensive form, these latest treasures from Egypt, which are at present accessible only in foreign periodicals, or accompanied by a costly facsimile. The fragment against Philippides derived from a papyrus belonging to the British Museum is so incomplete as to possess an interest chiefly for the scholar and the antiquarian. But the speech against Athenogenes is much better preserved, and is for many reasons the most interesting that has survived to us of the works of Hyperides. It shows the tact, address, and the forensic skill of the famous defender of Phryne in a case very similar to hers in point of delicacy and difficulty. It reveals also the methods of the Athenian sharper and "confidence-woman"; while the frank picture of society and manners sketched by the orator forms the counterpart and supplement of some comedy of Menander. Mr. Kenyon's introduction furnishes the student with the needful outline of facts, and his free and spirited rendering supplies certain gaps in the manuscript and argument. The text is printed line for line with the original papyrus, indicating the lacunæ conjecturally filled or to be filled. A facsimile page is given from the papyrus in the Louvre, discovered in 1888. This dates from the second century A. C., and is the oldest MS. we possess of a classic, unless it may be Mr. Flinders Petrie's manuscript fragment of the 'Phædo' and the 'Antiope.'

—A correspondent writes from abroad:

"An article in the May number of the *Nineteenth Century* on the 'Old Art Criticism and the New,' by Mary Whitehall Costelloe, comes just in time to make us fully appreciate the evil of leaving such an important post as the directorship of the National Gallery in the gift of mere politicians. Taking up the so-called 'Raphaels' of the Louvre, and the so-called 'Botticellis' of the National Gallery, Mrs. Costelloe demonstrates clearly and forcibly what a lamentable effect the one lot had on the French classical school, and the other on the English Pre-Raphaelites, and suggests that both would have been saved from the exaggerations they fell into had they not modelled themselves on rubbish palmed off as Raphael and Botticelli. The conclusion Mrs. Costelloe draws is that it is all-important that the director of a gallery should be a scientific connoisseur, as such a director is most likely to be free from the school prejudices of a professional painter, and most likely to buy for the public's money works of art of real benefit to the public. Mrs. Costelloe's thesis is well borne out by the singular fact that the three best-kept and best-catalogued galleries in the world, those of Munich, Dresden, and Berlin, are directed by connoisseurs, and that Dr. Bode, with comparatively small expenditure, is enriching the Berlin Gallery so fast that it will soon outstrip the National Gallery, in spite of the extravagance of its painter-directors. By appointing another water-color painter of questionable merit to the directorship of the English National Collection, Lord Rosebery has done all he could to defeat the purpose of its existence—the presentation of great art in a rational, illuminating way to the general public."

BRITISH DIPLOMACY IN THE FAR EAST.

The Life of Sir Harry Parkes, K.C.B., G.C.M.G., sometime Her Majesty's Minister to China and Japan. Two vols. Parts I., III., in China, 1842–1865, 1883–1885, by Stanley Lane-Poole; Part II., in Japan, 1865–1883, by F. V. Dickins. Macmillan & Co. 1894.

RATHER short, bustling and alert in movement, fair-haired, with tight lips, the lower one shutting over the upper, piercing blue eyes, a firm jaw, strong nose, lines of sternness above the mouth—such was the man who for one decade in China and two in Japan represented British foreign policy, and accomplished a career typically English. The estimates of two associates describe him well and sufficiently. Said Lord Elgin:

"Parkes is one of the most remarkable men I have ever met; for energy, courage, and ability combined, I do not know where I could find his match; and this, joined to a facility of speaking Chinese, . . . makes him at present *the* man of the situation."

Said Sir Chaloner Alabaster:

"He believed that the first duty of an Englishman was to make England great; that to do so you should act as an Englishman, be perfectly fair and just, never to do anything mean or ungentlemanly, but have your own way in everything, and fight to the death, and if possible beyond it, to get it."

Sent out to China (1841) at the age of thirteen to become an interpreter, he was soon made Consulate Interpreter at Amoy; thence, by successive achievements of energy and skill, he was enabled to rise to Acting Consul at Canton (1853), Consul at Amoy (1854), Secretary to the Siamese Mission (1855), Commissioner for Canton (1858), Consul at Shanghai (1859), K. C. B. in 1862, Minister to Japan (1865), and, finally, Minister to China (1883). His death in 1885 may be said to mark the end of an epoch of Oriental history as well as of a method of diplomacy peculiar to that epoch. No doubt, as Lord Wolseley said, "he would have made a great general." In the circumstances of his lacking high birth and favoring influence, of his opportunity to cope with new and difficult problems in a foreign community, and of his ultimate rise to distinction through sheer force of personality, his career reminds one immediately of the great John Lawrence. Only one circumstance, but one of infinite significance, separates him for ever from the honor of being classed with the Indian hero: his character lacked that spirit of true generosity and sympathy which made Lawrence one of Nature's noblemen. "Act as an Englishman" and "have your own way in everything"—this motto indicates at once the scope and the limits of his ideal and of his achievements. "He appears to have succeeded . . . in every diplomatic enterprise he undertook during the entire period of his service in Japan" without firing a shot or using a threat of force; this is the highest praise that one of his biographers can give him or (apparently) cares to give him.

What of history's judgment on the events in which he took part? We need not here look for help to his loyal and uncritical biographers. With a devoted and admirable faith in the rightness of Englishmen everywhere, and especially in China and Japan, they have both unwittingly succeeded in making it impossible for the uninformed reader to learn the true conditions of things, the exact issues involved, the considerations which bear on the ultimate judgment of the historian; yet all the while they have unawares revealed their simple and trusting partisanship. Both write here with the same pen and are the same author. Once in a while a latent suspicion arises for the biographer that there is possibly another point of view, but this is speedily and satisfactorily argued down; as where he claims that Sir Harry never used or threatened force, and then, in fine ingenuousness, hastens to add: "Doubtless the Japanese Ministers were sometimes warned in unmistakable language of what might be the effects of adopting or persevering in a particular policy, but a warning is not a threat, though circumstances sometimes give it that color"—and a very black color, too, if the facts were told; or, where he refers briefly to that odious insult, the illegal maintenance by Parkes of an armed battalion of British troops on Japanese soil for eleven years, and then, calmly admitting that "they might probably have been quite safely withdrawn at an earlier period," proceeds to argue that it was just as well as it was, because they "saved the Japanese Government trouble and expense" in some unspecified way. Let us now run over some of the leading events in order.

(1.) In the bombardment of Canton in 1856, the second war with China, and the Tien-tsin Treaty of 1860, Harry Parkes was the living energy; what he did not do personally was at least represented in his spirit. What were the ethics of these doings? England was determined to get a trade with China; China did not want to trade with England; England therefore resorted to brute force; she made use of questionable, even flimsy pretexts—opium in 1842, the seizure of criminals on a junk in 1856—brought slaughter and devastation to Chinese cities, and as a price made China pay millions for English war expenses and open thirteen ports to trade. The total result was "a gain of at least £2,000,000 a year in English imports" by the first war, and "a further increase of £3,500,000" by the second war. Now the biographer says that the isolation which China desired "could not be permitted, and it would be bad for the world at large if it were." But the pages of his book show that the real reason why it "could not be permitted" was that it would be bad for England if, on some pretext and by some means, England could not get a fuller share of the profits of Chinese trade. The fact that, through the influence of Cobden and Bright, there was a vote of censure and a dissolution of Parliament on this question in 1857 shows that at least a section of the British public believed in the immorality of the pretext taken and the means employed; and the fair historian should take account of this, and not dismiss it contemptuously as an instance of legislators "meddling in foreign affairs of which they know nothing."

(2.) The burning of the Imperial Summer Palace at Peking in 1860 was done, it must be remembered, after the British force had complete command of the city and the whole object

of the war was accomplished; and was intended, as is admitted, solely as a "punishment," and "to make the Emperor and the Government feel it in the most sensitive quarter." What has the biographer to offer? "From the dilettante's point of view it was like an act of vandalism; from that of sound policy in China it was statesmanlike." If this be so, give us more of "dilettanteism" and less of British "statesmanship" abroad.

(3.) In Japan we come first to the murder of Richardson and the British retaliatory expedition to Kagoshima, which bombarded and destroyed an innocent city of 100,000 people in revenge for the well-provoked killing of a single insolent brute, and then demanded and obtained $3,000,000 from a poor nation in payment (grossly excessive) of the expenses of the raid. This was just before the time of Parkes; but he approved of it, and so does his biographer, of course. He wholly misstates the facts of the Richardson affray, and the raid, as we might have expected, he calls "absolutely necessary." Fortunately the facts are on record.

(4.) The Japanese expedition to Formosa, in 1874 (ostensibly intended, like that of Decatur to Algiers, to inflict punishment on bands of pirates there), which Sir Harry Parkes condemns roundly in his correspondence, is one of the most complicated topics of diplomatic history in Japan, particularly in connection with the question it raised of the right of an American (General Legendre) to enlist in the Japanese service. But the reader would not from these pages suspect that there was any complication. It is stated, too, that "the real object was rather to affirm the sovereign rights of Japan over the Loochoo Islands, as against the somewhat shadowy supremacy of China" (p. 186), and that "it ended in what amounted to a recognition by China of the Loochoo Islands as a portion of the Japanese Empire, to which, indeed, by race and geography they belong" (p. 196). In other words, the Japanese planned and accomplished a task of great national import. But between whiles (p. 190) we are told that "there can be no doubt that the expedition to Formosa was a mere piratical raid"; and the honest reader is left to guess which conclusion he is to take.

(5.) As to the quarantine regulations of Yokohama, the facts are that the Japanese Government, in August, 1878, were putting in force quarantine regulations designed to keep out cholera, then threatening from China; that Mr. Bingham, the American Minister, had sanctioned these for American ships; that Sir Harry, because, as he says, his consent had not been "formally requested" (though he was actually consulted), refused and instigated other ministers to refuse consent; that in consequence of this refusal an infected vessel sailed in and landed its diseased passengers, and that 80,000 Japanese in that year and the next died of a plague which, in all human probability, would not have come if Sir Harry had done as the American Minister did. If facts count for anything, the deaths of those Japanese are on the head of Sir Harry Parkes. His biographer is careful not to state the circumstances, but says that "the controversy can only be glanced at here," and refers his readers to a newspaper file of November, 1879, for the facts! This same expedient of referring to a buried newspaper file is also resorted to by the biographer for disposing of detailed charges of misconduct which one would like to have seen openly and squarely dealt with in such a work as this. Considering that they were put forward in print by such eminent friends of Japan as Sir E. J. Reed and Mr. E. H. House, it is rather singular that the biographer contents himself with insinuating that Sir Edward was, in making them, guilty of a breach of hospitality towards Sir Harry, and by adding that "it must suffice to refer to Sir Harry Parkes's letter of simple denial printed in the *Times* of June 4, 1881."

While we cannot fail to stamp the work of this most eminent of modern Eastern diplomatists with the disapproval which it merits, we must not forget that the criticism should not be a purely personal one. Sir Harry Parkes was merely the representative of a certain mode of dealing with the Orient. As an individual he only did, and did well and magnificently, what was demanded and approved by the traditions of a nation and the instincts of a race. In the first place, the traditions of British diplomacy have persistently sanctioned the policy of bullying an "inferior" nation which has something that the Briton wants. The deeds and the language of such envoys as Hammond, Merry, and "Copenhagen" Jackson, and of such foreign secretaries as Wellesley and Canning, are specimens of the political Bible from which Sir Harry Parkes took his inspiration. In the second place, the instincts of a race come in the way of a good understanding between Englishmen (and in a less degree other Germanic peoples) and Orientals. The key to the situation is the existence of two different points of view, and the almost inevitable clashing of the conduct of those who represent them. The genius of the East is one thing, of the West another thing. Neither can hope wholly to understand the other. What can be done is at least that each should try to understand that the other *has* a different point of view, and to make allowances so far as may be. What is foolish and wrong and cruel is that the stronger should deny that the other has any point of view worth considering, and should go at it with force and arms and bully it out of its claims, and then abuse it as uncivilized for wanting to have its own way of looking at things. This is what the Parkes school has always done, and this, let us be thankful, is what American diplomacy, in Japan, has generally declined to do. It is unfortunate, but it is inevitable, that such a conflict of forces should exist where there is such a difference of national genius. But it is also unfortunate, though by no means inevitable, that biographers cannot be found who can appreciate the two sides of the question. That there is another side we have tried to indicate. When we remember what the Chinese have suffered from American mobs and American politicians, and what bitter recollections they have of the tender mercies of British gunboats, we can begin to understand something of why they decline to open their country fully to the influences of Western "civilization." That is the explanation of a good deal of Chinese statesmanship to-day.

RAYMOND'S THEORY OF ART.

Art in Theory: An Introduction to the Study of Comparative Æsthetics. By George Lansing Raymond, L.H.D., Professor of Æsthetics in the College of New Jersey at Princeton. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1894.

THIS book is an elaborate effort to find a common basis for all the fine arts—a fundamental principle which distinguishes art as such from other forms of human effort, and from which a system of criticism can be educed that may be applied to each art in turn. It is, though not first in order of publication, the introduction to a series of volumes in which this system is to be so applied. There can be no doubt of the desirability of such a canon of criticism if it can be found, nor of the industry and ingenuity which Prof. Raymond has brought to the task of finding it. His reading on everything even remotely connected with his subject has evidently been immense, and quotations from every one under the heavens are "as plenty as blackberries" in his pages. Indeed, they overload them and help to make his volume the hard reading it unmistakably is. His reasoning is "inductive": *i. e.*, having a theory to expound, he begins as far from it as possible, and tries to show, by elaborate approaches, how one may arrive at it, thus continually tantalizing the reader, who wants to know what he is driving at. His style is heavy and almost floundering, and his profuse use of italics is irritating alike to mind and eye. Take as an example a sentence which is also worth noting as the key to his theory:

"As the result, which we term *art*, is a combination of what comes, in the first place, from nature or *natural instinct*, and in the second place, from a *human* being exercising the distinctive traits of the human *mind*, we may say that, in this case at least, art is *nature made human*, or *nature remade by the human mind*."

A little further on in the same paragraph there are nine italicized words in three lines. The reader revolts, and feels like assuring the author that he is not so dull but that he can catch the point without such a dig in the ribs.

Leaving here the question of form, let us consider the substance of the book—the theory of art it inculcates. It will be impossible to follow it through all the windings of its development, but we will try to give a fair notion of what it is, to touch it in its course here and there and show the queer conclusions to which it brings the author, and to point out what seems to us its inadequacy.

According to Prof. Raymond, then, all art is representation, is "nature made human." This is practically Zola's definition, "Art is nature seen through a temperament." All the arts are fine in the degree in which they represent nature and at the same time express the human mind. Nature furnishes the form while the mind furnishes the significance. Here comes in the astonishing third chapter on "Form and Significance as Antagonistic," in which classicism and romanticism are considered as the two tendencies in art which spring from this antagonism, "the germ" of classicism being "the conception, which inevitably tends to imitation, that art should chiefly emphasize the form; whereas the germ" of romanticism "is the conception that the ideas expressed in the form should be chiefly emphasized." Here we are apparently landed in the preposterous conclusion that classicism and realism are one and the same, and our perplexity is not helped when we are immediately informed that they are not, though with no reason given, and when we suddenly find that classicism is based, not on form as found in nature, but on form as found in previous works of art.

In fact, classicism and romanticism are not founded at all on the antagonism of form and significance. "Sound, not sense" was certainly never a motto of classic literature. Classicism and romanticism are tempers of mind which equally affect the form and the substance of art; classicism being reasonable, logical, and constructive, while romanticism is emotional and sensuous. In classicism the intellect dominates the feelings, while in romanticism the feelings dominate the intellect.

The next few chapters are, naturally enough, devoted to showing that this antagonism between form and significance is not real, and that this is true because art does not imitate but represents in another material and manner the facts of nature, and that the representation of either nature or mind requires the representation of the other. In all this the author succeeds fairly well as long as he deals with the strictly imitative arts of painting and sculpture, but his efforts to make music and architecture fit into his theory are not happy. When one finds him saying, "Columns, arches, and roofs do not by any means copy or imitate, but they do *represent*, the trunks and branches and watershedding leaves of the forest," one feels that something is wrong, and one is almost prepared for the horrors of the paragraph in which, after asking why the conception of a Gothic cathedral may not have been suggested by the trunks and branches of an avenue of trees, he goes on as follows:

"Whatever answer may be given to this question, . . . none can fail to recall that we frequently find in architecture actual reproductions of the figures of men, animals, leaves, and flowers, chiselled, carved, or worked in some way into the ornamentation, and who can say that the world has seen the highest developments in these directions? Why might it not be possible to carry these methods further, and to produce an interior the columns, groinings, and ceilings of which should resemble, as closely as could the forms of a landscape picture, the trunks and leaves of, say, a palm grove, while the walls and partitions should resemble natural rocks overgrown by natural vines? Is it not conceivable, too, in this age, when artificial tile and brick and stone can be produced in all possible colors, and when iron can be moulded into beams and platings of all possible shapes, that, with judicious selections of natural models and artistic foreshortenings, exteriors might be produced in the wholes or parts of which, both in walls and roofs, the resemblances to natural appearances—vine-clad or flower-covered groves, mounds, cliffs—should be almost as unmistakable as in certain painting and sculpture?"

From such an "architecture of the future," good Lord, deliver us!

Chapter vii. is on the "Art-impulse," and identifies it, as others have done, with the impulse to *play* which comes of excess of life-force. The author considers imitation the only invariable characteristic of play, which naturally conducts him to his theory of "representative art." The trouble with this is that it fails to show in what lies the difference between imitation and art—between playing soldiers and the drama. Evidently something more than he has hit upon so far is necessary to account for art, and at page 83 beauty is suddenly introduced as the characteristic of natural objects that prompts man to artistic representation of them. Chapters xi. to xv. are therefore taken up with a long analysis of beauty, with much of which we disagree, especially the mixing up moral beauty with physical, but the general conclusion of which might, we think, have put our author on the right track. This general conclusion, with which we are quite in accord, is that beauty is nothing else than order, harmony, or proportion; beauty of sound, beauty of form, beauty of color, being the resultant of mathematical proportions in lines, sound waves or color waves. We will not follow Prof. Raymond through the rest of the volume, in which he ceases to make use of this definition of beauty (which is half apologetically introduced as a side issue) and goes back to his theory of art as "nature made human," tracing out its application in various ways to the arts and their order in place and time, but will merely remark that he seems to prove that architecture should be the latest of the arts to develop, whereas it is notoriously one of the earliest. Instead, we shall state as briefly as possible what we conceive to be the true bond of unity between the arts—the true fundamental principle of art in all its forms.

We take art to be the application to *anything*, in the spirit of play and for pleasure only, of the principle of proportion. The arts deal with great variety of matter and by no means all of them with representation. Music deals with pure sound and is only incidentally imitative. Poetry deals with the expression in words of thought and emotion. Architecture deals with construction. Painting deals with delineation and also with pure color, in which it approaches music. Acting is the most purely imitative, perhaps, of all the arts. But, whatever be the difference of subject-matter, the one thing common to all art is the application of the principle of order. Rhyme and rhythm added to the expression of thought make poetry; sound submitted to the laws of harmony and melody becomes music; and so with the other arts. How does the dance differ from playful leaping but in its subjection to measure? There is nothing artistic in planting, but when three trees were first planted in a row for pleasure, not for utility, landscape gardening began. And if it were necessary to make a graded hierarchy of the arts, we should say that that art was the highest which permitted of the most permanent, subtle, and complicated harmonies and proportions; architecture being a lower art than painting and music, because its proportions are more rudimentary and simple, while acting is lower because its harmonies are not permanent. But it is also necessary for art, if it be great art, to deal greatly with its subject-matter. Hence, besides the perfection of harmony or order which is necessary to all art, each has its own perfection peculiar to itself, so that poetry, dealing with expression, must be greatly expressive, architecture, dealing with construction, must be greatly constructive, and painting, dealing with delineation, must be greatly imitative. That which is truly ideal in all art is the element of order, the form. The other element varies in the various arts, and bears one name or another, and it is the same law we have so often dwelt on, that painting shall be realistic as well as idealistic, which necessitates that poetry shall contain thought as well as rhythm, and that architecture shall base its fair proportions upon sound construction. We cannot here work out this theory further and modify it to suit the thousand variations and interlockings of the many manifestations of art, each of which at times borrows something from the others, and so far changes its nature; but we believe it to be the true theory of the nature of art, and commend its development to the student of æsthetics.

Greek Vase Paintings: A Selection of Examples. With preface, introduction, and descriptions by J. E. Harrison and D. S. MacColl. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: The Century Co. 1894.

An important service has been rendered to all lovers of ancient Greek fictile art by making accessible to them, at the very moderate price of ten dollars, this choice selection of examples of Greek vase paintings. Hitherto the study of this branch of ancient art has been possible only for those who could visit the great archæological museums of the Old World, or who, at considerable cost and trouble, have been able to procure the expensive volumes in which these objects have been reproduced. The editors have been permitted to make a selection of plates from volumes of this character, and these have been reproduced by modern process-work. The value of the present volume, of course, depends upon the skill and judgment with which such selection has been made. All the important collections in Europe, some twenty in number, have been drawn upon, and even the one in Baltimore has furnished two illustrations. But naturally the British Museum has supplied a larger proportion of the forty-three plates, fourteen in number, including two from photographs; while the Louvre, Vienna, Munich, and Berlin have contributed in about equal shares. The indebtedness of the editors to the German Archæological Society, the *Wiener Vorlegeblätter*, and Hartwig's 'Meisterschalen,' is frankly acknowledged; while Gerhard's 'Auserlesene Vasenbilder' and his 'Trinkschalen' have been also drawn upon. The vases figured have been chosen simply for their excellence and beauty, and not from their mythological or archæological value. While only a few of the designs are adduced as masterpieces, yet in its entirety this collection is ample to inspire an appreciative comprehension of the history and progress of the art of vase-painting.

That good taste and sound learning have been combined is guaranteed by the names of the joint editors. Mrs. Harrison's 'Myths of the Odyssey' and her 'Mythology and Monuments of Ancient Athens' are familiar to Greek scholars. Mr. MacColl, in his preface, is strenuous to "redress an injustice of fame done to Euphronius, Hieron, and other masters of one of the most finely balanced arts of design and poetry ever struck out in decoration." He goes on, dwelling upon the subtle refinements of style that have so impressed him, and concludes that "to find the image of a people . . . who could marry grace and dignity with their mirth, we must burrow in Greek graves. . . . Tomb has delivered them to Museum, and it is time that the book-worm should not be the only heir of his brother." Mrs. Harrison's "Introductory Historic Note" is modestly called by her only "a sketch drawn up strictly with reference to the plates, and not in any sense a history of Greek Ceramography. . . . It is an attempt to put together what is known as to the methods and even mannerisms of the several artists." But classical archæologists, we are inclined to think, will speak of it in quite different terms. To us it seems to sum up in a brief, comprehensive way, all the latest knowledge in this controverted branch of the history of ancient art. It tells sufficiently how painted vases were made, and how they have been named according to their various shapes and uses. Upon the vexed question of the date of the transition from the earlier black-figured to the red-figured technique, Mrs. Harrison shows how Ludwig Ross's discovery, in 1835, of a fragment of a red-figured plate in the layer of débris from the Persian sack of the Acropolis, 480 B. C., has been abundantly confirmed by the exhaustive excavations made there since 1887. "We no longer trouble about the influence of Polygnotus on the work that preceded him, and we no longer try to detect in vase-paintings motives from the sculptures of the unbuilt Parthenon, or subjects from the plays as yet unacted of Æschylus and Sophocles." The whole work, in both styles, has now been brought within the limits of the century from 570 to 470, or even less, and by means of art-

ists' signatures and dedicatory inscriptions even closer limits can be drawn.

The Black-Figured Masters who worked principally upon amphoræ are first described, and then the transition to "Epiktetos and his set," with whom the *kylix* was the favorite shape for the display of their skill, is set forth in ample detail. It used to be thought that "the black-figured style laid down its life at Marathon. The new chronology forbids all this, and we have come to see that the artist can take delight in twisting the limbs of an athlete and composing a revel without the impulse of a Persian war." Euphronius, and the other great masters of the red-figured style, Duris, Peithinus, Hieron, and Brygos, are lovingly dwelt upon, and the specimens given of their skill are fully described. We are told how many examples of each master are known, and their individuality is so discriminated that the criteria by which unsigned works are allotted to their authors are made readily comprehensible.

We wish that space permitted our giving an outline of the chapter upon "Athenian White Funeral Lekythoi" and of that on "The Interpretation of Vases." These show Mrs. Harrison's strength at its best, as might be expected from her previous writings. Her accuracy is equal to her learning; and we have noticed only one slip, where (p. 19, line 3 from bottom) she speaks of "the walls of the Museum at Athens." As the Museum is a hill, it is evident that she meant to write *Theseum*. Her account (p. 17) of plate xi., "The contest of Hercules with the triple-bodied Geryones," is inconsistent with the description given of the plate, and is manifestly wrong in the number stated of the figures both of the warriors and of the herd. Although the volume in hand is a marvel of cheapness and excellence combined, we regret that sufficient pains has not been taken to revise the text and to compare it with the numbering of the plates. Certainly it is strange that no List of Plates is furnished. We have noted the following errors, and trust that the needed corrections may be made in a work that is destined to become a standard: P. 20, line 20, for pp. 18, 19, read 27, 28; line 32, for plate xvi. read xv.; line 34, for plate iii. read iv.; line 45, for plate xvii. read xvi. P. 21, line 4, for plate xviii. read xvii.; line 6 from bottom, for plate xii. read xiii. P. 22, lines 4 and 7, for plate xix. read xviii.; line 14, for plate xx. read xix.; line 31, for plate xxi. read xx. P. 24, line 7 from bottom, for p. 22 read 30. P. 26, line 3, for p. 23 read 31. P. 32, line 2 from bottom, for p. 32 read 22.

Town Life in the Fifteenth Century. By Mrs. J. R. Green. New York and London: Macmillan & Co. 1894.

Now that so much interest is being taken in social history, there is sure to be a ready welcome for a book which describes the internal life of English towns at the period of their greatest power; especially when that book appears in two comely volumes with the impress of a great publisher, and the reader need only open it to come upon analogies or contrasts to present-day conditions stated in language pointed and highly colored. The name which the authoress bears; the dedication of her work to the memory of the author of the 'History of the English People'; the statement in the preface that it was undertaken in fulfilment of a promise made to him when his work was over—these circumstances all help to make the welcome warmer, for, to most of those who care for English history, John Richard Green is a cherished name. Starting, perhaps, with some irritation against the "stylist" whose success for the time threw his masters into the shade, they have come to feel something like a personal affection for that transparent soul who struggled so hard against such odds, and did so much to make the "island story" dear to all English-speaking people. They rejoice to see that name once more coupled, by one who bears it, with worthy achievements.

And, indeed, this book of Mrs. Green's deserves a good deal more than a *succès d'estime*. In the first place, it is the result of arduous labors which have probably occupied several years; though possibly her readers will hardly realize how much the way had been smoothed by earlier scholars, especially Schanz and Gross. And then, secondly, several of the chapters, especially those on the "Battle for Freedom" and "The Battle for Supremacy," deal, and, on the whole, deal effectively, with topics hitherto strangely disregarded by English writers, though their importance for Continental towns has long been recognized by foreign scholars. The contrasted fortunes of towns upon the royal demesne and of towns upon baronial or church estates in their efforts to secure municipal self-government, and the difficulties with which municipalities had to struggle which were confronted with rival jurisdictions within their walls, are here for the first time emphatically set forth. To the serious student of municipal history, in particular, the book will serve as a stimulant—if only to controversy; and even that would be an agreeable exchange for the isolation which has usually been the fate of workers in this field. It will serve also as an indication of the material at his disposal.

Still, it must be avowed that, in spite of its high purpose and popular language, we have seldom come across a more wearisome book. This is in part the fault of its style, which is a curiously faithful echo of the style of John Richard Green. Even in the hands of its creator, that style, with its perpetual effort after picturesqueness and emphasis, was apt to become a little trying to the nerves. The 'Short History' was saved by the very breadth of the space to be covered and the compression which fortunately formed part of its plan. Rapid movement was necessary, and this carried us safely over the epithets, not to mention that in a thousand years of history there were occasions to which a large proportion of the glittering adjectives and resonant verbs could be fitly applied. But the case is different when the same style is applied in eight hundred pages to such a subject as the fifteenth-century borough. A brief, broadly generalized statement of the movement of town life during the hundred years could be made interesting to a reflecting mind; an episode here and there might even be found to have dramatic quality; but we may be tolerably certain that a true statement of the minutiæ of the municipal history of any century—the fifteenth as well as the nineteenth—must be pretty dull, if for no other reason than that human affairs are intricate, and that intricacy is seldom obviously interesting. And the writer who attempts to make every page sparkling is pretty sure to pay the penalty. So has it been with Mrs. Green. Again and again we come upon the most startling inconsistencies; and in almost every case the explanation is that the temptation to say a "strong" thing—to use "utterly" and "altogether" and "completely," to talk of "a struggle for life" and "the drain of taxation," to exult over "buoyant and exuberant strength" or to lament over "dreary groups seething with inarticulate discontent"—has been too much for sober judgment.

Yet the book is not sufficiently inconsistent to be impartial; and this brings us to an even graver defect. The impression which as a whole it produces is that of panegyric alternating with special pleading. The keynote is struck in the preface, where we are reminded that Mr. Green's own "brilliant sketch of the early life of English towns" was "inspired by ardent sympathy and emotion." Mrs. Green evidently aspires to continue his work. But until we are pretty certain of the fundamental facts and relations, "ardent sympathy and emotion" are precisely the qualities most in the way. The reason why the student of physical science only too often despises history is just this—that it has been written with "emotion." Even Mrs. Green would agree that the accounts hitherto given of *other* mediæval institutions—for instance, of the Church—are largely vitiated by "sympathy." When she herself comes to treat of the labor question and the crafts and the guild merchant, in her second volume, she confesses that there is much that is still obscure. Would it not be well to keep our feelings well in hand until we have more light? As it is, the reader who goes to these volumes must be prepared to find the boroughs always in the right, whether in their difficulties with the royal government, the church, or the crafts. To all these powers the meanest motives are freely attributed. And yet, when we reflect that royal administration, church, and crafts all indubitably contributed valuable elements to progress, and that the lot of those countries, like Germany, where the towns gained more of their own way, was not altogether satisfactory, we cannot help feeling that such partisanship is no safe guide.

Secularism: its Progress and its Morals. By John M. Bonham, author of 'Industrial Liberty.' G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1894.

The philosophy of secularism has never been set forth more gravely and effectively than in Mr. Bonham's book. His main contention is that the scientific and industrial environment tends to the substitution of scientific conceptions for metaphysical and theological notions, to a belief in natural law as opposed to the belief in supernatural agency. He lays much stress on the impersonal character of the influence of the environment. It does not arouse the antagonism excited by anti-theological assaults like those of Bradlaugh and Ingersoll, neither of whom is named, though they, and such as they, are clearly in the writer's mind. In the development of this idea and elsewhere throughout the book there is much interesting and suggestive matter; but for one so resolutely anti-metaphysical in his purpose Mr. Bonham has a singularly metaphysical mind. He deals in abstractions and deductions much more freely than in the concrete and inductive method of science. His two chapters on "Intuition" are notable in this respect.

Much better, partly because so much more definite, are the two chapters which follow, "Advanced Theology" and "Qualified Science." He is much more concerned with the inconsistencies of those thinkers who profess to welcome the discoveries of science and to square their theology with them, than he is with the ultra-conservatives. He has many things upon this head that are worthy of the most serious consideration on the part of those to whom they are addressed. The chapter on "Qualified Science" is for the benefit of Mr.

Herbert Spencer in the main. It finds him, if not "very religious" as St. Paul is now translated, "too superstitious" as he was translated formerly. Mr. Bonham's is one more of many admirable criticisms on Spencer's reconciliation of science and religion on a basis of common ignorance. That Spencer, setting out to build a system of philosophy that should be a synthesis of the sciences, should have quarried his foundations from the rotten-stone of Mansel's metaphysical 'Limits of Religious Thought' is the comic tragedy of contemporary speculation. But that his present critic, if less metaphysical, is less religious than Mr. Spencer in his implications is by no means clear. He says: "All thinking men agree that there is a power beyond us which mundane experiences in themselves do not enable us to define." He solicits for this power no reverence, but, as the power that is at the back of all those laws of nature which are so impressive to his imagination, reverence for it would seem to be inevitable. He has his own teleology, for he is ready enough to tell us that "Nature meant" this and that; and such teleology only needs to spell its subject with three letters instead of six to be something very like theology.

He must not be astonished if a good many of his readers do not think that he has made an end of all religion. There are a great many people whose rejection of supernatural religion is quite as definite and intelligent as his own, who believe in the reality of religion nevertheless. To fancy that these can all be routed by an attack on some individual position of Canon Farrar or the 'Scotch Sermons' of 1880 is a flagrant instance of reckoning without one's host. In the course of the discussion, the term "supersensual" is often used to express the sphere of the unknown and unknowable. Yet Mr. Bonham must be aware that the scientific use of the imagination has added to the sphere of science a supersensual region of indefinite extent. Besides, there is a supersensual world of thought and feeling which may properly excite something of that reverence which is Mr. Bonham's "last enemy to be destroyed."

The two chapters on ethics contain some of the clearest thinking and the strongest criticism in the book, showing, as they do, how contradictory are the ethics of the Christian world and the ethical teachings of the New Testament. In no respect does Mr. Bonham write better than concerning the ethics of the intellect—the duty of believing only what we must, and leaving others free to do the same. So eloquent is he against all arbitrary authority, all fencing off of some things as sacred and inviolable, that Lucretia Mott's favorite sentence, "Truth for authority, not authority for truth," might well have been the motto of his book. The sincerity of the believer and the consolation inherent in his belief as sanctions of its truth are well discussed, and with results extremely damaging to time-honored fallacies. As a whole, the book is one to send back the apologists for traditional opinions on their reserves. They cannot meet it with their ordinary thin array. If the manner of the book were equal to its matter, it would be much more impressive. That even then it would make the author's world without religion attractive to the noblest minds, or persuade them that the most characteristic aspect of human nature has been the most unreal, we have some serious doubts.

Autobiography and Letters of George Henry Pertz, Editor of the Monumenta Germanica. Edited by his wife. London. Privately printed. 8vo, pp. 226.

AMERICAN students at the University of Berlin between 1842 and 1872 remember Pertz as the dignified and learned superintendent of the Royal Library. To a much wider circle he is known as the patient and admiring biographer of Prussia's great statesman, in the Napoleonic period, Baron vom Stein, and also as the biographer of Gneisenau. But his highest claim to remembrance is the service that he rendered to German history by editing and publishing the long series of historical memoirs, 'Scriptores, Leges, Diplomata,' which is known in all great libraries under the title of 'Monumenta Germaniæ Historica.' Dr. Pertz belonged to the class of scholars who early make choice of a career, under favorable circumstances, and adhere thereto with unflinching fidelity and industry, indifferent to the applause of the multitude, and satisfied by the consciousness of rendering lasting benefit to future generations. So long as men study the mediæval history of Germany, it will be necessary to consult that row of folio volumes which he initiated, and edited for many years, and which is still increasing under the control of younger men. Heeren gave him the impulse, saying to his student in Göttingen (who thought of writing a life of Louis the Pious), "Do not occupy yourself with modern books, but go to the contemporary sources of history, and a light will dawn upon you." Stein gave him opportunity by inviting him in 1819 to undertake the historians of the Carlovingian period, and proposing that he should go and examine the manuscripts to be found in South Germany and Vienna, at the expense of the newly founded "Society of those who are interested and learned in German history." Recognition of his ability soon came in other quarters, and the rest of his life was tranquil and secure, crowned with honors to its close in 1876, in his eighty-second year.

The volume before us gives the portrait of a modest, learned, and able scholar, who, like many other librarians and editors, cared more to rescue from oblivion historical papers than to construct upon them readable summaries, either biographical or historical. It was a curious incident of his boyhood that when Hanover, his native town, was held in subjection by the French army (in 1813), the French prefect, being a man who appreciated learning, offered to the schoolboys, as a prize, freedom from conscription. This prize fell to Pertz, whose subsequent life was devoted, indirectly, to intensifying the love of German unity, and whose son Hermann, nearly sixty years later, led a company of two hundred pioneers from Hanover to Strasbourg at the beginning of the war of 1870-71.

In Berlin, where he resided after 1842, Pertz was in the centre of all that made the Prussian capital the home of learning. Humboldt, Ritter, the Grimms, Ranke, Lepsius, Ehrenberg, Rose, Trendelenburg, Boeckh are among the names that then gave lustre to intellectual society. There are many glimpses of that life, and a few also of that of the court circles. Here, for example, is a visit to Frederick Wilhelm IV., at Sans-souci, in 1842: "The King sent for me. He was cheerful at dinner, made inquiries on several literary subjects—the history of the Guelphs, and the archives of Hanover. The Queen spoke with me feelingly about Niebuhr's letters, his character, and his children. Then I had a long talk with Humboldt. We discussed the latest scientific and political events." Here is a meeting of the Academy, where Raumer and Ranke "entertained the King and two Princes with a refutation of the charge that Frederick II. was the most immoral of sovereigns." "Raumer spoke with less indecision than in his history. Ranke [famous for his rapid utterance] was not understood by many, but seemed to endeavor to be distinct, and Steffens pulled his coat-tail whenever he hurried too much." Here are some incidents of the uprising in 1848: "At this moment, the King is riding through the streets and he is proclaimed Emperor of Germany. May God protect him" "The King protested earnestly, and refused to accept the title." "We must now strain every nerve to stand together firmly united in opposition to the threatened subversion of everything. The question is whether we, as a free and great people, shall stand united, or, despising history, shall for a second time fall dismembered." Here is mention of Bismarck in 1862. Pertz writes:

"I spent Wednesday evening with Prof. Sybel at L. Ranke's. The conversation turned, of course, mostly upon our politics; no one could tell what turn things might take. Since the King has appointed Bismarck President of his Cabinet and Minister of Foreign Affairs, Count Bernstorff and Van der Heydt have resigned. Bismarck was formerly a decided ultra-aristocrat, but is said to have improved since and turned more to the liberal side, after the experience which he had in Frankfort. Time alone will show what the country will have in him. He is thought to be very bold and determined, which is a quality of doubtful value."

In England as well as in Prussia, Dr. Pertz was at home, having married Miss Horner in 1854. This marriage and his antiquarian researches brought him often into intimate relations with many of the leading personages in literary and scientific circles. In Bavaria he also made repeated visits during the latter part of his life.

This volume, being almost wholly autobiographic, does not give any critical estimate of the work of Dr. Pertz—that must be sought elsewhere; but it does convey the impression of a sincere character, devoted through a long life to a high ideal, with constantly increasing tokens of admiration and respect not only from his own countrymen, but from historical scholars in France, Italy, and England. Of his domestic life, one who knew him well has said:

"He was a man of strong affections, of a keen, even enthusiastic nature, although he had obtained so complete a mastery over himself that, except upon occasions, few would suspect the warmth which lay beneath his calm exterior; a patriotic sentiment, the call of friendship, or a touch of tenderness towards his own family alone betraying the impetuosity of his feelings."

The Journal of Martha Pintard Bayard, London, 1794 to 1797. Edited by S. Bayard Dod. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1894.

IF history is the essence of biographies, surely the domestic and social history of past days must be written from such simple, truthful, and hence vivid records of daily life as are given in this century-old journal of Mrs. Bayard. She was the young, gently bred wife of Samuel Bayard, who was appointed by Washington to prosecute in the British Admiralty Courts the claims of American citizens under the Jay treaty. She had from her childhood "been taught to regard the British as enemies," and never grew accustomed to living among them, but longed constantly for her far-away home. She recorded in very good concise English and a very naïve literary style many interesting details of her stay in Eng-

land, of court life, and of "persons of honour and quality," such as we have read in the printed letters of other American women of those same years—the letters of Mrs. Elliot and of Lady Cathcart and Lady Carnegie. Mrs. Bayard told also the trivial events of every-day life—the food, service, methods of travel, diversions of the past century, and what she calls the "tip of the modes." Finally, she gave some intelligent and spirited descriptions of foreign scenes, such as of Bath and Ranelagh. Old James Howell says that "letters shew the inside of a man"; such diaries as this show still more truly the inner life of a woman—in this case of an acute, religious, lovable, highly patriotic, eighteenth-century American woman.

An agreeable and useful addition to this book would have been notes of identification and explanation of the many interesting persons referred to. The book is illustrated with portraits of the diary-writer and her husband.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aitken, G. A. Richard Steele. [Mermaid Series.] London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Baily, W. E. Dramatic Poems. Philadelphia: The Author.
Barlow, Miss Jane. Kerrigan's Quality. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Barr, Mrs. Amelia E. The Lone House. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Baumann, Oscar. Durch Massailand zur Nilquelle. Berlin: Dietrich Reimer.
Bayne, Prof. T. S. Shakspere Studies, and Essays on English Dictionaries. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.50.
Benoist, Charles. La Politique. Paris: Léon Chailley.
Bernhart, Wilhelm. Schiller's Gustav Adolf in Deutschland. Boston: Carl Schoenhof.
Binet, Alfred. The Psychic Life of Micro-Organisms. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Boldrewood, Rolf. A Modern Buccaneer. Macmillan. $1.25.
Bower, Capt. Hamilton. Diary of a Journey Across Tibet. Macmillan. $3.75.
Bradford, Rev. A. H. The Question of Unity. Christian Literature Co. 75 cents.
Clark, T. M. Building Superintendence. 12th ed. Macmillan. $3.
Cooke-Taylor, R. W. The Factory System and the Factory Acts. London: Methuen & Co.
Coleman, J. B., and Addyman, F. T. Practical Agricultural Chemistry. Longmans, Green & Co. 50 cents.
Columbus Memorial Volume. Benziger Bros.
Coppée, F. Henriette. Paris: Lemerre; New York: Meyer & Co.
DeMille, James. Cord and Creese. Harpers. 60 cents.
Douglas, James. Canadian Independence. [Questions of the Day.] Putnams. 75 cents.
Ellis, F. S. The History of Reynard the Fox. London: David Nutt.
Fallen Angels. London: Gay & Bird.
Farrar, Rev. F. W. The Second Book of Kings. [Expositor's Bible.] Armstrong. $1.50.
Fijnje van Salverda, J. G. W. Aërial Navigation. Appletons.
Grossmith, G. and W. The Diary of a Nobody. Lovell, Coryell & Co. 50 cents.
Habberton, John. Helen's Babies. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Herron, Prof. G. D. The Christian Society. F. H. Revell Co. $1.
Joyce, P. W. Old Celtic Romances. London: David Nutt; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Koenig, E. A. Wooing a Widow. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.25.
Landon, Joseph. The Principles and Practice of Teaching and Class Management. Macmillan. $1.60.
Lecky, W. E. H. The Empire: Its Value and Growth. Longmans, Green & Co. 50 cents
Macritchie, David. Scottish Gypsies under the Stewarts. Edinburgh: David Douglas.
Mantegazza, Paolo. The Art of Taking a Wife. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Minton, M. M. Country Lanes and City Pavements. American News Co. 50 cents.
Mitchell, D. G. My Farm at Edgewood. Scribners. 75 cents.
Mott, H. A. The Yachts and Yachtsmen of America. Vol. I. International Yacht Publishing Co. $15.
Moureau, Adrien. Antonio Canal, dit Le Canaletto [Les Artistes Célèbres.] Paris: *L'Art*; New York Macmillan.
Ohnet, Georges. Le Droit de l'Enfant. 8th ed. Paris Ollendorff; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.
Perry, Bliss. Salem Kittredge, and Other Stories. Scribners. $1.
Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society. Second Series, Vol. VIII. Boston: Published by the Society.
Proceedings of the National Conference for Good City Government. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.
Ragg, F. W. Quorsum? The Cry of Human Suffering London: Rivington, Percival & Co.
Ribot, Prof. Th. The Diseases of the Will. Chicago *Open Court* Publishing Co. 75 cents.
Roberts, Douglas. Ritual of the Knights of Pythias. Dick & Fitzgerald.
Robinson, E. A., and Wall, G. A. The Gun Bearer. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.25.
Shuman, E. L. Steps into Journalism. Evanston, Ill.: Correspondence School of Journalism. $1.25.
Skeat, Prof. W. W. The Complete Works of Geoffrey Chaucer. Vol. II. Boethius and Troilus. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $4.
Snap Shots with an Old Maid's Kodak. Snap Shot Publisher. $1.
Soissons, S. C. de. Boston Artists: A Parisian Critic's Notes. Boston: Schoenhof.
Spencer, W. G. A System of Lucid Shorthand. Appletons.
Todd, Alpheus. Parliamentary Government in the British Colonies. 2d ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $10.
Totten, C. A. L. Our Race. New Haven: Our Race Publishing Co. 75 cents.
Willard, Frances E., and Norton, Minerva B. A Great Mother: Sketches of Madam Willard. Chicago: Woman's Temperance Publishing Association.
Wolf, Annie. The Truth about Beauty. Lovell, Coryell & Co. 50 cents.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 31, 1894.

The Week.

On Tuesday the House, in committee of the whole, voted to strike out the appropriation for the civil-service commission, by 109 to 71. Much hand-clapping and cheering followed the announcement of the vote. On Thursday, when a yea-and-nay vote was called for in the House, the appropriation was put back into the bill by a vote of 153 to 80, but there is no record of any cheering. One would think that the spoilsmen would get sick of this annual farce. Everybody knows that they hate the civil-service law, and there is no need of such impotent making of faces and shaking of fists to prove that. Everybody knows, too, that they do not dare go on record as nullifiers of the law by withholding the money necessary to execute it, and there is no need of their demonstrating that over and over again. The exhibition has ceased to be even comic.

What possible comfort Senator Vest can find in confessing to the cowardly surrender which he and the other members of the finance committee made to the protectionist highwaymen who "held up" the Wilson bill, it is hard to imagine. He does it again and again in open Senate, as if it somehow afforded him great relief. Last Saturday he stated explicitly that "the members of the committee who were framing the tariff" were "informed" that the bill they had reported "could not be adopted," and he spoke excitedly of the changes which had been "forced upon the committee." Probably he means, by such remarks, to stir up resentment in the party at the handful of men who have McKinleyized its tariff in the Senate. That result he will very likely accomplish, but at the same time he will inevitably brand himself and his fellow-members of the finance committee with hopeless incompetence and weakness. He does not seem to perceive how humiliating a thing it is that four or five men should have been able to bring to naught the work of the committee and the professions and aims of the party. The worst of it is that the threats which brought the frightened committee to its knees were all the while empty, and could have been successfully met by an unyielding front. The surrender was really needless; but even if it were not, it would have been better to stand firm and pass no bill at all than to agree upon a measure for which no one but its direct beneficiaries has a word to say, and for which not even they have a shred of respect left.

A gigantic effort to do something for silver was made in the Senate last Friday, but was strangely ignored in the press reports. The section of the tariff relating to "metal thread of gold, silver, or other metals" came along, and was going through without objection, when Mr. Quay moved that the duty on gold thread be left as it was, 25 per cent. ad valorem, but that the rate on silver thread be fixed at 100 per cent. He said that his amendment was "in the interest of silver." A hint of that kind was enough for the champion friend of silver from Massachusetts, Senator Lodge, and though he was unable to vote, being paired with Senator Hill—*par nobile fratrum*, as they used to say at Harvard—he expressed his entire approval of the scheme. It was such a transparent bit of humbuggery that not even Peffer would vote for it, and five Republicans voted openly against it, the total vote being 10 for to 37 against. But the chance to make a record was not yet lost, for the next paragraph concerned "silver leaf," and here again Quay moved to make the duty 100 per cent. Lodge was able to vote this time, as Senator Hill had come in; and he and Hoar and all the other Republicans voting, except Hawley and Teller, came up valiantly "in the interest of silver." Quay himself seems to have regarded the matter as a huge joke, and ran off into the cloak-room without voting, leaving it to the solemn New England Senators to make fools of themselves. But what a tremendous boom for the Republican nomination on a silver platform Lodge is getting ready! Commercial war with England, to force her to the silver standard, 100 per cent. duty on silver thread and silver leaf—on such a record alone he could make the Presidential race without writing another reform article for the magazines.

One of the neat little tricks played by the woollen-manufacturers in the McKinley bill is now coming home to plague them. In that "scientific" tariff they wrote in for themselves a specific duty equal to four times the duty per pound on wool and in addition 50 per cent. ad valorem. The specific duty was "compensatory"—that is, as it took four pounds of raw wool to make one pound of cloth, the four-fold duty only made up for the tariff on the raw material, and the real protection was found only in the 50 per cent. ad valorem. Now comes the Senate bill leaving out the compensatory specific duty, of course, as there is to be no tax on wool to compensate for, and giving a rate of 40 per cent. ad valorem on the finished product. But the woollen-manufacturers cry out as one man that this means ruin to them. "What," ask the astonished committee, "can't you stand one-fifth off your former protection, admitted to be high?" Then the manufacturers draw the Senators off into a corner and say: "The fact is, we lied when we said it took four pounds of wool to make one pound of cloth; it really takes considerably less than three, and the biggest part of our protection lay in the specific duty." So at least says the *Wool and Cotton Reporter*, and adds:

> "The proper thing to do now for manufacturers is to confess to a little deception regarding the make-up of the specific duty, admit the truth, and ask for recognition of actual facts. The protection was needed, and the only sin committed was in the way it was obtained."

The House committee on the subject has reported favorably a resolution to amend the Federal Constitution by taking the choice of United States Senators from the Legislatures and giving it to the people. The committee hold that the necessity for such a change has increased since a similar resolution passed the lower branch of the last Congress without a dissenting vote, and that the action of the Senate during the present Congress has intensified popular feeling in favor of the proposition. The House will doubtless again endorse the scheme, and the Senate again bury it in committee. The extent of the popular demand is exaggerated by its advocates, although the proposition has met with increasing favor of late years. To amend the Constitution, however, is so difficult a process that nothing short of an overwhelming public sentiment will surmount the obstacles, and such a sentiment does not yet exist. It is one of those questions about which most people would like some evidence before they make up their minds that a change would be a good thing, and fortunately its advocates can furnish such evidence without changing the Constitution. Election by popular vote means only the election of one or another of two candidates nominated by party conventions, and conventions can nominate candidates for Senators without an amendment to the Constitution. The only difference is, that a party would then name its man to be voted for at the polls as in the case of a Governor, whereas now it can name the man and instruct its members of the Legislature to support him, which they can be trusted to do. This produces the same result, except in the rare cases where gerrymanders give the Governor to one party and the Legislature to the other. If the people really want Senators chosen by popu-

lar vote, we shall see party conventions generally nominating candidates in this way.

We are glad the platform of the Pennsylvania Republicans "recommends an expansion of the circulating medium of the country until the same shall amount to $40 per capita of our population." It is now only $34 per capita. Six dollars more per capita would, we think, lift us promptly out of our present slough of despond. But it ought to be distributed at the treasury, sub-treasury, and post-offices "directly to the people." The reason why the present $34 per capita does us so little good is, that the banks and gold-bugs have got hold of it all and refuse to give it up except for goods, or, what is the same thing as goods, collateral. Consequently it is useless to the great body of the people; for how few of us have got any collateral! With six dollars more apiece put into every man's and woman's pocket by the United States marshal or other federal official, we think we see a bright future for America. Having got them, however, we must hold on to them. If we part with them, the gold-bugs are sure to get hold of them, and we should be no better off than ever. They should be hidden somewhere about the house, and not allowed, as is too often the case, to dribble into banks and trust companies.

The chief interest of outsiders in the Alabama Democratic State Convention last week centred in its attitude toward the Cleveland administration; but its position toward vital issues in the affairs of the commonwealth also merits attention. Alabama is one of the Southern States which have not yet abolished the evil system of hiring out convicts to contractors, but the convention pledged the party to efforts at reforming its abuses. The growing hold of the public-school system upon the people is shown by the fact that a resolution was adopted promising to increase the appropriations for its support whenever the financial condition of the State will permit. An election law based upon the Australian system was passed by the last Legislature, which will have its first trial in the choice of State officers next August. The Convention declared that this law "was intended to obtain at the ballot-box a full and free expression of the popular will," and, in case a trial should show that it failed to accomplish this end, pledged the party to make such changes and alterations as should be shown to be necessary. The feeling in favor of election reform is growing throughout the South. Popular sentiment in Louisiana calls for the passage of a law introducing the Australian system in that State by the Legislature now in session, and the progressive newspapers of Florida are agitating for similar action by the Legislature which is to be chosen in that State this year.

It seems a great pity that, when the Ohio Republicans began electing McKinley Governor with a view of keeping him on the track for the Presidential race, they could not also have named a man to look after the duties of the executive office. These are enough to engage the undivided attention of any man, but McKinley, of course, has little time left for them after attending to the exacting requirements of a Presidential boom. The consequence is that the reputation of the State is suffering severely. During the last few months there have been repeated cases of the lynching of black men by white, but nothing has been done towards punishing the offenders and thus arresting the tendency towards lawlessness. The penal, reformatory, and charitable institutions of the State are in a bad way, and there are shocking scandals about some of them. It appears that the Dayton asylum for the insane is not allowed a large enough appropriation to purchase sufficient food for the inmates. Two of the higher officials of the penitentiary recently engaged in a brutal fist-fight in the presence of hundreds of convicts who were assembled to take part in religious worship, and the deputy warden has just filed forty charges against his chief, covering a number of offences, any one of which is just cause for removal. Meanwhile, McKinley's eyes are so firmly fixed upon 1896 that misgovernment, official scandals, and lynchings in 1894 never attract his notice.

So many of the proposed amendments to the State Constitution that are offered to the convention at Albany are merely tentative in character, or "introduced by request," that serious consideration of them is not called for. One, however, proposes so serious a backward step that its character should not be overlooked. It provides that no bill shall become a law after the adjournment of the Legislature; that is, that the Governor must act on all measures before the hour of adjournment is reached, just as the President is called to do on the business of Congress. We presume that this change is proposed because of the vexation felt by members of the Legislature over the veto of bills after the adjournment, when there is no chance to repass them. But the adoption of this amendment would only produce at Albany the scenes witnessed at Washington during the closing hours of a Congress, when the President, betaking himself to the capitol, adds his signature to many of the most important measures of the session, including big appropriation bills, without any opportunity for the practical consideration of them. Before the adoption of the amendments of 1874, a Governor of this State could sign or veto a bill at any time within the year of its passage. Gov. Dix disposed of some of the most important bills in his hands in the December after their passage. An amendment adopted in 1874 limited the time within which he could approve of a bill after the final adjournment of the Legislature to thirty days. There seems to be no good reason for changing this. If it be deemed advisable that the Legislature should have an opportunity to pass on all vetoed measures, it could take a recess for ten days after its business was completed, and meet again simply to receive communications from the Governor. If Judge Nott's recent decision is upheld, even the President will have ten days in which to pass upon bills after Congress adjourns.

It is evident from the declaration of Mayor Gilroy that Tammany will do all it can to prevent approval of the new rapid-transit bill, signed by Gov. Flower, at the polls in November, and this fact should be kept in mind by its advocates. We do not believe there is any reason to fear an adverse verdict at the polls, but it would be a serious mistake to underestimate Tammany's ability and ingenuity as an opponent. The mayor's excited opinion of the bill as the "most pernicious law that has been placed on the statute books," and his belief that "it will be held to be unconstitutional by the courts," are valuable simply as revelations of Tammany hostility. His utterances mean that Tammany sees in the plan a death-blow to all hope of a colossal job, which the building of the road as a public work at the city expense would make of it; and consequently Tammany will fight to defeat it with every resource at its command. There could be no higher evidence adduced of the meritorious quality of a plan for public improvement than the declaration of a Tammany mayor and prospective Tammany boss that "it fails properly to guard the public interests," and will call for the unnecessary expenditure of many millions of dollars. The honest portion of the public will offset this prejudiced view with the favorable opinions of the Chamber of Commerce and such authorities on public affairs as ex-Mayor Hewitt.

The subject of the fourth biography in the illustrated series of lives of Tammany worthies which the *World* is publishing, is John J. Scannell, the man whom Mayor Gilroy made a fire commissioner. Full particulars of his career as the keeper of notorious resorts, leader of a gang of thugs, and murderer, are set forth, with pictures of the scene of his crime and of "Murderers' Row" in the Tombs, showing the

cells in which he and Croker were incarcerated at the same time under similar accusations. The sketch is as remarkable in its way as were those of Croker and "Barney" Martin and "Paddy" Divver which preceded it. We presume that Scannell will receive it in silence, as Croker, Martin, and Divver received theirs. He knows as well as they did that with Tammany followers revelations of this kind do no harm. A life of criminal activity as a preparation for public office is a recognized part of the Tammany creed. What respectable people think about their careers does not trouble Croker, or Martin, or Divver, or Scannell, for such people would not vote for them under any conditions. All they ask of this portion of the community is that it adhere to its passion for "straight tickets," thus keeping itself divided into two harmless factions and making it possible for graduates of Murderers' Row to continue to administer the government of the city. So long as the honest portion of the community continues in this policy, biographies and pictures have no terrors to the Tammany leaders.

The *Tribune* asked last week:

"But who is accountable for the conditions of social discontent prevailing throughout the United States, which rendered possible the recruitment of the tramp brigades?"

This is apropos of the strong desire of all the tramps in the United States to get to Washington. It is this desire which is making all the disturbances all over the Union. It is what has led to all the train-stealing, and marching, and levying of contributions on the hapless farmers along the road. The "Coxey movement" is, in fact, a movement on Washington. To reach Washington is the one aim of all the "armies." If we can discover, therefore, who it is that has been teaching the people of the United States during the past thirty years that all prosperity must come from Washington; that without the help of Washington there cannot be steady employment and fair wages for the laborer, or reasonable profits for the capitalist; that when you are poor and unfortunate in business, you should write to your Congressman or appear before the committee and "demand a hearing" — if we can find out who did this, we shall find out who is accountable for those expressions of "social discontent" known as "Coxeyism" and "Populism." Both these rely on Washington to get them out of their troubles. Who is it? The *Tribune* knows well, and if the Great Father who presides over that paper would let his young men answer reasonable questions, we should have much fun.

Despite the attempts to tax it out of existence, the oleomargarine industry continues to grow. There are now issued 283 wholesale and 6,396 retail dealers' licenses under the internal-revenue department, and the tax of 2 cents a pound yields the Government more than $400,000 a year. It has thus been shown that this new product really "met a long-felt want," in the shape of a cheaper substitute for butter. Even the dairy farmers are beginning to recognize the uselessness of fighting against it. Senator Manderson of Nebraska has introduced a bill to permit manufacturers to pack their product in one-pound packages instead of ten pounds, and use tin cases as well as wooden and paper. The cases must still be labelled, but the proposed changes would enable dealers to sell to small families as well as large consumers, and to export their goods in tins. The Senator says that he has been advised to advocate these changes not only by manufacturers of oleomargarine, but also by farmers and dairymen, who have found that their fright a few years ago was unnecessary, and that good butter does not suffer in price from the increasing use of the substitute. The raid of legislative authority upon oleomargarine has been a gross abuse of power, and it turns out to be as fruitless as it was unjustifiable.

Surely we have a very bloodthirsty navy. Most Christian and humane men either are glad, or pay homage to religion and humanity by pretending to be glad, that they have not been called on, even in their country's interest, to kill people and destroy property. But Capt. Picking, the commander of the *Charleston*, said last week, at a dinner given to him in Baltimore on Monday evening, that "he was sorry he did not have the opportunity [down at Rio Janeiro] to use the force placed at his command." This means that he did not have the opportunity—that is, that nobody gave him cause—to deal out death and destruction on the people around him, either ashore or afloat. Had he done so, it would doubtless have furnished entertainment for thousands of people at home, although our books are full of horror over the Romans for having gladiatorial shows. There is not the smallest likelihood in our time of our having a naval war anywhere except for the purpose of furnishing amusement to people on shore and "copy" for the newspapers, and yet we suppose large bodies of people who go to church would hail it with keen delight.

The dinner given to Admiral Erben and Capt. Mahan of the *Chicago* in London on Thursday, although undoubtedly meant in the main as a return for the hospitality with which British officers were received here last year, was in a considerable degree an acknowledgment of the immense impression made on the English mind by Capt. Mahan's book on the 'Sea Power.' No American book of recent date has had so wide a circulation among the class which does not read or care for literature in general, and especially light literature. It has found its way into all the naval and military and sporting circles, and has had a powerful influence in support of the demand for an increase in the navy. In fact, no such tribute to the British navy and to navies in general, as instruments of national power, has ever been paid. It will always stand in the front rank of historical as well as strategical discussion. But its influence on the mind of the author has been just as marked as on the mind of the British public. In writing the wonderful story of the British fight for maritime supremacy, he has persuaded himself that his own country ought to follow the same career, and provide herself with a string of dependencies all over the globe to fight for and defend—another proof of the old adage that there is "nothing new under the sun." Could the fathers of the republic have foreseen in 1789 what the views of a great many of us as to the conditions of national greatness would be to-day, how sad it would have made them.

The German press is apparently up in arms against the plan of handing Samoa over to the New Zealanders; and from the commercial point of view the Germans are right. They have got most of the trade and most of the land of the island, and are abundantly able by themselves to control the natives. They would probably like nothing better than the withdrawal of the British and Americans, and the surrender of the islands to German management; but what are the "ethics" of the matter it is difficult to see. In dealing with all these barbarous states, some ethical theory is absolutely necessary for a civilized Power. In our treatment of Hawaii we appeared, not as the owners of the land, but as the champions of chastity and pure religion. Now, the Germans make no pretence of caring a kreutzer about the personal morals of the Samoan chiefs, and would as soon have the people worship stocks and stones as anything else. They are openly "on the make." But can Great Britain and America surrender an island to people who publicly profess indifference to the morality of the inhabitants? If the Germans get full control, in fact, the only home of virtue and orthodoxy on the island will be our "coaling station," known as Pago-Pago, which has now so little coal in it that there will be plenty of room for Samoans disgusted with the licentiousness of their compatriots.

CHAIRMAN SPRINGER ON BANKING.

MR. SPRINGER, chairman of the committee on banking and currency in the House, made a speech on Saturday setting forth first his ideas of what ought not to exist in the way of bank-notes in this country. There ought not to be any State bank-notes. This he proves by a long history of the heterogeneous issues of State banks and their frequent failures before the war. His picture is not overdrawn, except that his allusions to the good bank-notes are so slight as to leave the impression that they were very few in number, whereas they were far more numerous than the bad ones in the two decades immediately preceding the war. But as to heterogeneousness, which is an evil by itself, even when the notes are good, Mr. Springer is entirely right. Nor is there any reason to suppose that this evil would now be less if the 10 per cent. tax on State-bank issues were repealed, although banking would be better. It would be better because public opinion on the subject of banking is far clearer and more pronounced now than it was before the war. This is an improvement, due mainly to the national banking system. This system has cultivated a taste for clean banking. It has taught the present generation to be intolerant of the slovenly methods and practices which prevailed in large sections of the country before the war—prevailed simply because the public in those sections demanded nothing better. But variety is not the spice of life in bank-note issues. There is no more reason why we should have two thousand different forms of bank-note engraving (in adtion to five thousand counterfeits) than there is for having two thousand different forms of the gold eagle or the silver half-dollar. Yet nobody can guarantee us against such heterogeneousness if the 10 per cent. tax is repealed.

When Mr. Springer comes to the constructive part of his discourse, we are not able to agree with him and we can scarcely understand him. At first he seems to be aiming at a new system of bank-note issues, but he tells us that it is a new system of Government notes for which the banks are to be merely agencies of distribution. He quotes Mr. Webster as saying that it is the constitutional duty of this Government to see that a proper currency, suitable to the circumstances of the times and to the wants of trade and business, be maintained and preserved. This opinion of "the great expounder of the Constitution" is eulogized, and then Mr. Springer proceeds:

> "Conceding, therefore, that a national currency may be issued under the authority of the Government of the United States, let us consider how we can best distribute that currency to the people."

The germ of Webster's idea was that the duty was incumbent on Congress of providing the methods for the issuing of a national currency. The method that he had in view was a United States bank. The idea, as translated by Mr. Springer, is that the Government ought to issue the currency itself, and he is only concerned as to a choice of methods. Three such occur to him. One is for the Treasury to "lend money to the people." Another is to print greenbacks and pay them out for Government expenses in lieu of taxation. Both of these are condemned. The third is to employ banks, but the banks are to act only as Government agents; for, according to Mr. Springer, "a bank of discount and deposit has no necessary relation to the currency any more than it has to the coins of the country; you might as well claim, because the banks receive deposits and loan money, that they shall have the right to coin money and to issue coins with their own stamp upon them. There is no necessary relation between them." Of course not. Who said there was? There is no necessary relation between shirts and collars, but it is very convenient to have them together. This question is not one of necessity, but of convenience to the public. Experience has shown that it is a public convenience for banks of discount and deposit to issue and redeem circulating notes of a fiduciary character, because they alone can discount commercial paper and thus adapt the volume of notes to the wants of business.

Mr. Springer's plan of bank agency in the issuing of Government notes is the present national banking system with two variations. These are: (1) that 20 per cent. of the deposited security for bank issues must be in coin, (2) that the other 80 per cent. may be in bonds of the United States, or of any State, county, parish, city, or town which have not been quoted in the market below 95 during the two years preceding their acceptance as such security. The notes are to be issued in three series, A, B, and C. Series A is to consist of notes corresponding to the amount of coin deposited, *i. e.*, 20 per cent. of the whole, and is to pay a tax of two-tenths of one per cent. per annum. Series B, which shall be equal to 60 per cent. of all the currency issued to the bank, shall pay a tax of one per cent. per annum. Series C, the remainder, shall pay a tax of four per cent. per annum.

These provisions are designed to secure elasticity to the currency, on the theory that the banks will adjust their issues according to the tax they have to pay on their notes. First they will issue the 20 per cent. because the tax is very small. Then they will issue the 60 per cent., or whatever part is needed, when business is brisk. Then they will issue the remaining 20 per cent. in times of financial stringency, and when the demand for money is very strong, and will retire it as soon as possible on account of the heavy tax. This is Mr. Springer's idea of elasticity in the currency.

The want of elasticity in the present system is really due to the requirement that the bank shall lock up in public securities the capital with which it ought to be discounting commercial paper. To cure this evil, Mr. Springer proposes "a hair of the dog that bit you." That is, he proposes that 20 per cent. of the deposited security shall be in coin, which draws no interest, and that on 20 per cent. more (if currency is issued) there shall be a tax of 4 per cent. per annum. This would leave only 60 per cent. of the circulation in as elastic a state as it is now, the remaining 40 per cent. being stiffer than ever. Such a system, if it could by any possibility pass Congress, would never go into operation, because the banks would never take out the notes on the terms proposed. Bankers are not in business for their health any more than other people. There is no profit to speak of in the present system; that is the reason why it is moribund. There would be less profit under the proposed system; therefore it would be born dead.

"I have carefully examined," says Mr. Springer, "the banking systems of the whole civilized world, and those systems which have come and gone in the past. Nowhere has a currency ever been issued heretofore so well and so perfectly secured as would be the notes under the bill which I have proposed." We are reminded of the saying of another Illinois statesman, that he had mastered the science of finance in two weeks' time, which led him to support the inflation bill that was vetoed by President Grant. Such hasty acquirement of the science of banking would be apt to lead its votary unduly to magnify security for note issues, as a man may be prevented from seeing a mountain by holding a ten-cent piece too near his eye.

THE SENATE "FREE LUNCH" TARIFF.

SENATOR GORMAN is better at concocting dishonest schemes than he is at defending them. His true rôle is silent indifference to popular and party clamor. To allow himself to be forced to take the floor in his own defence, as he did on Thursday, is both to assume responsibility and to lay himself open to damaging retort; and those things the politicians of the subterranean school always do well to avoid. His speech in explanation of the party betrayal, of which he is the chief author, only leaves the Senate tariff bill worse off than ever, and, in fact, justifies the description of it attributed to the cynical Senator Brice as a bill made up not on the principles of free trade, but on those of a "free lunch."

None of the contentions put forward by Mr. Gorman in behalf of the high-protectionist bill which he now fathers will bear examination. His charge that

the Wilson bill was hastily considered, and therefore necessarily imperfect, is based upon a comparison of dates which is entirely misleading. The present Congress had a great advantage in time over the McKinley Congress. It was called in extra session on the 7th of August, and got all the work of organization off its hands at that time. The chairman of the committee on ways and means was appointed then, and had nothing to do but work on the forthcoming tariff all through the long Senate wrangle over silver, so that, when the regular session began in December, the preliminary labors on the tariff were in a more forward state than was ever before the case with such a bill. That the bill should have passed by February 1 was, therefore, not at all proof of haste and carelessness.

But, adds Mr. Gorman, "it is sufficient to say" that there never has been a moment when either the Wilson bill or the first draft of the Senate bill could get a majority. Why not? Simply because he and three or four other schemers stood out for their "free lunch." Nothing else is meant by his talk about the "consideration" due to certain States (meaning the Senators thereof and the manufacturers who own the Senators), and the "purely business matters" connected with tariff schedules. All this is only the polite and parliamentary way of saying that Messrs. Gorman and Brice and Murphy and Smith and Faulkner and Caffery took the finance committee by the throat and frightened it into an abandonment of all pretence of rational or honest tariff reform.

The Maryland Senator did well to fight shy of details. It is easy to lump the percentages in a whole schedule and figure out reductions, but the iniquities are to be searched for in the separate sections, and every fresh examination of the Senate amendments reveals new examples of gross favoritism, with all the ear-marks of the lobby and corrupt methods upon them, out-McKinleying McKinley in the cotton schedules and the glass-ware duties and in the metal classifications—in which last Senator Quay was allowed to get the "consideration" for Pennsylvania. A specimen outrage is to be found in the duties proposed on pocket-knives. The Wilson bill put a rate of 45 per cent. ad valorem on all classes. In the Senate amendments specific rates are restored equivalent to protective duties of from 33 to 83 per cent., which are ingeniously devised, *à la* McKinley, so as to put the heaviest taxes on the kinds most commonly in use. We are informed that the lobbyist who got these bounties in the bill is known, as is also the "influence" which sent him to Washington, and that the whole story of the "cutlery deal" in the Senate may soon be made public. Again, take the taxes on files. McKinley put some of his most artistic work in the specific duties of his files paragraph. They gave protection of from 100 to 200 per cent. The Wilson bill lumped all the classifications into a single head, and put on a duty of 35 per cent. ad valorem. This was allowed to stand in the finance committee's first report, but, after the "free-lunch" era set in, the paragraph was bedevilled with specific duties again, in a way only less shocking than McKinley's. Files that can be bought in the American market to-day at 20 to 27 cents per dozen are to be taxed 30 cents a dozen; those selling at 69 to 98 cents have a rate of $1 laid on them. The result is, as a large dealer has figured it out, that an English agent could not place an order in this country without practically giving away his files and paying the duty into the bargain! It is clear, from the prices quoted, that no protection at all is necessary, and the only conceivable object in putting on such outrageous rates is to prepare the way for a Trust to rob the consumer. We do not like such robbery any better under the label of tariff reform than we did under the name of McKinleyism.

It is a great mystery how the sincere tariff-reformers, who undoubtedly constitute a majority of the Democratic Senators, could have brought themselves to consent to such enormities. If they did it, as some assert, in order to hurry the bill through the Senate and then have it made decent again in conference, we think they were ill-advised. Some of the Gorman excrescences will undoubtedly be cut off in conference; but in the juggle the protectionists will be sure to sneak off with some booty which they never could have got in a fair and open fight in the Senate or in a Democratic caucus. It would have been better if such a fight had been made. As it is, the House will have to rescue as much of its bill as it can out of the talons of the Gorman-Brice "combine." They are not weak, and they will not yield easily; but if the House remembers that they have the cowardice of men without principles, and that their consciences can be reached only by the whip of open party condemnation and mention by name, it can shame and frighten them into something that tariff-reformers can look at without loathing.

HERETICAL FACTS.

THIS year's Presbyterian trial for heresy has been rather a dismal affair. Having only to traverse again the path made so plain in the Briggs case, and with a foregone conclusion confronting and dispiriting both prosecutor and accused, there has been little heart in the business. The actors in the case have moved about like men in a dumb show, and the public has found nothing enlivening in the spectacle. Nevertheless, Prof. Smith, in his *morituras* address, managed admirably to sum up the main significance of his trial when he said, alluding to the slight personal issues involved, "But to have a great church go in the face of well-ascertained facts is not a small thing."

In this, there can be no doubt, he put his finger on the main difference between the heresy of which the late Prof. Robertson Smith and Prof. Briggs were found guilty, and of which Prof. Smith knew that he would be found guilty, and all the other forms of heresy known to the history of the church. These had to do with matters of pious opinion, or metaphysical distinction, or ecclesiastical right and order; the new heresy turns on a question of fact. The combatants who took part in the Docetic controversy, or the Monothelite heresy, or the Arian dispute, were like ghosts fighting apparitions, and could not be brought to the test of flesh-and-blood facts. So with most of the famous doctrinal controversies of the later centuries: they have pitted theory against theory and wire-drawn distinction against wire-drawn distinction, with no exit except in the brute decisions of the "ecclesiastical mob," as Dean Stanley used to call the clergymen who rushed up to Convocation from all over England to condemn books they had not read. But the great heresy which the Presbyterians of Scotland and America have invented is that of accepting a body of well-ascertained fact.

That is to say, the specialists of chief renown the world over who have given most study to the matter, are now agreed that the traditional conception of the history and institutions and literature of Israel is utterly misleading and wrong-headed. For this agreement a consensus of learned and pious names can be adduced which, in the case of any other question of historical fact, would be regarded by all as overwhelming and conclusive. It is so regarded by all except the Presbyterians of Scotland and the United States—indeed, it is doubtless an injustice longer to except the Scottish Church, as it has shown marked liberalism of late years and refused to depose other professors under substantially the same charges as those brought against Prof. Robertson Smith. Thus we have the situation that what the universities of Europe unanimously declare to be a fact, what a professor or a clergyman can hold and teach with impunity in Great Britain, or in the Episcopal or Congregational, probably in the Methodist or Baptist, and certainly in the Unitarian and Universalist churches in this country—that the Presbyterian Church asserts to be heresy, and if it is a fact, so much the worse for it.

A case which can be so stated does not require arguing; but some of the bearings of it are worth mention. It shows afresh the immense power of what Browning calls "the instinctive the-

orizing" "whence the fact looks to the eye as the eye likes the look." A college professor used to say to his classes: "Talk about the irresistible power of mathematical demonstration: why, if personal interest or prejudice were involved, you would find plenty of people to deny that the sum of all the angles upon a perpendicular was equal to two right angles." Who can doubt this that has witnessed the ability of thousands of bimetallists to assert passionately that 62=129? It is only a special application of this principle of human nature that is now at the root of the Presbyterian trouble. In religious matters there have always been more opportunities for its display than elsewhere; and that is the only reason one is more struck with them there than elsewhere. M. Oppert was lately telling of a lecture he gave in Glasgow many years ago on the relation of the Biblical record to the Assyrian monuments. He began by saying that he had found many confirmations of the Scriptural history in the cuneiform inscriptions, whereat the audience cheered vociferously. Then he added that in some cases the monuments contradicted the Bible. Such a chill and silence fell upon the auditory at this that the deft Frenchman saw that something must be done, and so hastened to remark, "That shows how mistaken the monuments sometimes are"; which called out renewed applause and set all straight again.

Another thing which this new heresy of fact illustrates is the futility of that favorite device of certain theologians which consists in marking off the human mind and human studies into separate compartments which have nothing to do with each other. This has been a rather clever use on their part of the modern specialization of learning. "Very well," they have said, "we agree to take the word of a specialist in medicine or engineering or finance, but you must also take our word as specialists in theology." And so they have been quite willing to go along on this theory of the fragmentary nature of truth, and have professed to be eager to work tolerantly by the side of the scientist, provided a high fence divided them and neither would look over to see how the other was getting along. But the practical working of this kind of gardening has not been happy. The theologian *has* looked over the scientist's fence and said, "See here, you must not let that tree of evolution grow so high, for it's killing some of my best crops"; and the scientist, in his turn, has been compelled to protest against the way the theologian has let his vine of the creative week run all over the scientist's lot, so that the latter could not work his soil at all without cutting it up by the roots. And finally, this scientific reconstruction of sacred history and literature has knocked the dividing fence entirely down, and is forcing the theologians to decide whether theology is to accept the fact, and all facts, and so strive to be worthy of its old name, "The Queen of all the Sciences," or to shrink into narrower and narrower compass and helplessness.

THE EXCAVATIONS AT ARGOS.

ATHENS, May 4, 1894.

AMONG the noteworthy changes in the aspect of Greece which have been wrought in the last few years there is one group or class which appeals especially to the student of classical life, namely, those which have resulted from the unusual activity in excavating ancient sites in various parts of the country. This activity, the results of which will always remain a brilliant memorial of the present administration of the Department of Antiquities, is due, both directly and indirectly, to the energetic and liberal spirit in which that department is now conducted—directly, because the Greeks themselves, both the Government and their Archæological Society, are doing much more than they used to, and indirectly because the foreign schools here are allowed almost unlimited privileges for excavating. Thanks to the liberality of the Government in such matters, each school has now its site, or group of sites, where it has the exclusive right to dig, and where it can work without interference from the authorities, the only precaution taken being that of keeping an official superintendent on the spot to watch the excavations. Permission to export any of the objects found is still rigidly withheld, but if the "finds" continue to accumulate in the museums as they have been doing in recent years, there is reason to hope that this reservation will be somewhat relaxed.

The schools have been quick to avail themselves of the opportunities thus offered, and this combined activity of Greeks and foreigners has revealed the secrets of many a site which, a generation ago, was little more than a name and a cluster of associations. Each one of these might well form the subject of a letter, but I should like to give some account of that which has the most interest for Americans, and of which we have more reason to be proud than perhaps is realized at home. I mean the exploration of the site of the great sanctuary of Hera in Argolis, which, as the readers of the *Nation* know, has been conducted for three years by members of our School at Athens under the direction of Dr. Waldstein. I had the good fortune to spend three days there, just before the close of this season's work, and am sure that any member of the Archæological Institute of America would have felt as well pleased as I did at the manner in which the Institute's appropriation has been expended, not only as regards the value of the discoveries, but in the careful and intelligent handling of the soil, with a view to noting every bit of evidence it afforded on questions which might arise. If the younger members of the School lack the preliminary archæological training which always places our students at a disadvantage in comparison with those who come here from other countries, they have, on the other hand, the advantage of being Yankees, and therefore easily adaptable under proper instruction. It does not take them long to learn what is expected of them in superintending excavations, and consequently this part of the work, which is all that has been attempted as yet, will stand comparison with any that has been done.

The site of the Heraion is literally one of the most commanding that could be thought of for a temple. No one who has crossed the plain of Argos can ever forget the beauty of that country. More level than Attica, its appearance is also more restful. There is hardly a mound to break its surface until one reaches the foothills of the mountains which surround it, except where the sea makes its crescent on the south. Almost hidden in the northwest corner stands the citadel of Mykenæ, commanding the whole district without being itself conspicuous. To the east of this runs a wall of low mountains, which forms the northern boundary of the plain. One of these, Eubœa, stands out a little more prominently than the others. The long, sweeping curve of its slope is broken near the base by a small crest or ridge, into which it rises just before it joins the plain, and this crest was chosen as the site for the temple of Hera.

The original temple was placed not upon the summit of this crest, but upon the upper part of the southern slope, where a platform or terrace was constructed for it, and here it must have formed a conspicuous object from every quarter of the plain. The huge rectangular blocks of which the retaining wall of this platform was built were for years the only landmark of the site until, in 1852, Rangabé excavated sufficiently to locate the position of the late temple, of which I shall speak presently. The platform itself was buried to a considerable depth under accumulated soil until the present exavations laid it bare and determined its limits. It is paved with polygonal blocks, and measures about 148 feet in length by 115 feet in breadth. Its situation, in reference to the other buildings of the sanctuary, is shown on the plan which accompanies the twelfth annual report of the School, issued this spring. Unfortunately, very slight remains of the temple were found, a circumstance easily accounted for by the probability that, above the baseline, it was constructed of clay and wood, like the temple of Hera at Olympia. Even the columns have disappeared, and the only unquestionable remnant on the site is a portion of one low wall, on the top of which the circles traced in the stone to indicate the size and position of several of the columns are still clearly visible. This bit of wall is much more primitive than those of the Olympian Heraion, and bespeaks a decidedly earlier date for this temple, which may therefore be the oldest Greek temple that we know. Possibly there may be other data concerning it among the débris of the excavations in other parts of the hill, but this is a matter for an expert architect to determine. The pavement of the platform is in remarkably good preservation. Above it, and separated by a thin layer of earth, was a concrete flooring, several patches of which are left. Some of these are blackened by fire, presumably the conflagration of which Thucydides speaks, by which the temple was destroyed in 423 B. C.

Of the later and more famous temple the remains are much more satisfactory. The Greek prejudice against erecting a new temple upon the site of an old one is well illustrated here. Instead of utilizing the old platform, which was perfectly able to hold it, a second terrace was constructed below it, also on the southern slope and overlooking the plain. I say a second terrace, yet it would be more correct to speak of this as the third, there being a smaller one between the two, upon which numerous remains of early houses have been found.

These are described by Dr. Waldstein in the report to which I have alluded. As he suggests, they probably had some connection with the service of the older temple, and were possibly the dwellings of the priestesses. The excavation of the later terrace is a remarkably clean piece of work, and reflects great credit on those who had to do with it. Every answer which the place still had to give as to the character and details of the new temple and its immediate surroundings, the student finds here, readily at hand. On this terrace there is nothing more to be uncovered, and evidently no fragment that could have been of the slightest importance has been thrown away. If it is lost, the manner in which the site has been unearthed is sufficient evidence that it was lost before the excavations were begun. What actually remains *in situ* is the walls of the foundations, several courses high, including those of the peripteros and the interior, and that of the steps or incline by which the temple was entered. These foundation walls are not preserved up to the level of the floor; and from the manner in which they were left it is evident that they—and probably other portions of the temple—were not destroyed by nature or by violence, but carried away, block by block. There is reason to believe, therefore, that the careful examination, by an architect, of the towns in the plain might result in the discovery of important members built into mediæval or later structures. On and near the terrace are sufficient fragments to give the general indications of the proportions and style of the temple, though here again it is surprising that there are not more. I believe that only three fragments of capitals have been unearthed, and scarcely any of the columns themselves. On the other hand, a number of blocks of the upper members have been found, and these show that both the triglyphs and the background of the pediments were of black marble.

The retaining wall which separated the terrace of the later temple from that above it, formed the back of a long stoa or portico, in front of which votive statues and stelai were erected. The bases and grooves showing where these stood are numerous, but, beyond a few inscriptions, nothing of the works themselves remains.

Below the new temple is a fourth terrace, which seems to have been occupied for the greater part, if not the whole, of its length by another portico, only a portion of which has yet been uncovered. The greater part of the working force has been concentrated upon this site during the present season, partly because it seems to have been one of the principal buildings of the sanctuary, and might be expected to contain inscriptions or other monuments of importance, and partly because Dr. Waldstein hoped that in the enormous mass of earth under which its remains are buried he might find sculptures or other valuable objects, thrown over from the terrace of the temple. Some fragments of metopes have already been found here, and quantities of terracotta fragments. But not more than half of the portico had been uncovered when the work had to be brought to a close, and we cannot say what may yet be waiting to be brought to light.

I have spoken of only the most important buildings which have thus far been unearthed, but there are others, partially disclosed this year, which promise to be no less interesting, some of them being undoubtedly within the sacred enclosure, and therefore directly connected with the sanctuary. As the plans of these are more or less complicated, a description would be confusing without the aid of diagrams, and for these we must wait until new drawings of the site have been prepared. From this slight account, however, it will be seen that the architectural discoveries are not the least important that have been made here. They are in fact much more extensive than I had expected to find them, and well deserve to be carefully worked up.

Of the sculptures the now famous Hera head still remains the most beautiful and the most interesting. Of this and the other fragments, which are now familiar in America through casts and photographs, I need not speak. This year, besides the fragments found on the lowest terrace, several have been brought to light elsewhere, among them the head of a youth, which bears a close resemblance to the female head found by Rangabé on this site. This year, as before, the fragments of decorated pottery discovered are almost countless. Combined they form one of the most remarkable finds of this nature ever made in Greece. By far the larger part are of the early styles, Mykenæan, Dipylon, and, most of all, the so-called "proto-Corinthian," upon the history of which they bid fair to throw new light. The labor of classifying these will be long and trying, but it will give our School one of the best opportunities that could have been desired for publishing new and valuable material.

Speaking of pottery, I cannot pass over a most interesting discovery which took place while I was at the excavation—that of a "beehive" tomb of the Mykenæ type, which apparently had never been opened since the last body was placed in it. The excitement of watching an event like this cannot be described, and it is felt by the workmen no less than by those who are superintending them. First of all, the discovery that there is a tomb, a discovery possible only to the expert digger (in this case a workman) whose practised eye detects in the slight depression of the soil the fact which another would pass over without suspecting. Then the beginning of work with the pick and spade. Slowly the truth comes to light; the tomb was roughly hewn in the soft rock, and, the top having fallen in, the vault or chamber is filled to the surface with a solid mass of earth. Gradually its concave walls show themselves, and then the two or three men who can work inside the hole proceed, as carefully as their impatience will allow, to clear the interior down to the level where they may expect to find something. After a time—and a long time it seemed—the first indication comes; the fragment of a human bone is struck. Now the pick and spade stop, the men get down on their knees and scratch the earth with their knives, working as delicately as Italians. Presently one of them utters an exclamation—the first vase has been found. It is a decorated specimen intact, and shows that there is hope for more. In this way the work continued for two days, at the end of which the tomb and its *dromos*, or entrance-passage, had been cleared out. The tomb measured about ten feet in diameter and the same in height. It contained no less than fifty-two specimens of prehistoric pottery, most of them fine examples of the Mykenæ and Ialysos types, with the decorations upon them quite fresh and brilliant. Of these, forty-eight were vases, three were idols, and one was a little chair or throne for an idol, about six inches tall, and gayly painted. There was no metal of any kind.

This tomb was about a half-mile to the northwest of the temple, near the path to Mykenæ. Another was found the day following, much nearer the Heraion. It was empty, but its existence proved that the first was not an isolated grave, and probably there are many others in the neighborhood, as the workmen believe. If so, there may be still another chapter to be written on the history and worship of the old temple near which they were made. What was their relation to it?

I hope that this and the other discoveries I have described may cause those who are interested in these matters to share the regret I felt when I heard that it was not the intention of the managing committee of the School to continue these excavations after this year. It was, as I know, the expectation that the work could be completed with the present season. This, in spite of prophecies, has been impossible, as an examination of the place shows. It is a safe maxim for all work of this kind that you cannot tell what is in a hole until you have dug it; and, in the present case, the more that has been dug the more there has been to dig. Aside from the question of these newly-discovered tombs, which bid fair to be of exceptional importance, the site of the Heraion itself cannot be considered properly excavated until the line of the peribolos wall has been determined and every building or monument within it laid bare. Its entrance is still to be discovered and the approaches by which the different terraces were reached. Two hundred and fifty men have been employed this year, and an average of five members of the School have superintended the work and taken charge of the things found. This is as large a force as can be advantageously employed, yet it is my impression that more than one season will still be necessary before the work can properly be considered as finished. It would be unfortunate if the results of these excavations were to remain unpublished, yet it would seem a waste alike of energy and money if what we are to regard as a final publication were prepared with a large part of the site still buried. Therefore, in the interest of our School, and for the sake of those who have carried on the work admirably thus far, it is earnestly to be hoped that the committee will find it possible to allow the excavations to continue until they are really completed, and then to publish the results in the manner they deserve.

EDWARD ROBINSON.

ÎLE DE FRANCE AND PICARDY.—III.

LONDON, April, 1894.

COUCY-LA-VILLE, down in the plain, by the side of the fishy little Lette, was a small Roman farming village as early as the end of the third century; but Coucy le-Château was not founded on the heights, which were then no doubt heavily wooded, till six hundred years later, when an archbishop of Reims, seeing his bishopric invaded by the Normans, built a tower and gave it to a vassal to guard. The place and the man were well chosen. A promontory rises abruptly two hundred feet, dominating the plain, and giving a view of every one that passes through the valley for leagues around, from the hill of Laon to the forest of Compiègne. And the man was the first known to history of a strong, fierce stock, Eudes de Coucy. Three hundred years more passed, and the house of Coucy, always at war with some one and as often as not with the sovereign, prospered till its head was Seigneur d'Assis, de Marle, de la Fère, de Folembray, de Montmirail, d'Oisy, de Crèvecœur, de la Ferté-Aucoul et de la Ferté-Gaucher, Vicomte de Meaux, Châtelain de Cambrai, father-in-law of a King of Scotland and brother-in-law of the

Emperor Otho IV. Feudalism, which had long been supreme in France and had gone near to leave the King little more than the power of a great noble, had just entered on the struggle with royalty in which it was to succumb, when Enguerrand III. de Coucy, descendant of a race of robber-barons, himself at once a robber and practically another king, cherishing hopes (in spite of his proud motto: "Roy ne suys, ne prince, ne duc, ne comte aussy; je suys le sire de Coucy") of seizing the royal name and power—in which, indeed, he would have succeeded had not Queen Blanche bought off his ally, the Count of Champagne—built this castle to replace one that Louis VI. had burnt. Perhaps he intended it as an answer to the menace offered to the whole nobility by the great donjon of the Louvre, which Philip Augustus had completed a decade before.

The Sire's tower has lasted longer than the King's, but not the power of his race, for the castle of the vassal was dismantled by the minister of a king, while the donjon of the king was torn down not by a noble but by a greater king. Yet Enguerrand's keep was twice as high and twice as broad and its walls twice as thick as the donjon of Philip Augustus. The greatest towers known, says Viollet-le-Duc, are but spindles in comparison with it. A hundred and three feet in diameter, a hundred and sixty-two feet high, with walls twenty-seven feet through, it was built to resist the worst attacks that its founder could conceive of. And such was the energy of the man that this immense mass, with its four subordinate towers, each as great as an ordinary donjon, and its lofty surrounding walls and its elaborate underground constructions, was only five years in building, from 1225 to 1230.

The keep was far from being the whole of the fortress. Before the besieger could get to that inner stronghold he must, if he selected the postern to attack, cross the first drawbridge and break through the gate of the outer wall, fight his way along the narrow path that led to the postern of the inner wall, the *chemise*, exposed all the time to missiles hurled at him from the loopholes and embrasures of a flanking tower and of the *chemise* itself, break down a double postern gate barred by heavy beams let into holes in the wall, cut through a portcullis, and, after all, find himself only in the moat between the wall and the tower. What chance would he have of battering down or picking his way through its solid walls while the garrison was pouring down boiling pitch upon him and dropping great stones from battlements 160 feet above him? Nor could he hope to reduce the fortress by famine. A spring within the donjon gave a plentiful water supply. The cellars stored the provisions of a garrison of a thousand men for a year, a time long enough to tire out most mediæval besiegers. Besides this, it is said that there was a passage under ground, six miles long, by which supplies and fresh men could be secretly brought in, or a sally be made with fatal effect upon the enemy's rear.

The donjon itself is so built as to bring everything under the eye or within reach of the voice of the master. The narrow winding stairway made in the thickness of the wall stops with each story; whoever went higher must be seen by the guards as he crossed the hall to the opposite side where the stairs begin again. There is no other passage for man. Provisions and munitions could be raised by a lift running up the centre of the tower through holes pierced in the middle of each vault. The counterweight descended in a dry well at the side, as deep as the tower is high. These lift holes let not only goods pass, but also the commands of the master, which must often have resounded rudely through the vaulted chambers. The lift was, in fact, a huge speaking-trumpet befitting the stature of the man, one of whose ancestors is said to have been nine feet tall. Enguerrand kept with him fifty knights, which implies a garrison of five hundred men. They must have been picked like the grenadiers of Frederic the Great's father. The castle is built for giants; the steps are all high, and the battlements and seats were not meant for men of ordinary stature. Secure in his strength and his control over his followers, Enguerrand did not resort to those tricks which are common in Norman military architecture, where it is evident that the barons feared the treachery of their own men as much as the force of the besiegers, and provided means for defending themselves alike against a victorious enemy and a revolted garrison.

Coucy is less known to Parisians than Pierrefonds. It is less accessible; it has not the advantage of being near an imperial pleasure-seat, where the city man can stay at an elegant hotel, walk in a park as fine as Versailles, and drive out to the château through a beautiful forest apt for picnics in summer; it has not been restored by the most famous French architect; it is not fresh, comfortable, complete; it is only a ruin. For that very reason we enjoyed it the more. Pierrefonds is scenic, like a fine representation at the opera—interesting, but not real life; it does not move one nor carry him back to the past as do the solid tower and the crumbling walls of Coucy; it is a marvellous imitation of the antique, but Coucy is the antique itself.

For the first three hundred years of its existence Coucy was a danger to all the surrounding country and to the King in Paris. Mazarin wisely ordered it to be blown up, but his powder barrels that destroyed the smaller towers, could only crack, not throw down, the massive walls of the keep. Although the Cardinal had ordered the whole to be razed to the ground so that men should cultivate their fields on its site, his engineer abandoned the attempt, contenting himself with the destruction of the vaulted floors, and with burning what little there was to burn, so that the donjon is now an empty shell. But the inhabitants of the town for three centuries did their part to complete the destruction by using the ruins as a stone quarry whenever they wanted to build a house.

The château was made for a stronghold simply. But, as feudal manners softened, the arts were called in to render existence more endurable. After a time the castle had its wall paintings and its carvings, of which something is still to be seen, and no doubt its tapestries. There was a Salle des Preux and moreover a Salle des Preuses, whose statues in demi-relief adorned the great chimney-piece. But in its first estate it must have been a sad dwelling, to our ideas. One speculates on the mental condition of the inhabitants of these jails. What did the lord and lady think of? The men probably of nothing profound. Their womankind, in the abundant leisure of a life devoid of distraction, if they could not satisfy themselves with domestic cares, must have died of ennui or given themselves up to mysticism, according to their natures.

The first sight of the still perfect fortification of the town itself, as one sees it from the western railway station (the "halte"), skirting the edge of the steep hill and ending on the left with the château, easily carries the imagination back to the feudal times when the Sire would be sallying out to harry the lands of the Bishop of Laon or the Bishop of Noyon, or to intercept a convoy of merchants, or to meet the army of his suzerain. The thought by contrast heightens the pleasant effect of the fields now peacefully stretching up the slope and tilled almost to the foot of the wall. In its town Coucy has a great advantage over its rival. The village of Pierrefonds is an almost modern watering-place; Coucy-le-Château is a mediæval town with less admixture of the new than any we saw, less even than Laon. It is well, if one has time, after exploring its irregular streets, where everything is strange, admiring the half-effaced carvings on the portal of the church, and finally going minutely through the ruins of the castle with the guide, who, unlike most of his detestable race, does not hurry the lingering traveller—it is well to go out of the town between the two great towers of the Porte de Laon and scramble down the hill to the hamlet of Coucy-la-Ville, where is an odd little church with a curiously decorated tower, built a century later than the château, during the English occupation. The English, by the way, met with no opposition from the Coucy of the time, who was faithful to the anti-royal policy of his family. C. R.

Correspondence.

THE PARTHENON FRIEZE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Waldstein's letter on the Parthenon frieze, published in your issue of May 3, calls for an answer from me, and deserves a sharp one. I will nevertheless confine myself to the criticism of your correspondent's assertions as far as they are directed against my own.

Mr. Waldstein has initiated a startling method. He begins by proclaiming, *urbi et orbi*, some wonderful discovery; when other people interfere to express a doubt, he bids them be silent; then he discovers himself that his discovery is worth nothing, and wants to be credited for the second achievement as highly as for the first one. There is such a deal of unscientific naïveté in this process that serious archæologists might abstain from troubling themselves and others about it. Indeed, I have, for some time past, left Mr. Waldstein and his contradictions to their fate; but as he seems now to require a new warning, he will get it: *ecco servito*.

In his 'Essays on the Art of Pheidias,' published in 1885, Mr. Waldstein stated that the terracotta plaques reproducing parts of the Parthenon frieze were probably the original clay models made by Pheidias. "If the models of Pheidias were valued and kept by the Geeeks, it is most likely that upon the dissolution of Greek independence . . . such portable remains would have been taken to Rome" (p. 238). In a diffuse note annexed to the same chapter of his almost unreadable work, Mr. Waldstein acknowledged (or discovered, if he prefers) that the terracottas *might* be forgeries, but he concluded (p. 265): "The view which to my own mind presents the fewest serious difficulties, is that the plaques are genuine antiques." In his article "Pheïdias," in Baumeister's *Denkmäler*, Mr. Waldstein published the Paris plaque, with the note (p. 1315): "Die Platte wird von Andern als verdächtig angesehen." These words prove clearly that Mr. Waldstein disagreed on that point with the *Andern*, and thought the plaque to be genuine.

I reviewed Mr. Waldstein's 'Essays' in the *Revue Critique* (1886, i., p. 401). Your correspondent says, in his letter, that I made "a thoroughly unjustifiable attack upon another chapter of his [my] book." My attack was, on the contrary, perfectly justified. Mr. Waldstein had found that a head in the Louvre, purchased in 1882, belonged to a metope of the Parthenon, and he wrote a paper on the subject in the *Journal of Hellenic Studies* for 1882. Meanwhile, in the *Bulletin de la Société des Antiquaires* a notice had appeared to the effect that the head in question had been recognized by the authorities in the Louvre as belonging to the Parthenon sculptures before Mr. Waldstein could have seen it (cf. *Revue des Revues*, viii., p. 203.) Reprinting his paper in 1885, Mr. Waldstein ought to have known that chapter of the "literature" of his subject. I reproached him, very gently, with having ignored it; that is what Mr. Waldstein calls a "thoroughly unjustifiable attack." In the same article, I am said by Mr. Waldstein to have "stated in decided terms that the terracotta plaques were not genuine." "This statement," continues Mr. Waldstein, "rested entirely upon his own authority." That is perfectly true; I did not want anybody else's authority to write as I did (p. 404):

"Les esquisses de Phidias sont un pur roman. M. Waldstein a eu le tort très grave de publier les deux essais tels qu'il les avait écrits dans l'enthousiasme de sa découverte, quitte à reléguer des objections écrasantes dans une longue note en petits caractères que bien des gens pourront négliger de lire. . . . De toutes les catégories d'objets antiques, aucune n'est plus aisée à contrefaire que les terres-cuites. . . . J'ai examiné avec le plus grand soin la plaque du Louvre, qui peut vraiment donner le change aux plus experts; mais quand le moule est fourni par la réduction mathématique d'un chef-d'œuvre, quand la terre est la même que celle des anciennes terres-cuites italiennes, comment veut-on que le travail du faussaire laisse des vestiges apparents?"

Now, Mr. Waldstein writes just the same thing, but credits his "own experience of ancient terracottas," which I have hitherto heard nothing of, with the revelation of that important piece of truth!

I have been repeatedly obliged, when dealing with Mr. Waldstein's works, to reproach him with writing phrases which have no meaning whatever. Mr. Cecil Torr, in the *Classical Review* (1889, p. 420), has gone a step further, and declared squarely that Mr. Waldstein's catalogue of the Fitzwilliam contained much "nonsense." I must say just the same of the following phrase in his letter: "If these plaques are forged reproductions of the Parthenon frieze itself, the recognition of their Pheidiac character, even in their mutilated condition, strongly proves the correctness of this method of observation." *Sunt verba et voces.* Nobody ever heard of a "method" consisting in detecting that a reduced copy of the Venus of Melos resembles the Venus of Melos. I boldly assert that no archæologist or even philologist will ever get an appearance of common sense out of that sentence.

But to return to the plaques. In 1889, the discovery of the head of Iris, belonging to the Parthenon frieze, brought a new argument to bear against their genuineness. I expected that Mr. Waldstein would confess that I was right, and that the controversy would pass *ad acta*. Instead of that, he triumphed once more in the excellence of his "method," and added emphatically: "It is by such discoveries that this question will finally be decided, and not by mere assertions on the part of those who have not carefully studied all the points, and have in no way contributed by unwarrantable expression of opinion to the settling of the problem." Whereupon I replied (*Revue Archéologique*, 1889, ii., p. 95): "Voilà une pierre dans mon jardin, où je la ramasse avec beaucoup d'indifférence. . . . Obligé d'avouer que j'avais raison, M. Waldstein essaie de faire croire qu'il s'est éclairé lui-même, et que mes objections ne lui ont rien appris du tout." I remember having erased from my proof-sheets a rather too frank qualification of Mr. Waldstein's dealing on that occasion.

At the beginning of the present year, Furtwaengler, in his 'Meisterwerke,' pronounced Mr. Waldstein's plaques to be genuine, referring them to a set of copies made in the time of Augustus, which is at least not as absurd as Mr. Waldstein's own hypothesis was. But, in the meantime, Mr. Waldstein has collected other arguments against their genuineness, and he now enters a protest against Furtwaengler's "violent assurance" in vindicating it! Furtwaengler, indeed, is very fond of bold assertions, and they often enough have brought him into trouble; but he is a great archæologist, the greatest of our age after Brunn, a man who is capable of holding a personal opinion, not a vacillating dilettante in archæology. His method does not consist in asserting on one page and denying on the next, as Mr. Waldstein has done not only in the case of the plaques, but in the farcical controversy about the Eretrian tomb. I think Furtwaengler is wrong in believing the plaques to be genuine, and I maintain against him, as I did against the author of the 'Essays,' that they are Italian forgeries made in this century. On the other hand, I can perfectly conceive that a man of such a high scientific standing should have got irritated by the pedantic flimsiness of a so-called "method," and I easily pardon him for having spoken of Mr. Waldstein, in his immortal 'Meisterwerke,' more harshly than French politeness ever allowed me to do (see 'Meisterwerke,' p. 229).

SALOMON REINACH.

MUSÉE DE ST.-GERMAIN, May 19, 1894.

SAMBO AND SANCHO.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Some weeks since you called attention to a supposed misprint in one of Mr. Lowell's Letters (vol. ii., p. 301). Writing in November, 1885, he said, as printed, "Aren't the enchanters as active as ever? Haven't they resuscitated Sambo in a shape as *descomunal* as ever after we had dismounted him once and for all?" A few lines before, Mr. Lowell had referred to Don Quixote, and you suggested that "Sambo" was a misprint for "Sancho." The suggestion had an aspect of plausibility. But Mr. Lowell wrote "Sambo"; the word in his autograph letter is so distinct as to admit of no question.

I suspect that he was thinking of the "bloody shirt" incantations of some Northern politicians, and of the resuscitation of Sambo in the *descomunal* shape of a voter led by Mahone.

I am, very truly yours, C. E. NORTON.

CAMBRIDGE, May 28, 1894.

SIR H. PARKES'S BIOGRAPHERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The very just as well as very thorough review of the Life of Sir Harry Parkes in your last issue may be supplemented, if you will permit, by a reference to one of the biographers' anti-Americanism. This is at times rabid, amusing, and provocative of absurd inaccuracy. For example, in the table of contents is a line, "American butchers as professors, p. 306." On that page the biographer says:

"It might be supposed that this [Mr. John A. Bingham's] prejudice against British subjects and the British minister arose out of some scathing comments upon American teachers in the employment of the Japanese Government."

Now, it happens that most of the American teachers in Tokio in 1873 were graduates of West Point, Annapolis, or schools and colleges in the United States, while those of British origin were from the counter, the shambles, or the forecastle. The worthy butcher against whom Japanese pride revolted, was an English gentleman who, at last accounts, still plied his honorable trade at Kobe. Why a butcher was any the less fit instructor for Japanese youth than a tinsmith or common sailor was the wonder of the writer of the articles on "Education in Japan" published in the *Japan Mail* of 1873. The "scathing comments," while not consciously directed against any one nationality, necessarily concerned most that which was numerically in the majority—the British. Two separate translations of these articles into Japanese were carefully pondered by the officers in the Department of Education, and henceforth the instructors in the higher Government schools were appointed from duly accredited graduates of the universities of Europe and America.

THE AUTHOR OF "EDUCATION IN JAPAN."

ITHACA, N. Y., May 26, 1894.

THE NATIONAL PARK IN THE STATE OF WASHINGTON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit me, as one of the residents of the State of Washington, to thank you for the valuable support you are giving to the bill for the establishment of a National Park in this State, and to quote a portion of a report made by Mr. E. O. Schwagerl, superintendent of the Seattle Parks, to the Board of Park Commissioners concerning the beauty of the region included in this proposed National Park, and the danger of delay in the consummation of the project. Mr. Schwagerl says:

"The natural beauty of this reservation is indeed wonderful. Its numerous streams, cascades, torrents, and waterfalls, amid solid walls of rugged rocks and verdure, have no equal anywhere. The symmetrical and charming beauty of the characteristic trees, crowning and dressing the tops of ridges, hills and mounds with their varied undergrowths, constitute unequalled natural groves, clusters, and groups. Those trees, by reason of their altitude, have made very slow and very short annual growths, and thus have become extremely dense and compact in their foliage and twigs. Their resinous nature, as also the miniature moss forming upon them, makes them extremely inflammable. This fact induced some visitors, as reported by settlers and guides, to set fire to them, merely to enjoy a momentary rocket conflagration, and thus many an invaluable forest gem has been killed and the beautiful park scenery of Paradise Valley irreparably marred and injured, while others have ruthlessly cut down live trees for their camp-fire wood. In a short time, if such vandalism is not peremptorily stopped, one of the (if not the) most beautiful natural parks in the United States will have been ruined beyond reparation. It is also true that this natural park possesses but little game—a few mountain goats, very few of the rare white grouse, the 'whistling pigs,' and some few timid bears. These inoffensive animals are being hunted down and will soon be exterminated, but should by all means be encouraged to live, increase, and remain the live feature of so wonderfully beauti-

ful and interesting a National Park. It is earnestly recommended that your honorable body make known this lamentable and dangerous condition of things in this valuable and important National Park reservation to the honorable Secretary of the Interior, for him to recommend such measures or steps as in the premises seem to him needful."

The foregoing quotation shows the urgent need of the passage of the bill.

Yours truly, GEORGE H. PRESTON.

SEATTLE, WASHINGTON, May 15, 1894.

Notes.

D. APPLETON & CO. are on the point of issuing by subscription 'The United States of America,' in the light of this country's natural resources, industries, and commerce, and educational, literary, and artistic performance; Prof. Shaler being the editor.

D. Van Nostrand Co. have nearly ready 'Modern Methods of Sewage Disposal for Towns, Public Institutions and Isolated Houses,' by Col. Geo. E. Waring, jr., and 'New Roads and Road Laws in the United States,' by Roy Stone.

'The Church and the Kingdom,' two addresses by the Rev. Washington Gladden, will be published next month by the Fleming H. Revell Co.

Macmillan & Co. announce 'Children's Singing-Games,' edited by Alice B. Gomme and pictured in black and white by Winifred Smith.

Roberts Bros. will shortly publish 'The Dancing Faun,' by Florence Farr; 'Keynotes,' stories by George Egerton; and 'The Wedding Garment,' a tale of the life to come, by Louis Pendleton.

Lee & Shepard have in preparation a work on the esculent and poisonous qualities of mushrooms, by Capt. Julius A. Palmer, and 'The Boys' Own Guide to Fishing, Tackle-Making, and Fish-Breeding,' by John Harrington Keene.

Mr. F. S. Ellis has found time to turn Caxton's prose 'Reynard the Fox' into lively doggerel couplets (London: D. Nutt). He has not followed his original painfully, but has allowed himself considerable amplification of phrase, and has dexterously softened some incidents more acceptable to Caxton's plain-spoken times than to our own day. The book is beautifully printed, and has a clever frontispiece and title-page by Walter Crane, who has also supplied attractive head-pieces for the chapters. Mr. Ellis's brief Glossary "in vulpine verse" is amusing. We have no doubt the excellent old story will win many new friends in its latest dress.

'Selected Letters of Mendelssohn' is a new version, by W. F. Alexander, of thirty-three of the best letters of that composer (Macmillan). There is a short preface by Sir George Grove, who thinks that in the happy knack of expression "even Dean Stanley, the prince of letter-writers, hardly excels" Mendelssohn. Even if the reader should fail to agree with this flattering estimate, he will find in this brief collection some graphic descriptions of travel in Italy and Switzerland, and glimpses of musical life in Germany. In Mendelssohn's day, travel in Italy was still by stage coach. In going from Rome to Naples, he writes: "One flies over the level plains; for a little drink-money the postilions will go at a furious gallop, which is quite what is wanted on the marshes; and if one wants to see the country, it is only necessary to refuse the drink-money, and the pace falls off at once." From a musical point of view, the most interesting of these letters is the one beginning on page 124. In it Mendelssohn declares that he is unlike other people, inasmuch as to him music is more definite in its meaning than words are. "If you ask me what was in my mind while composing a particular song, I answer, The song itself precisely as it stands." In Rome, one day, he was so incensed at hearing great composers and painters spoken of disrespectfully that he wrote: "If all my life I never contrive to do anything else, I am resolved at least to be as rude as I can to people who have no respect for the great masters." It would have been well if Mendelssohn himself had had a little more respect for the great masters who were his contemporaries—Schumann, Chopin, Berlioz, Wagner, and Liszt. However, he never disparages them in his letters; or were such passages eliminated?

'The Legitimate School of Singing,' by Francis C. Maria de Rialp (New York: The Author), is not intended to be a new method of teaching the voice, but merely a collection of hints to singers and teachers. It may be doubted whether any teacher or student can get any satisfaction from such a definition as this of pitch: "The height and circumference, chosen for their acoustical value, at which every sound that we utter must, in its artistic capacity, originate, and within which it must be contained." But there are many good things in the little book, on chromatic sounds, trills, legato, and especially about phrasing, as to which the writer strenuously insists on what most singers and teachers overlook, namely, that it is the poem and its punctuation that should regulate the breathing, accentuation, and phrasing in general. There is also much food for thought in this sentence: "Unhappily, it is the less well-informed class that represents the larger part of our audiences, gives the verdict, and makes reputations, to the detriment of the good taste and classical principles by which singers should be guided."

Few, we think, would contend that the phase of American character whose latest designation is Coxeyism was not worth even a catchpenny volume. Such is 'The Story of the Commonweal,' by Henry Vincent, "official historian" (Chicago: W. B. Conkey). The "Citizen-Commonweal" is a non-entity like the socialist "State," but this manifestation of the loafing spirit in the American people was a shameful reality, and may well be spread upon the minutes for the future philosophic historian. The "eloquence in the patient dreariness of their plodding towards a goal" has deserted the "industrial armies" since Mr. Stanley Waterloo wrote the introduction to this account of the several west-easterly raids; but the camera speaks for them here in portraits of Coxey and Browne, of "Gen." Kelly, of L. L. Polk, "late president Farmers' Alliance and Industrial Union," of Mrs. Nile C. Smith, and in numerous views of the rank and file afoot and afloat.

The spice of the new volume of Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society (vol. viii., 1892-1894) is to be found in the tilt between Messrs. Robert C. Winthrop, jr., and Charles Francis Adams, growing out of the latter's 'Massachusetts and its Historians.' This controversy is very well worth reading, both for the incidental information and for the exhibition of the historic temperament in either disputant. Mr. Winthrop has occasion to rehabilitate Emmanuel Downing's reputation so far as it has been affected by Mr. Lowell's judgment. Mr. Adams's essay on the curse of the Spanish discovery of America is also contained in this volume, along with translations of letters from Gen. Pero Menendez de Aviles to the King of Spain, bequeathed to the Society by the late Francis Parkman, whose brief and modest autobiography in the third person is here printed, and supplemented by Mr. O. B. Frothingham's elaborate sketch of the historian.

In the *Nation* of January 11 last, President Gilman noted the fact, published by the Hon. R. C. Winthrop, that on August 6, 1664 (O. S.), Prof. John Winthrop saw five satellites around the planet Jupiter. Mr. F. H. Clutz, a student in astronomy at the Johns Hopkins University, has published in the University Circular No. 111 an interesting inquiry into this observation. The question considered is whether there was any bright star around Jupiter on the evening in question that could have been mistaken for a satellite. Mr. Clutz computed the place of Jupiter from Leverrier's tables for the night of observation, and then, from a star catalogue, found that the star numbered 6,448 in the British Association Catalogue was only five minutes south of Jupiter, while two other yet brighter stars were a little more than half-a-degree away. As Winthrop had no means of distinguishing a satellite of Jupiter from a star, there can be no doubt that some of his supposed satellites were one or more of these stars.

Mr. Waters's "Genealogical Gleanings in England," in the April number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*, deal largely with the Massachusetts family of Pynchon, of Essex origin, as is very convincingly displayed. Incidentally, Mr. Waters directs the attention of genealogists to the Stowe MSS. in the British Museum, as containing "one of the richest and most valuable heraldic and genealogical collections in the Museum," as yet unindexed. He further prints the will of Anthony Radcliffe, brother of Lady Ann Mowlson, the benefactor of Harvard whose family name has just been bestowed upon the Annex. In the same number of the *Register*, Judge A. W. Savary of Annapolis Royal, N. S., traces the pedigree of the inventor Edison to his grandfather Samuel, among the Loyalists of New York who settled in and near Digby, N. S., where Edison's father, Samuel, was born before the migration to Upper Canada and Michigan began, in 1811. The only representatives of the name at present in Digby are colored people, descendants of a negro brought by the well-to-do Edisons from New York.

The annual report of the curators of the Bodleian Library for the year 1893 shows an increase of upwards of fifty-seven thousand "printed and MS. items" received during the year. Nearly forty thousand of these came in under the copyright act. Of the remaining seventeen thousand-odd, 4,990 come from the United Kingdom, 666 from the United States, and 4,978 from Germany and Austria. France contributes 2,896. The Shelley donation, received from the poet's daughter-in-law, who offered it through one of the curators, the late Prof. Jowett, is rightly pronounced "one of the most important gifts received by the library for many years." It consists partly of volumes given under special conditions. These are not to be opened or copied until twenty-odd years hence, and consist of MS. letters of Shelley, his second wife, and others, together with two printed volumes, containing the journal-book of Shelley and other biographical documents. The remainder of the Shelley donation is permanently exhibited in the library, and consists of ten autograph MSS., three volumes of his

printed works, the Sophocles found in his hand after death, and two copies of portraits of the poet. Eighty-five MSS. have been acquired during the year, and also a collection of Icelandic *grafskriptir*, ranging from 1823 to 1892. These Bodley's Librarian describes as "funeral-broadsheets, generally containing brief particulars relating to the deceased, and suitable poetry." To this he adds: "The collection was sent from Iceland, with a consignment of ponies, to a Glasgow merchant, who offered it to the Bodleian."

The report upon Uganda by the late Sir Gerald Portal, recently presented to Parliament, will increase the general regret at the untimely decease of this able officer. It is a very clear statement, in a series of terse propositions, of the condition of the country, the difficulties of the problem presented to him, and the various methods of solving it. He asserts very emphatically that there can be no honorable withdrawal from the country; that, if this were to take place, the natives' trust in English promises and English credit would be completely broken. Not only so, but some other European Power, probably Germany, would immediately take possession of the "natural key to the whole of the Nile valley and to the richest parts of Central Africa, and the only country which offers any present hope of profitable commerce." The direct administration of Uganda by the Government is not advised, on account of the great expense, but a somewhat indefinite plan is proposed "by which the English sphere of influence may be maintained, with the help of Zanzibar." He advocates the construction of a railway to the coast and the putting two steam launches on Lake Victoria. The report contains some strictures upon the course pursued by the British East Africa Company, especially with regard to its bringing the Sudanese troops of Emin Pasha into the country, where they have committed great atrocities. These strictures the directors of the company have answered in a letter addressed to the Government.

Dr. J. W. Gregory has given, in the *Fortnightly Review*, a lively description of his recent expedition to Mt. Kenia, the region in which the new socialistic experiment of Freeland is to be tried. From it we gather that the advantages of the country for European colonization have been somewhat exaggerated. The soil is often rich, but the rains are very uncertain, and agricultural produce cannot pay with the present cost of transport, "even if there were a railway to the coast." Of mineral wealth there are very few indications, "as a rule not even enough to found a mining company on." Cattle-ranching might pay, except that occasionally the whole country is swept by disease, and the cattle and buffaloes are then practically exterminated. The natives, too, are bitterly hostile to the Europeans, rendered so by the treatment which they have received from the expeditions of Count Teleki and Dr. Peters. "You white men," said a chief, "have faces that smile like the sky, but you are bad inside." Dr. Gregory was unsuccessful in his unaided attempt to reach the summit of the mountain, but he climbed high enough to make some important observations of the geological structure of the mass, the extent of its glaciers, and the character of its fauna and flora.

Mr. W. Woodville Rockhill, the author of 'The Land of the Lamas,' made a second journey through Mongolia and Tibet in 1892, an account of which he has given in the May number of the *Geographical Journal*. His intention was to have crossed Tibet to India, but, on approaching Lhasa, which he nearly reached, he was stopped and compelled to return to China. During eleven months he had "travelled about 8,000 miles, surveyed 3,417, and, during the geographically important part of the journey, crossed sixty-nine passes, all of them rising over 14,500 feet above sea-level." Mr. Rockhill (an American, it should be remembered) is not only a careful observer and geographer, as the accompanying map shows, but he is, according to Sir Henry Howorth, "one of perhaps three men in the world who know both Chinese and Tibetan, and the only man who is known to have waded through the enormous masses of Buddhist literature of Tibet—an absolutely unknown land to all but himself." There is also an account of the celebration by the Royal Geographical Society of the fifth centenary of the birth of Prince Henry the Navigator, and a report of Baron Toll's interesting expedition last year to Arctic Siberia and the New Siberia Islands, which he reached by travelling in dog-sledges on the ice.

We note the arrest, on suspicion of anarchy, of one of "Les Jeunes," M. Felix Fénéon, a décadent and symbolist writer well known in the Quartier Latin. M. Fénéon is rather old for a "Jeune," since he was born in 1861, but he makes up in youthfulness what he lacks in youth. He founded in 1883 the first of the reviews of the Latin Quarter, the *Revue Indépendante*, a duodecimo monthly, which lived for only a year or two, though it has been revived since. The earlier series is interesting at the present time, and even to some extent valuable, since Fénéon, who wrote very little in it himself, had among his habitual contributors some men now of much repute. Stephane Mallarmé wrote for it, and Paul Verlaine, and Émile Hennequin, and Édouard Rod, and Moréas and Tailhade and J. K. Huysmans, with others of less note. Fénéon himself wrote art criticisms in praise and honor of the Impressionist school of painters. Since the death of the *Revue Indépendante*, literature has been with M. Fénéon rather an avocation than a regular pursuit. He entered the civil service of the Republic, and at the time of his arrest was a chief clerk at the War Office.

M. Francisque Sarcey, in a recent *feuilleton*, tells a rather amusing story. Blumenthal, the great theatre manager of Berlin, was talking with Tolstoi about Ibsen, and said: "I have put a good many of his plays on the stage, but I can't say that I quite understand them. Do you understand them?" To whom Tolstoi: "Ibsen doesn't understand them himself. He just writes them, and then sits down and waits. After a while his expounders and explainers come, and tell him what he meant." This is an excellent story to receive with reserves, since the truth of it would not be in the least degree lessened if it should be shown never to have occurred as a fact. In that event it would merely take its place among that class of writings which Semitic scholars call Haggadah, the aim of which is not so much historical exactness as the conveying of valuable moral and critical lessons.

Miss Laurence Alma-Tadema has been receiving a certain amount of printed praise for the freshness and cleverness of the title of h r new novel, 'The Wings of Icarus.' But nothing is new in this senescent world. Charles de Bernard wrote 'Les Ailes d'Icare' something like fifty years ago, and Thackeray spoke of it at some length in 'The Paris Sketch-book.' The volume is still in print.

Mr. Andrew W. Tuer, of the Leadenhall Press, London, who is engaged in writing a work on the horn-book, desires to get a full-size photograph and description of one in the shape of a cross lately sold by a Folkestone dealer, Signor Chanteri, to a Parisian trader.

Radcliffe College has been wise and fortunate in securing, as its first Dean, Miss Agnes Irwin of Philadelphia. This lady has long been at the head of a successful and widely known young ladies' school in that city. She comes of a remarkable family, being, on her mother's side, a favorite niece of Alexander Bache and a great-granddaughter of Franklin; and she is a worthy representative of such a line. Indeed, it is not too much to say that her access to this office is an event of first-rate importance to the interests of the higher education of women. Miss Irwin will bring to the serious problems of administration which such an institution as Radcliffe College presents, and also to the simpler duties of the place and her merely personal relations with the students and officers of instruction, a combination of admirable qualities which promises the happiest results. Learning, wide accomplishments, sagacity, breadth of understanding, and other intellectual gifts such as it would be hard to match, are but the least things in this gracious outfit.

—The first instalment of Prof. J. B. Thayer's new book of select 'Cases in Constitutional Law,' and notes, following his 'Cases in Evidence,' published last year (Cambridge: Charles W. Sever), is before us, and the completed work (which, the author's preface tells us, will be about four times as large), will appear in two volumes some time during the current year. The present "fragment," as Prof. Thayer terms it, deals with only three topics—the constitutions of government, the making and changing of written constitutions, and the jurisdiction of the United States. An appendix contains the Articles of Confederation, the United States Constitution, the Massachusetts Constitution of 1780, and a great number of interesting selections from different State constitutions and colonial charters. As yet the book lacks an index, though it contains a table of cases. Such a work as this, if carried out, as it surely will be, in the same careful and thorough manner, will be a great addition to a branch of legal literature already more fully treated than perhaps any other. The Constitution of the United States was explained clause by clause in the *Federalist* by its ablest framers. The debates in Convention and in the subsequent bodies of ratification of the different States remain to further elucidate it. Nor does any antiquated or obscure language or professional jargon confuse the terms of the instrument or the subsequent writings upon it, among which are the most splendid achievements of the law: the 'Commentaries' of Kent and Story; the opinions of the Supreme Bench, from Marshall to Miller; the 'Limitations' of Judge Cooley; and the comments of other observers less technical but no less profound, from Tocqueville to Bryce. Prof. Thayer's work promises to contain the great cases from Marbury vs. Madison, which first held the Constitution paramount to all other law, down to such recent cases as Leisy vs. Hardin, "the original-package case," together with selections from the *Federalist*, and other sources of comment, copious notes and reference, arranged in order, which will make the work a reference library to almost any text-book on the subject. The opening chapter even traces the source of a modern constitutional formation and theory back through Montesquieu, to whom we more immediately

owe so much, to Aristotle's 'Politics,' where the following very striking passage occurs: "In every form of government (πολιτεία) there are three departments (μόρια) . . . Of these three, one is the part which deliberates (τὸ βουλευόμενον) about public affairs; the second is that which has to do with the offices . . .; and the third is the judicial part (τὸ δικάζον.)"

—Liberality and progress have made two great strides in the University of Oxford. A last attack upon the establishment of an eighth final school, the "Final Honour School of English Language and Literature," was defeated in Congregation on May 1, when the form of statute establishing the new school was promulgated, and its preamble was finally adopted by 120 placets against 46 non-placets. The details of this statute are now open to amendment, but the establishment of the school is assured. The preamble adopted runs as follows: "Whereas it is expedient to establish a Final Honour School of English Language and Literature, the University enacts as follows." This school must include authors "belonging to the different periods of English literature," and "the history of the English language and the history of English literature." Special subjects "falling within or usually studied in connection with the English language and literature" are also provided for. Candidates must have studied their authors "(1) with reference to the forms of the language, (2) as examples of literature, and (3) in their relation to the history and thought of the period to which they belong." The study of Anglo-Saxon, and of the relation of English to "the languages with which it is etymologically connected" and of the history of English literature, is made the centre of the whole school, and a board of at least twenty examiners is provided for. Their duty shall be "to see that, as far as possible, equal weight is given to language and literature" in the conduct of the examination, "provided always that candidates who offer special subjects shall be at liberty to choose subjects connected either with language or with literature or with both."

—The second progressive vote in Congregation was carried on May 8, and amounts to the first step towards establishing post-graduate studies. Without a dissentient vote, a resolution was passed to the following general effect: New degrees are to be established, which shall be granted, after a course of special study or research, not only "to members of the University who have passed the examinations qualifying for the degree of Bachelor of Arts," but also "to persons, not being graduates of Oxford, who have given satisfactory proof of general education, and of fitness to enter on a course of general study." By a vote of 73 to 40 it was also resolved to allow those who have taken these proposed new degrees "to supplicate for the M.A. degree on paying the usual fees" when they have qualified by residence. Universities and local colleges approved by Convocation are to have "the same privilege with respect to standing" enjoyed by affiliated colleges. Without a dissentient vote it was resolved that candidates for the new degrees must be at least twenty-one years old, and that for these degrees a residence of three years in the University shall be required, "provided that residence for two years in a university or college approved by Convocation or in an affiliated college should be reckoned as equivalent to one year's residence in Oxford." Finally a Delegacy is to admit candidates, supervise their work, and authorize them "to supplicate for the proposed new degrees." This Delegacy is also to be empowered to appoint committees of graduates to report on each candidate's capacity, and, if he be approved, to superintend his work. The proposal that these new degrees be "Master of Science" and "Master of Letters" was not agreed to. It will be seen that many other difficult questions of detail are still left vague. When a definite form of statute is promulgated, all these matters will be cleared up, but the important fact remains that the University of Oxford is now committed to the establishment of degrees leading to the Oxford M.A., which may be obtained by candidates who have no Oxford degree, and will certainly be awarded on the strength of work hardly to be gauged by examination papers. A series of compromises between the German requirement of a thesis and the premium on brilliant essay-writing offered by the Oxford *Literæ Humaniores* School are likely to be initiated, but the needs of students in natural science will also have claims to a most special and careful consideration.

—The first number for 1894 of the *Archivio Storico dell' Arte* contains two short but highly interesting articles by Signor Frizzoni upon topics concerning Leonardo. In the one, he discusses the pastel heads of Apostles at Weimar, which he is inclined to ascribe to Andrea Solario, the author of a splendid copy of the "Last Supper" dating from about 1514, and now exhibited along with the ruined original. In his other article, he touches upon a question of more general interest. In a recent number of the *Archivio Storico Lombardo*, Signor Emilio Motta published a document concerning nothing less than the famous "Vierge aux Rochers." Unanimous as are the critics regarding the merits of this masterpiece, they are by no means agreed as to precisely which it is, whether the one in Paris or the one in London. The best connoisseurship has decided in favor of the Louvre picture; but as their opponents get something like support from Signor Motta's document, Dr. Frizzoni hastens to discuss its real bearing. The new document is a petition from Ambrogio da Predis (a painter to whom Morelli has ascribed a number of famous portraits passing under the name of Leonardo) and Leonardo himself to Ludovico Sforza, begging him to compel the monks of San Francesco either to pay them the hundred ducats the triptych was worth, instead of the five and twenty offered, or to return it to them. Of this triptych, Leonardo had painted the "Madonna of the Rocks," and Ambrogio the wings, each containing an angel. Now, the picture at present in the National Gallery certainly comes from San Francesco, the wings having meanwhile become the property of Duke Melzi at Milan; but Signor Frizzoni, far from being dismayed by this, points to the probability that Leonardo did take back his picture from the monks, letting them retain for their 25 ducats a copy which they cannot be blamed for finding equally satisfactory, considering that so many critics still prefer it (the National Gallery "Madonna") to the original.

—The Hawaiian Islands seem to be capable of furnishing food for thought in the scientific as well as the political world. Astronomical observations recently made there showed that the newly discovered motion of the earth's axis has opposite phases for Honolulu and Berlin; and now a new value for the mean density of the earth has been found by measuring the force of gravity at the summits of two of their highest craters. The method adopted was first used in England, but has been carried out in Hawaii on an unprecedented scale; the disturbing influence of the mountain on a plumb-line being no less than a minute of arc, corresponding to a distance of a mile on the earth's surface. Moreover, a pendulum which beat seconds at the sea-level was found to be accelerated by the attraction of the mountain by twenty-two seconds per day when carried to the summit at an elevation of 13,000 feet. The mean density of the earth obtained was 5.33. By permission of the superintendent of the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey, these results have just been communicated to the Philosophical Society of Washington by the observer, Mr. E. D. Preston, one of the officers of the coast-survey service.

—By the death of Álvaro Campaner y Fuertes, which occurred at Palma April 20, Mallorca has lost the younger of her two foremost literary men, and Spain a writer whose name is a noteworthy one in the bibliography of her historical literature. Educated for the law, Mr. Campaner filled various judicial positions, retiring, after many years of public service, with a pension. In 1859 he published a work on ancient Catalan commercial law, but he had already given evidence that his tastes lay in the direction of historical research rather than purely legal study. He obtained the prize offered by the Archduke Luis Salvador, on the occasion of the celebration of the fiftieth anniversary of the founding of the Instituto Balear, for an essay on the Arab domination of the Balearic Islands, by a monograph which was afterwards expanded into a volume and published, in 1888, under the title, 'Bosquejo histórico de la Dominación islamita en las Islas Baleares.' The author's remarkable familiarity with the manuscript and other sources of the history of Mallorca is well indicated in a quarto volume published, in 1881, by State aid, called 'Cronicón Mayoricense, desde 1229 hasta 1800.' His contributions to periodicals and society transactions elucidating obscure historical questions were numerous, and of a nature to give his conclusions the weight of authority, and his services to archæology and numismatics were acknowledged by the bestowal of honorary membership in several learned associations. It was as a numismatist that Mr. Campaner was best known throughout Europe, and his extensive and exact knowledge recognized. His collection of coins and medals is large and valuable. In addition to collaboration in the production of important works on Iberian numismatics, notably Heiss's 'Descripción general de las monedas hispano-cristianas,' his individual publications upon this topic—books, pamphlets, articles—cover a period of more than thirty years. Special mention may be made of his 'Numismática Balear,' an octavo volume, with plates, published at Palma in 1879, and of his 'Indicador Manual de la Numismática española,' which appeared at Madrid as late as 1891, and is a compact handbook to the voluminous and intricate history of the numismatics of Spain. Not only is Mr. Campaner's decease a public loss, but because of his probity, pure-mindedness, animated spirit, and warm heart, the knowledge of it will bring a sense of personal bereavement to all who have ever met him.

—Readers generally are familiar with Fra Paolo as the historian of the Council of Trent and as the adviser of the Signoria of Venice in its quarrel with Paul V. Those who desire in

addition to know him as the discoverer of the circulation of the blood, of the undulatory theory of light, and of heat as a mode of motion, and also as the originator of Locke's 'Essay on the Understanding,' can consult the Rev. Alexander Robertson's 'Fra Paolo Sarpi' (T. Whittaker), a small volume of about 200 pages. It does not contain, apparently, the results of any original research, but recites in somewhat exaggerated style the well-known facts in the career of the remarkable man whom the author characterizes on the title-page as "the greatest of the Venetians" and elsewhere as "undoubtedly one of the greatest thinkers the world has ever seen." The reader, perhaps, would feel more confidence in Mr. Robertson's estimate of his hero if he had not manifested partisanship so intense as effectually to disable his judgment. It is somewhat late in the day to allude to Cardinal Pole as "the traitor Reginald Pole," to speak of Sixtus V. as a martyr to reform, whose poisoning by the Jesuits "is well authenticated," and to assert that "of all human institutions monasteries seem most liable to slide into disorder, degeneracy, and depravity." Sarpi as a youth was unusually precocious; when he was but eighteen years of age, in 1570, he was appointed professor of theology at Mantua, but it was not necessary for Mr. Robertson to exalt his precocity when in 1578, at the age of twenty-six, he was honored by the great university of Padua with the degree of doctor of theology, by saying that, "being but twenty years old, he was the youngest man ever so honored by this ancient university." The volume, in fact, is amateurish throughout, and the author shows himself indifferently equipped for a subject worthy of the labors of the most industrious and conscientious scholar.

LETTERS OF COUNTESS GRANVILLE.

Letters of Harriet Countess Granville. 1810–1845. Edited by her son, the Hon. F. Leveson Gower. 2 vols. Longmans. 1894.

THE writer of these delightful letters was Lady Harriet Cavendish, younger daughter of the fifth Duke of Devonshire and wife of the first Earl Granville. The letters are addressed to her only sister, Lady Georgiana Morpeth, whose husband became the sixth Earl of Carlisle; to her sister-in-law, the Countess of Harrowby; and to her only brother, the sixth Duke of Devonshire. Lord Granville (then Lord Granville Leveson Gower) was sent to Oxford at the age of fifteen, and there he formed a lifelong friendship with Mr. Canning. In 1824 Lord Granville, having already been British Ambassador in Russia, was sent to The Hague, but after a few months there he was transferred to Paris. He was British Ambassador in Paris from 1824 to 1828 and again from 1830 to 1841. It was mainly due to Lord Granville's influence that a war between France and England in 1840 was averted. The strain and anxiety which he underwent at that time brought on an attack of paralysis from which he never entirely recovered, and he died in 1846. Lord and Lady Granville's marriage was one of more than ordinary happiness. Her ever-increasing affection for her husband and her fresh vivacity supported Lord Granville through the many trials of a career as difficult as it was prosperous. Of their five children one son died young. The eldest was the late Lord Granville, so long one of the most distinguished members of the Liberal party in England. The third son, the editor of these letters, represented Bodmin in Parliament for twenty six years. The elder daughter, the Susan of the Letters, married the fourth Lord Rivers. The second daughter, Lady Georgiana, married Mr. Fullerton, and was the author of several novels, of which 'Ellen Middleton' is the best known. A very interesting Life of Lady Georgiana Fullerton has been written by Mme. Augustus Craven.

Lady Granville throughout her life held the strongest view of the importance of duty. The duties which fell to her lot as ambassadress were generally very distasteful to her, but she never failed to fulfil them not only thoroughly but cheerfully. Her own standard of right was a high one, and while she admired those who acted up to it, she was full of indulgence for those who fell short of it. She mixed with all the celebrated and distinguished people of her day, and her comments on them, though always amusing or interesting, are never unkind. She found it possible to remain unspotted from the world while compelled to lead a life which might well have been both selfish and worldly in the highest degree. After Lord Granville's death Lady Granville shrank from all society but that of her children and nearest relatives. She died in 1862, fifteen years after the death of her husband.

Lady Granville was able to describe a scene or a character in a few graphic words:

"I have made acquaintance with [Lord Byron]. He is agreeable, but I feel no wish for any further intimacy. His countenance is fine when it is in repose, but, the moment it is in play, suspicious, malignant, and consequently repulsive. His manner is either remarkably gracious and conciliatory, with a tinge of affectation, or irritable and impetuous, and then, I am afraid, perfectly natural."

"[Lady Morley] falls upon the flatness and ennui of London society like rain upon a parched field."

"[Lady Binning's] conversation is like what the *Quarterly Review* says of Sir John Carr's last work, 'a heavy fall of the lightest possible materials.'"

"[Lord Harrowby in general conversation] is a little too much 'squared to nicest rules.' The grammar is so good, and the period so neat. I do not mean to say that these are not desirable points; but, as Hannah More says of good housewifery, one should see the effect and not the details."

"I quite love the Duke of Wellington. He is neither an agreeable man nor in my eyes a *héros de roman*, but he is the most unpretending, perfectly natural and amiable person I ever met with."

"Lady Grantham looks amongst [the French ladies] like a moon shining upon a common of furze bushes."

Lord and Lady Granville spent a short time in Paris during the visit of the allied sovereigns in 1815. Lady Granville writes:

"The Emperor of Russia . . . has taken a new and grave line, *se promène dans son jardin*, and only with the ugly and the old. The King of Prussia prowls about after his own heart without exciting much attention, and the Emperor of Austria is never seen at all."

"[The ball given by the Duke of Wellington] was a most extraordinary one, about four hundred men to forty women. . . . I met Talleyrand waddling out; he did not speak to me, so I had only the satisfaction of seeing his dirty, cunning face and long coat for a moment. After him came Fouché, a little spare, sallow, shrewd-looking man, who seems to unite all parties in one common feeling—horror of his character, and the policy of not betraying it. He is, I conclude, the worst and the most useful man the King could have found in his whole dominions."

"[The Duc de Rohan's] vanity is like a farce. Somebody was complimenting him on his having an expressive countenance. He said, 'Oui, mais il faudrait me voir quand je prie.'"

Lady Granville gives an interesting account of the trial of Queen Caroline in 1820. She had "an unshakable conviction of the Queen's profligacy," and took the same view as the Archbishop of Canterbury. "He says it is better that the bill should be thrown out with the moral conviction in the higher orders that she is guilty, than carried with the moral conviction in the lower orders that she is innocent." Lord and Lady Granville spent the Christmas of 1824, just before their departure for The Hague, with George the Fourth at Brighton. The invitation to the Pavilion was for nine days, and each lady was expected to provide herself with nine new gowns. Lady Granville writes that "the King is all gayety, graciousness, and nimbleness, . . . his kindness quite moving. But never was anything so dull. The intense heat [of the rooms] makes us all languid, we eat too much, and there is no variety of society and lots of royalty." Lady Granville thoroughly enjoyed The Hague, as she had her day to herself and received visitors only in the evening. She was supposed never to look at pictures, but her descriptions of those at The Hague and at Amsterdam are most vivid. The Dutch court was very formal. Lady Granville says:

"This morning I went, all over diamonds and black satin, to Court. A little *grand-chambellan* leads me from the door to an anteroom where four *dames d'honneur* receive me, till the folding-doors open and I walk in alone to the Queen, standing in the middle of a very large and handsome *salle d'audience*. She is a shy, quiet, well-behaved woman, in miserable health. . . . We talk of our royal family, of the loss of our horses [which died on the voyage], of the size of my house, and of the weather. A little back door opens and the King drops in. Five minutes more small royal talk, and then I back out with a train five yards long."

When Lord Granville was transferred from The Hague to Paris, some of Lady Granville's English acquaintances imagined that she would be dazzled by the greatness of her new position. Her own view of the change was very different. She writes from The Hague:

"For my own feelings, they are selfishly fear of any change of a place and life I like so much, dread of all the worries and duties of Paris, late hours, *grande parure*, visits, presentations, all my favorite aversions. Then comes the thinking Granville will prefer it, that my children will have better masters."

Lady Granville determined to conquer her aversion to dress and to dissipation, and so well did she succeed that she became the most popular English Ambassadress ever sent to Paris. She writes:

"I hope you will find me a laboriously dressed woman." "I am already half an *élégante*." "My face, as Mr. Hill once said, 'Lord help it'; but my *mise* was faultless." "My person is like those *mélodrames* got up at Covent Garden—no merit in the piece, but saved from being damned by the machinery." "There are invariable rules, which is a blessing: never to mind the effect, but to sit still and have it done, as to a dentist."

"I am aware that dress has been a grievance and occupation to me that it would not have been to another, save the Queen of the Sandwich Islands and Mrs. Poki. I saw the imperious necessity of it, and am learning it as a trade. The irksomeness of it, therefore, is daily diminishing. I am also aware that dissipation is a duty, and therefore the sting of it, as a fault, is taken out."

"I am absolutely baked into civility." "I am so anxious to do well that I hope I shall, but some of my duties are difficult to me. To avoid intimacy of communication, to have a degree of repelling civility of manner, to have no preferences and create none—all this will rub my back up the wrong way, but I think over my part so much that I must end by learning it." "The activity and energy of my proceedings, the unwearied loss of my time, leaves no one trace of usefulness or real good behind it. . . . However, I am not wholly discontented with myself. I never taught my children so much and so regularly as since I have been at Paris. I have made myself rules with regard to them

which I do not allow myself to transgress." "The height of my earthly aspirations is to be allowed to abstain from pleasure." "There is one enjoyment which I earn with the sweat of my brow . . . —bedtime."

The presentation of an Ambassadress at the French court in 1824 was called the *traitement*. Lady Granville says that her behavior on the occasion was thought of so much consequence that she felt as if she were going to be hung, and all her reputation turning thereon. The Ambassadress was then invited to a great dinner at Court, she naming the guests, who must be of the highest rank of her own nation. In Lady Granville's case her own husband could not go unless invited by her. Lady Granville, shortly after her own presentation, had to attend that of the Spanish Ambassadress, who knew not a word of French and had been dragged into Paris by ten mules. Lady Granville writes:

"I pitied this poor little woman with *connaissance de cause*, but had a sort of delight at assisting instead of performing. . . . I came home at eight tired to death. Had to undress completely, lie down for a couple of hours, and then rise again out of my ashes to dress a second time for Lady Waterpark's ball."

Lady Granville did not at first enjoy the society of the French ladies, whom she thought pedantic and frivolous, and of whom she wrote:

"It is odd that their effect upon me is to crush me with the sense of my inferiority, whilst I am absolutely gasping with the sense of my superiority. . . . The truth is, they have an *aplomb*, a language, a dress *de convenance*, which it is as impossible for me to reach as it would be for one of them to think five minutes like a deep-thinking, deep-feeling Englishwoman."

Lady Granville's opinion of French society was afterwards much modified. She writes of Queen Marie Amélie, after the attempts on the life of Louis Philippe in 1832: "Only think what the Queen must at moments feel when she fears for the safety of those she devotedly loves, and without one taste or object gratified that can bring one grain into the balance. She has more dignity and calmness of manner than anybody, and I never saw any one who brought such conviction to one's mind that 'her help is from above.'"

Lady Granville had much pleasant English society during her residence in Paris. Of one friend she says: "He chews the cud of conversation; takes no notice at the time, but, two days after, 'You said so and so,' not, as one expects, to confute, but merely to state it over again as digested and approved." But "men so little understand the comfort of talking a great deal about nothing at all."

RECENT FICTION.

Ships that Pass in the Night. By Beatrice Harraden. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

In Varying Moods. By Beatrice Harraden. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

A Superfluous Woman. Cassell Publishing Co.

Links in a Chain. By Margaret Sutton Briscoe. Dodd, Mead & Co.

The Rousing of Mrs. Potter, and Other Stories. By Gertrude Smith. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

On the Offensive: An Army Story. By George I. Putnam. Charles Scribner's Sons.

As long ago as in 1853, Mrs. Sarah Austin complained to M. Guizot that modern novels were "party pamphlets," "painful dissections of the least agreeable and beautiful parts of our nature," or a "kind of martyrology"; and she instanced a recent one from the hands of a woman as being "one of the many proofs of the desire women now have to *friser* questionable topics and to *poser* insoluble moral problems." Mrs. Austin did not live to read the pamphlets, the dissections, the martyrologies of to-day, or her language might have been even stronger. At a time when the best friends of women are asking, "Has woman purified literature?" it is a pleasant duty to note among their writings one like 'Ships that Pass in the Night,' which is not written on the assumption that free thought is necessarily offensive thought, or that emancipation means license morally or literarily. Essentially modern in *mise-en-scène*, manner, and touch, belonging in its literary attitude to that advanced school of novels which largely owes its existence to women writers, and which might not inaptly be called the University Extension of Fiction, this little story is yet full of the tender grace of a day not wholly dead. It is clean, it is piquant, it is healthy; and this notwithstanding that its hero and heroine meet at a Continental resort for consumptives where are gathered together the evil and the good, and notwithstanding that they are both bristling with modern views of life and humanity. It is because, with every reason for morbidness in the destiny of the two invalids, they refuse to be morbid, that the story speaks nearly to every one who is interested in observing the effect of the modern idea on the enigmas of living. The world-old question of pain is met in the modern way, by another question, "Who knows?" yet it is done with the reverence, the sweetness, and above all with the sunshine, that the moderns sometimes omit. To think of others and to be sane is the wisdom which all the learning of colleges cannot better. Dogma died before this man and woman were born; creeds never existed for them; yet they set their lives to the most orthodox of doctrines—that of the sweet and sunny. To this they are brought by grace rather than by nature; the woman learns it through suffering, and the man, later, but at last, learns it from the woman. They do what they must, growling a little, in a wholesome way, but never whining and always hoping.

'In Varying Moods,' a collection of short stories by the same author, is also full of the combined tenderness and cheer which mark the former volume. There is here the same sanity, the same determination to see the best in life and to fling over the worst a mantle of hope, kindness, and humor. The most striking virtues of the book, indeed, have been already welcomed in 'Ships that Pass in the Night.' To read this is in the main like reading that, so far as the animus goes, and even further; the likeness extending to phrases and incidents. "The Green Dragon" is the most interesting one of the collection as a story, but "The Painter and his Picture" is the most perfect artistically and the most suggestive spiritually. The stories of tragic incident are least coherently made. The preface tells us that they are more truth than fiction, but the burden of proof lies with the author to make them seem real, and they do not. "Joy and Sorrow" is almost the allegory of "Failure and Success" with which Bernardine began her book; "A London Idyl" is delicate and gracious; "A Bird of Passage" trills a clear cadenza through mountain air at dawn. The conclusions resulting from the whole are a sense of its rare merit as picture-book and lesson-book; an impression that the author has given the best of it before; a suspicion that wholesomeness might, by too much advocacy, grow conscious, and the reflection that it would be a thousand pities if so sweet and cleanly a pen should not keep itself, by rigid restraint, at the topmost height of its interest and power.

But what would Mrs. Austin have said of 'A Superfluous Woman'? Published anonymously, it is unquestionably the work of a woman, and deals with several of the topics which have conspicuously figured in recent novels, and which, from being startling, have become tiresome. The epileptic children of dissipated fathers, for instance, are getting overworked as the property of the literary stage. A woman tired of luxury seeks novelty in the peasant life of some Highlanders; becomes for a brief time a peasant, then a pagan; then, since her lover, though peasant, is not pagan, flees back to London to become the wretched wife of the best catch of the season. While the passion of an over-civilized young Londoner for a son of the soil may be a new subject, it is not attractive. It is repulsive on merely æsthetic grounds, and becomes so on moral grounds when the lady's love proves to be of the sort that "had the quality of self-abandonment, but could not rise to sacrifice. Shame she would have accepted, but noble endurance was as yet beyond her." In becoming the wife of a rake and the mother of two epileptic children, who kill each other in a nursery fight while she is atoning for her sins by resolutely and, as it proves, effectually, praying for the death of the third one yet unborn, she flourishes before us as an example of what the heroine of fiction has become since Mrs. Austin's day, and a beacon-light of suggestion as to where she may yet arrive.

The inevitable doctor in such stories, quack and omniscient, ascribes Jessamine's troubles to a lack of brain and an over-developed but meaningless strength and sweetness, so that, if the story has any purpose, it is perhaps meant to be that women should encourage their brains. There is no fault to be found with this moral; it is the text-book that is superfluous along with the woman. It belongs to the class called "strong," a term used in the studio and the dairy. The style is as of one struggling dutifully after complexity; and yet (to give it its due) there are at intervals good things excellently said:

"Colin had the sort of greatness which can see the thing in its essence without the small, despairing restlessness of those who curiously inquire into the imperfection of detail. The lasting and the eternal were enough for him; the passing flaws went unconsidered."

"Behind the mounting steps of Evolution creeps the stealthy shadow Atavism, like old guilt which can never be repudiated any more." "One-half of us seems running backward to embrace the unspeakable ancestor, while the rest reaches forward to the high level of posterity."

"It [unsophisticatedness] falls insensibly from the catalogue of modern qualities, and its possession, though refreshing, begins to argue an intellectual want. In truth, native unsophisticatedness of soul is being exchanged for that less fleeting possession—the simplicity which is the result of choice and of deep thinking. As old good things go, new good things come, and loss is mingled with gain."

"The mischief with women is that they are too sympathetic. I am convinced it is an indication of contempt. I have remarked that every woman thinks all men beneath her, save the one she is in love with."

If Miss Briscoe's 'Links in a Chain' had been called 'Links Not in a Chain,' it would have been more truly entitled, for while the chapters, taken separately, are sufficiently readable, they are wholly desultory. The fact that one

man figures in them all does not make any relationship among them. This man is one of the elderly, all-wise, all-efficient fairy godfathers of all young persons in trouble. He is consistently successful in all that he attempts, and some of the scenes in which he figures are piquant and interesting, however improbable. The final chapter breaks away from the hero, and shows his young wife converting to religion, in a waifs' lodging-house, a former lover who has gone wrong through her fickleness. The description of the house and its superintendent is cleverly done, but the final scene is so bathetic that one longs to beg this facile, ingenious, and observant young writer to attempt no more chains, which seem to hamper her, but to give us links only.

We have failed to discover in Gertrude Smith's stories anything that one cannot find better done in Miss Wilkins's stories, of which they are obviously the consequence. They have in most cases moved to Kansas, which is a variation certainly, but on the journey they have contrived to lose that sense of climax which always points Miss Wilkins's stories, even those most demurely, not to say almost babyishly, simple in their form. Gertrude Smith's have the form, but reach this culmination only occasionally. Wilkins writ small does not commend itself to us as a perfectly happy experiment, but lucidity is so strong an attraction that these little stories will no doubt find their admirers.

Mr. Putnam's second army story is written in the quiet, forcible style of his first, some of the characters of which reappear here, together with others equally well drawn. What the author has said of a short sketch is applicable to this later work: "Whatever this tale may lack, it at least has truth." The descriptions are true and accurate; there is no exaggeration of the dark side of garrison life, and no attempt to throw a glamour over it. We meet again with sincere and just criticisms of army maladministration, especially of the policy which offers no stimulus to an officer to go beyond the mere routine of drills and duty. In the struggles of Lieut. Spurbridge to decide whether to remain in the stagnating army or to enter upon a literary career, on which the plot of 'On the Offensive' hinges, is involved a candid discussion of what a military career under the republic offers in time of peace, the earnestness of which may be due to the fact that the writer, too, left the army to engage in literary pursuits. To politicians and philanthropists who so frequently fall foul of our little army in its relation to the Indians we would especially recommend the description of the Indian uprising, an excellent piece of writing, and as just as it is able. It is a pity that Mr. Putnam occasionally lets his descriptive ability run away with him. A little more action would greatly enhance the book's value in the eyes of non-professional readers.

BOOKS ABOUT THE STAGE.

Le Théâtre. Par Francisque Sarcey. Paris: Société Artistique du Livre Illustré; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.

Trucs et Décors: la Machinerie Théâtrale. Par Georges Moynet. Paris: Librairie Illustrée; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.

Essai sur l'Histoire du Théâtre: la Mise en scène, le Décor, le Costume, l'Architecture, l'Éclairage, l'Hygiène. Par Germain Bapst. Paris: Hachette; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.

Sur les Planches. Par Albert Lambert. Paris: Flammarion; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.

THE Société Artistique du Livre Illustré has made a beginning by publishing two little books in editions limited to 532 copies. One of these is on the Newspaper and the other is on the Theatre; and both recall to mind the little books of half a century ago in which Balzac and Alphonse Karr in Paris and Albert Smith and Robert Brough in London sketched the typical medical student, or soldier, or ballet-dancer. There is a further lack of novelty in the illustrations in these carefully printed pamphlets, for they are chiefly woodcuts scattered through the text as in our own magazines, but having, perhaps, more *brio*, more *chic*—a cleverer swing than most of our eminently respectable illustrators exhibit. The best of these drawings are by M. Lepère, who has not, however, engraved his own blocks; and M. Lepère's also is the best of the three etchings—that representing "Le Chat Noir." It is a fair guess that the illustrations were prepared first of all, and that then M. Sarcey was requested to write up to them; and there is perhaps, therefore, more than a suggestion of perfunctoriness about this account of the theatre as it strikes the leader of Parisian dramatic critics. Of course, M. Sarcey knows his subject through and through, but on the present occasion it has failed to inspire him—at least we do not find in these sixty pages any of the delightful paragraphs of his, Voltairean in their irony, and commingled of common sense and wit and an affectionate knowledge of the subject. Perhaps the freshest pages are the earliest, in which he sketches the Conservatory, and tells us that now in France the stage is looked upon as a regular career, having lost its reputation of Bohemianism and being in full favor with the *bourgeoisie*, from whose ranks the theatre is to-day drawing the most of its recruits.

M. Georges Moynet is already known as the author of an interesting and useful volume in the "Bibliothèque des Merveilles" on 'L'Envers du Théâtre,' the substance of which (with the best of the illustrations) was reproduced in *Harper's Magazine* nearly twenty years ago. In his new and larger volume, 'Trucs et Décors,' he has returned to the same subject, treating certain parts of it with ampler detail and with more abundant illustration. With the aid of more than a hundred cuts of one kind or another, sometimes mere sketches, and sometimes almost as elaborate as a working drawing, he describes the stage of the best equipped modern theatres, the mechanism of the scenery, the building and management of transformation scenes, the construction of traps and of trick scenes and of the most ingenious stage devices, the arrangement of the lights and of various optical delusions, and a host of other stage secrets. His knowledge is full, and his explanations, clear in themselves, are further elucidated by the illustrations. No single cut in M. Moynet's book is perhaps as comprehensive and as enlightening to the novice as the two diagrams in the 'Century Dictionary' under the word *stage;* but there are not a few of his chapters from which the most expert can increase his knowledge of the possibilities of stage illusions. Especially interesting, for example, is the fully illustrated account of the very elaborate and highly artistic machinery used in the Paris Opéra for the aerial flight of the equestrian Valkyrs in the recent production of Wagner's "Walküre."

M. Moynet also gives drawings disclosing the working of the horse-race scene in the "County Fair," invented by Mr. Neil Burgess and used in Paris recently in a *revue*. In general he is quite Parisian in his point of view, and he never ceases to be European: thus, when he describes the hydraulic machinery of the Budapest Opera, he does not refer to Booth's Theatre here in New York, where more than one of the same devices were anticipated a quarter of a century ago; and although he illustrates freely the artfully contrived water-effects in the Kiralfy spectacle of "Venice in London," he makes no reference to "America" at the Chicago Auditorium, or to the singularly beautiful spectacle of "Columbus" which Mr. Kiralfy arranged for the Barnum & Bailey show in the Madison Square Garden two or three years ago. Yet he, like M. Nuitter, the learned archivist of the Opéra, is forced to admit that it is only in artificial lighting, in the advantage given by gas, by the calcium light, by the electric light, that the spectacles of this century are superior to those of the Renaissance in Italy, where the engineers were as far advanced then as their followers are now in France, England, and America.

M. Germain Bapst's report, prepared for the Paris Exhibition of 1889, is a sumptuously illustrated volume, and very welcome, though it is but a fragmentary history of the theatre. It begins with the mysteries, and considers next what the author calls the patriotic mysteries, the French equivalent of the English chronicle-plays. It offers, perhaps, the most detailed account yet prepared of the stage and scenery and costumes and machinery used in the representation of these primitive plays. From the Middle Ages M. Bapst passes to the Renaissance, and illustrates the physical conditions of the theatre when "Mirame" was brought out. Then he takes in turn the seventeenth, the eighteenth, and the nineteenth centuries, of course confining himself almost altogether to France, but still showing the regular development of theatrical taste with the growing demand for exact reproduction on the stage of the mere facts of real life. The future author of the much-needed history of scene-painting will find a mass of material collected ready to his hand in M. Bapst's pages—not critical remarks only, but illustrations of recent masterpieces of the art in France. One of the best of these is a sketch of the marvellously picturesque and appropriate scene devised for the production of "Oedipe Roi" at the Théâtre-Français ten years ago.

Nowhere is scene-painting more artistically subordinated to the dramatic interest of the play than at the Théâtre-Français, and nowhere is stage management more skilful in bringing out this dramatic interest and in revealing it to the spectator by an ingenious arrangement of entrances and exits, of gestures and groupings. This is a part of dramatic art which the ordinary playgoer rarely thinks about, and as to which he is wholly ignorant. M. Albert Lambert's book, 'Sur les Planches,' is in the main an essay on this difficult art of stage-management; and all lovers of the theatre who want to understand how it is that a performance by the Comédie-Française seems so harmonious, may be recommended to read M. Lambert's explanation of the cost of this harmony in thought and toil and patience. In the history of the theatre certain stage-managerial effects are celebrated and have become traditional—as has, for example, John Philip Kemble's arrangement of the trial-scene of "Henry VIII.," so that Mrs. Siddons, as *Queen Katherine*, could wave down *Campeius* with a mighty sweep of her arm which brought her face to face with *Wolsey* as she said: "My

Lord Cardinal—to *you* I speak!" Similar in legitimate and interpretative effect was the way in which the Meiningers played the forum scene of "Julius Cæsar," *Mark Antony* speaking at first to a heedless mob whom he wins over one by one. M. Lambert gives us no English or German illustrations like these, but he has put on record a series of French traditions handed down by one group of actors of Molière to another, some of them perhaps going back to Molière himself.

The Story of Our Planet. By T. G. Bonney D.Sc., LL.D., etc., Professor of Geology in University College, London, etc. Cassell Publishing Co.

PROBABLY no single work has had more influence upon the science of geology, or done more to diffuse a general knowledge of that science among the more educated portion of the lay community, than Lyell's 'Principles of Geology.' Appearing first in 1830 in a single volume, it went through eleven editions, successively revised and brought up to date by its author, the last of which, published in 1872, in two royal octavo volumes, had increased to about double the size of the first. Although Lyell was an observer of no mean order of ability, his principal merit lay in his judicial and discriminating faculty, which enabled him to sift out from the observations of others the essential and important facts, and weave them into a logical and consistent theory of the history of our globe. He was the great exponent of the uniformitarian school of geology, which holds that the processes by which earlier changes in the structure of the earth have been brought about were similar in degree and kind to those going on at the present day, and refrains from appealing to violent convulsions of nature, or catastrophes, as was the practice among the earlier geologists. His 'Principles of Geology,' as its name implies, gave the broader explanations of geological phenomena, which are of interest not only to the geologist, but to the intelligent layman, leaving to textbooks and manuals the underlying details, a knowledge of which is essential to the professional student, but not to the general reader.

In the twenty years that have elapsed since Lyell's death, strict uniformitarianism has been more or less departed from by geological reasoners, and the theoretical views held in his day have received some important modifications; but no general work has been written which, while adhering to strict scientific accuracy, presents the existing condition of geological thought in sufficiently vivid and untechnical language to be attractive to the general reader. To fill this want has been the aim of Prof. Bonney, as he states in his preface, in writing 'The Story of Our Planet.' Although not prominent as an original investigator, Prof. Bonney's long experience as a teacher and lecturer, and his intimate association with the leaders in scientific investigation in England, have well fitted him for the task. In common with most English geologists, and in contrast with too many of their American colleagues, he is an enemy to affectation in language, and writes a vigorous and incisive Anglo-Saxon English, not larded with countless technical words derived from Greek and Latin roots that render them unintelligible not only to the layman, but even to the professional man who does not happen to belong to the same little scientific coterie as the writer. We are so thoroughly in sympathy with his course in this particular that we cannot refrain from quoting the following from his preface:

"Technical terms, as I venture to think, are sometimes coined without good cause. The use of them seems to be pleasing to some minds, for it indicates an initiation in mysteries and a superiority to the common herd. But from a terminology not generally intelligible worse evils than the gratification of personal vanity are apt to arise—namely, the worship of phrases and the substitution of words for ideas. Science as it grows suffers from its epidemics, and high-sounding words are often bacteria which communicate disease to mental constitutions of the less vigorous type. To some persons a sonorous term seems, too, so satisfactory that it passes current for an idea, and is a mask for any amount of hazy indefiniteness. We are often told that plain living and high thinking go together in daily life; may it not be that plain speech and accurate thought are not so far apart in science?"

From a scientific standpoint the principal criticism to be made upon Prof. Bonney's book is the want of familiarity it shows with the best and most recent advances in geological thought on this side of the water. Whether this is to be ascribed to his insularity, or to a certain prejudice against the style of some American scientific writing to which the above-quoted remarks are more or less applicable, it is not for us to say. As a rule, in his treatment of theoretical questions he is fuller and more accurate in those which fall partly within the domain of astronomy and physics, such as the nebular hypothesis, the age of the earth, the cause of climatal change, than those which are more strictly the result of geological observation. Thus, he includes in the Archæan all rocks below the Cambrian, ignoring the great thickness of intermediate sedimentary beds now distinctly recognized by American geologists as representing a longer period in the earth's history than the entire Cambrian era, or indeed than he assigns (on the authority of an American geologist, Heilprin) to Cambrian and Archæan combined.

So far as we have observed, however, he gives very impartial presentations of the arguments on both sides of all mooted questions, and in such language as to make them quite intelligible to the reader of average intellectual capacity. As might have been expected, his practical illustrations of geological phenomena are in large measure drawn from the British Isles, as he has evidently never visited America. This is not necessarily a disadvantage to the American reader, for if he have sufficient interest in the subject to master the theories and facts presented in this volume, he will undoubtedly wish to take up some more technical work, where the illustrations will probably be drawn in great measure from American phenomena, and thus have the additional interest of novelty. As compared with Lyell's 'Principles,' Bonney's work is much less systematic and thorough, but this is more or less necessitated by its smaller size; and conciseness in the present day, when bookmaking has so enormously increased, is a condition of being generally read. Almost every important general topic of the science is here included except that of the advent of man upon the earth. In typographical execution the book leaves nothing to be desired, and, what is very important, its illustrations are abundant, excellently executed, and for the most part well chosen.

Abraham Lincoln: Complete Works. Comprising his Speeches, Letters, State Papers, and Miscellaneous Writings. Edited by John G. Nicolay and John Hay. 2 vols. The Century Co. 1894.

EVERY ONE who owns the ten volumes of Messrs. Nicolay and Hay's Life of Lincoln will desire to possess these two uniform volumes in completion of the "human document," and will be thankful that their bulk is no greater. To a certain extent they include matter not Lincoln's, yet complementary to his, notably Douglas's speeches in the famous debates; and this indispensable example should have been followed in other instances, or else references should have been given to works containing the desired information, even to the Life itself. We will cite the case of Lincoln's protest against certain resolutions of the Illinois Legislature in March, 1837 (the year of Lovejoy's murder, but the date in advance of that event). The protest, standing alone, has, for readers of the present day, almost a pro slavery aspect, and the point of it can be understood only by reference to the resolutions themselves. Either these should have been printed in full in connection with the protest, as Herndon prints them, or the editors could in one line have directed the inquirer to vol. i., pp. 140-150 of their own Life, where the resolutions are summarized. But in fact there may be said to be no footnotes in this collection: we have counted but three altogether. We will furnish one more illustration of the same defect. On p. 577 of vol. ii. occurs a telegram from Lincoln, September 17, 1864, to Gen. Sherman at Atlanta, saying: "I feel great interest in the subjects of your despatch mentioning corn and sorghum, and the contemplated visit to you." This looks like a blind, as if a sort of "chops and tomato sauce" cipher. How easy it would have been to refer to Sherman's Memoirs, vol. ii., pp. 138, 139, for the occasion of this enigmatic reply, all the more because one thus turning back would find Sherman's communication as interesting as the President did, at least in respect of historic instruction.

The telegrams, and notes of transmission of messages, etc., and brief formal dictations to the private secretary, or requests of Cabinet officers, seem often not worth the space, especially when without explanation. Of omissions we observe only one which is in the nature of concealment, and that is the pseudonymous lampoon which led to Lincoln's duel with Gen. Shields. Herndon gives it, and our editors print the correspondence with Shields, and to Herndon they should have referred for the text, since they omitted it from their Life. We miss, too, any newspaper reports of Lincoln's speeches in Massachusetts in the Taylor campaign in September, 1848, though we are allowed such abstracts in the case of the Connecticut speeches in the spring of 1860—an occasion of much less historic moment. In 1848 Lincoln ventured down among the Conscience Whigs and chaffed them on their Free Soil platform, and won his applause from that wing of his party which would, in 1860, vote against him, and sympathize more or less with the South throughout the rebellion. Herndon very properly gathers together the newspaper abstracts, imperfect as they are, and tells of "Colonel Schouler, of the Boston *Atlas*," a Webster Whig paper, arranging for Lincoln's speaking in the neighborhood of Boston. Messrs. Nicolay and Hay are so little in touch with this episode that, in printing a letter of Lincoln's, after his return to Washington, dated February 2, 1849, and addressed to "Friend Schooler," they preserve the misspelling in their caption and blank the Christian name: "—— Schooler." William Schouler, the father of the historian of the United States in our day, was afterwards Adjutant-General of Massachusetts under Gov. An-

drew, and wrote a history of Massachusetts in the war.

As a rule, Lincoln's faulty orthography, especially in his youth, is silently corrected by the editors. In some of the letters to his one-time flame, Miss Owens, which they derive from Herndon, "I've" is even slicked into "I have," and a colloquialism like "hypo" is quoted, as if Lincoln were conscious of its not being good style. In another letter "gal" is similarly treated. We observe numerous discrepancies in the reproduction of letters common to Herndon and to this edition, and sometimes feel that our editors have been careless: but for their own defence they might well have indicated the source from which they copied, and in the case of MSS. this would have had the additional advantage of revealing the ownership of the originals. A bibliographical note on the speech at Gettysburg, which has so many variant readings, would have been a boon. Finally, we ought to have a running date at the head of each page, in order to find our place in this medley of long and short papers.

We have perforce been critical in our remarks if we were to say anything, for it would be idle to talk about the contents of these volumes *per se*, either as to their value in American history or as to the convenience of this form of publication of them.

The Mark in Europe and America: A Review of the Discussion of Early Land Tenure. By Enoch A. Bryan. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1893.

THE theory of the Mark has occupied a prominent place in the discussions of historians and economists for nearly half a century, and interest in the subject has greatly increased since the rejection of the old theory by Seebohm and Fustel de Coulanges. The acceptance of the new doctrine involves a complete revolution of opinion, not merely regarding the nature of village life, but also concerning the constitution of mediæval society in general, the status of the great mass of the population of western Europe during the early Middle Ages, and the historical development of property in land. Attempts have also been made to turn the old theory to practical account: in it the advocates of state ownership of land have found an historical basis for the support of their proposed legislation.

Mr. Bryan's book presents "a sketch of the history of the theory during the past forty years, and is not intended, primarily, as a presentation of the original documentary evidence." The author is an ardent disciple of the new school, and hence denies the existence of the free-village community. He presents quite fully the extreme deductions of the early advocates of the mark theory and the arguments of Seebohm and Fustel de Coulanges, but he does not bring out clearly the modified views of such recent writers as Vinogradoff, Glasson, and Andrews. Hence some readers will carry away the impression that we are forced to adopt either the exaggerated details of the theory as presented by Kemble and Maurer or the other extreme as advocated by Seebohm and Fustel. But the truth is that one may believe in the coexistence of the manor and the free-village community; one may even believe that in the free village itself there was some inequality of rank and some private property in land. In short, one may accept the essence of the mark theory without accepting Kemble's "idyllic" picture of democracy. Moderate disciples of the old school are quite willing to concede that in the time of Tacitus indications may be found of the existence of private ownership of land, social inequality, and serfdom: but they reject the view that the manor was the typical form of village life and that the mass of the population was in serfdom. A serious defect of Mr. Bryan's book is his failure to recognize the existence of a class of historians who think that Kemble and Fustel de Coulanges advocate two extreme theories.

Mr. Bryan tries to be impartial, but he seems to take it for granted that recent writers who reject the conclusions of Seebohm and Fustel have approached the subject with ineradicable prejudices in favor of an established theory or have been misled by sympathy with modern democratic tendencies. The fact is that most well-trained historical students are quite willing to adopt revolutionary theories; they have not welcomed Fustel's arguments, simply because these are not convincing. Many eminent historians firmly believe that Fustel, though a man of great ability, was guilty of the same sort of aberrations as were Kemble and Maurer. Flach, in his recent work ('Ancienne France,' vol. ii.), demonstrates that Fustel's data regarding the prevalence of manors or *villae*, as distinguished from free villages or *vici*, are entirely unreliable; that, in short, Fustel's use of contemporary records is quite unscholarly. This is also the opinion of other French historians who have handled the original sources. Mr. Bryan takes it for granted, however, that Fustel's arguments are flawless, and that all of his deductions are to be accepted without hesitation. If the new school finds no stronger mainstay than Fustel, its doctrine will not prevail.

Moderate adherents of the old view will have no difficulty in accepting the main conclusions of Mr. Bryan's last two chapters, which are entitled "The Mark in America," and "The Mark in Economic Discussion." He is right in asserting that it is hardly possible to find in the New England settlements "any of the distinguishing characteristics of the Teutonic mark theory which may not be otherwise accounted for." It is difficult even for ardent advocates of that theory to believe that early New England institutions were "derived from the forests of Germany."

Recollections of a Virginian in the Mexican, Indian, and Civil Wars. By General Dabney Herndon Maury, ex-United States Minister to Colombia. Charles Scribner's Sons 12mo, pp. 279.

GENERAL MAURY'S 'Recollections' are even broader than his title-page indicates, for some of his pleasantest chapters, showing a natural gift for narrative, are those which tell of his boyhood and his education at West Point. The sketches of old Virginia plantation homes in the vicinity of Fredericksburg are admirably done, and make a valuable addition to our material for the social history of the South in ante bellum times.

He has drawn with delicate touch and genial spirit pen-portraits of comrades in the cadet corps who became historical characters afterwards—Grant, McClellan, Jackson, Bee, A. P. Hill, and others. The chapters on the Mexican war give greater fulness to these sketches, and bring vividly before us another score of brilliant young men who were to make their mark on their era—Lee, Johnston, Thomas, Beauregard, and Stuart among them. After peace was made with Mexico, some of these friends were united again on a tour of duty as instructors at West Point; and even later, when a dozen years of service on the frontier followed, familiar faces are constantly meeting us, as we follow the record of a soldier's career and learn from his sympathetic pen to make his friends our own, till the final explosion comes and secession drives this coterie of comrades into hostile camps.

The book is a pleasing one if we look at it simply as a narrative of the author's varied and adventurous experience; but it has a much higher and more permanent value in helping us to a personal acquaintance with a considerable group of men who made reputations on either side in the great civil war. To know them first as boys at school, and to see them develop into brave soldiers, daring Indian fighters, adventurous hunters of "big game," and finally into commanders of armies, is to give history a real life and power which the pages of the more systematic historian must lack, and which can be supplied only by personal narratives of the kind before us. General Maury's own part in the civil war was important, though he was not in the campaigns which most attract attention. His longest service was as commandant at Mobile, where no severe fighting occurred until the combined attack of Farragut's fleet and Gordon Granger's army. The only criticism a Northern man would be disposed to make upon the 'Recollections' is that the writer has been unable to speak as fairly and as kindly of the National soldiers who really hurt the Confederacy as of those who by their defeats seemed in 1862 to be preparing the way for permanent disunion. With this deduction from the judgment of men and events, there is little else to mar the pleasure and satisfaction with which we read this abundant repertory of piquant incident and lively characterization.

The closing chapters are devoted to incidents of life as minister at the capital of Colombia, and give many details of society and affairs in the South American republic, with some strong pictures of tropical scenery. The reader will find the interest of the book sustained to the end, and will be glad of the opportunity of sharing with Gen. Maury's children the memoirs which he wrote primarily for their gratification.

New Light from the Great Pyramid. By Albert Ross Parsons. New York: Metaphysical Publishing Co. 1893.

THE author's long, rambling preface conveying no clear promise of what this book is intended to contain, we turn to the first chapter for light. This opens with four pages of insignificant quotations from unimportant authors—unimportant, at least, in regard to the pyramid—followed by another page of texts from the Bible, such as the parable of the two houses and other passages equally far-fetched. Next comes a section headed "The Pyramid Explained by the Fall of Lucifer." Glad of something like a definite position, we ask how we are to be convinced that this is true. The author first cites Isaiah xix., 19, 20, which, after referring to Heliopolis, prophesies that an altar to Jehovah shall be set up in Egypt. Upon this the author argues as follows: The Hebrew word for altar (*mizebeha*) comes from the root of the Sanskrit *mri*, to die, and is identical with the second syllable of the word *pyramid*. The first syllable of this word, he avers, is the "Egyptian *pur*, fire." Hence, "a pyramid is an altar signifying death by fire." Now, Mr. Parsons informs us that one Wilson, in 1856, demonstrated that the pyramid interprets an ancient theory of gravitation applied to a body

falling from a planetary distance; wherefore he asks us to regard it as proved that the pyramid bears witness to the fall of Lucifer.

This is not convincing. The passage of Isaiah appears to have nothing to do with the pyramid. No evidence is adduced to show that the Hebrew word for altar has any connection with the Sanskrit verb to die; and all we know of the two languages renders this extremely improbable. No evidence is adduced to show that the middle syllable of "pyramid" has anything to do with either the Hebrew or the Sanskrit word. No evidence is adduced to show that the first syllable of "pyramid" means fire. It is true that it might mean fire in Greek, but of the etymology of the word we are quite ignorant.

In the next place, Mr. Parsons must not presume that the world will take his word for it that the writer Wilson proved in 1856 that the Great Pyramid interprets an ancient theory of gravitation. On the contrary, nigh thirty years having elapsed without any man of any character for learning having accepted Mr. Wilson's theory, the burden of proof is upon Mr. Parsons if he wishes to convince any judicious part of the public that that theory is true. *Prima facie*, it seems quite absurd. How could there be anything like a mathematical theory of gravitation in ancient times without its affecting ancient thought very powerfully? And what sort of reasoning can prove two propositions so strange as, first, that there was such a theory in such primitive times, and, second, that the great pyramid was built with reference to that theory?

But even if, for the sake of argument, we grant, first, that the word "pyramid" means altar of death by fire (in which case, it is not an Egyptian word at all), and also that the Great Pyramid was built to illustrate a theory of gravitation, there still yawns a chasm vast and deep between these premises and the conclusion that the Great Pyramid bears witness to the fall of Lucifer. The world will think that bad reasoning; and there is no use in bringing before the world an argument that nobody who wishes to preserve the reputation of a sane head will admit. The book contains about 400 pages, and seems to pile such arguments one upon the top of another to make such a Babel-tower as would not be secure even were every stage of it laid with the utmost caution and solidity.

A Short Account of England's Foreign Trade in the Nineteenth Century, its Economic and Social Results. By Arthur L. Bowley. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1893.

THIS is a small book for a great subject, but the treatment is upon the whole so able that the brevity of the book is a merit. Length is desirable only when it promotes clearness, and Mr. Bowley, although apparently a young writer, has learned to be clear and concise at the same time. His book is in the same line as the noted treatise of Mongredien, and might be taken as a continuation of it were it not for the somewhat singular fact that Mr. Bowley does not allude to his distinguished forerunner. It differs, however, in covering the later years of British trade, and especially in dealing with volume rather than value. The importance of this latter feature we shall devote our space to explaining.

During the century 1791-1891 the population of Great Britain and Ireland trebled; but the value of the exports and imports rose from £37,000,000 to £744,000,000. The great causes of this change were inventions, and the extension of the principle of division of labor through foreign trade. For Mr. Bowley clearly demonstrates that foreign trade exists only because of this principle, and that the prosperity of England is mainly due to legislation that has permitted her people to produce what they could most advantageously, by permitting them to exchange these products for such as other peoples had an advantage in producing. The full significance of the change, however, as we have intimated, requires us to consider the phenomena of price, for an increase in the money values of goods may or may not be coincident with an increase in their quantity. It is the latter circumstance that is of permanent importance, since there can be no question that he who gets more food and clothing for a less price is better off—quality being the same—than he who gets less of them for a greater price. Accordingly, Mr. Bowley resorts to the "index numbers" of Sauerbeck: "an imaginary budget is made out of a great variety of goods, wheat, cotton, wool, manufactures, tea, sugar, and so on. A definite quantity of each is taken in proportion to its importance; this budget is then valued at the prices current for each article for each different year. One date is taken as a standard, say when the budget comes to £100"; the year 1871 being selected by Mr. Bowley.

We must premise that the gravest errors are liable to occur in framing this imaginary budget; but, having given this warning, we shall assume that the method has sufficient scientific validity for the purposes for which our author employs it. It must be observed, too, that its validity is strikingly confirmed by the shipping statistics; the results from a computation of the volume of trade by index numbers showing a close parallelism with the tonnage of vessels cleared. Applying the method, Mr. Bowley finds that the date of Peel's first reforms is the date of the beginning of the fall of prices; the index number changing from 103 in 1840 to 75 in 1851—*i. e.*, £75 in 1851 went as far as £103 in 1840. From 1851 to about 1870 prices rose again, but since then there has been a gradual decline. Roughly speaking, from 1820 to 1851 prices fell 33 per cent., from 1851 to 1871 they rose 26 per cent., and from 1870 to 1890 they fell 30 per cent. Hence the trade of the period from 1850 to 1870 is commonly regarded as excellent, while since 1870 or thereabouts the complaints of depression have steadily grown louder. If we look at the values of exports and imports, the complaints seem justified. In 1873 these values amounted to £682,000,000. In 1888 they were again but £685,000,000, rising in 1890 to £748,000,000. But if we consider quantities, by employing the gold values of 1871, we find that the trade of 1873 would be reduced to £613,000,000, while that of 1888 would rise to £980,000,000, and that of 1890 to £1,070,000,000. Per head of population, this would mean a rise from £19 in 1873 to £28.5 in 1890. The wails of the bimetallists over the evil state of the world do not seem to require very serious consideration, in view of these facts. The more conservative of them say that we must rehabilitate silver because a tendency toward lower prices paralyzes industry. So far from being paralyzed, it appears to have increased 50 per cent. in 20 years, *i. e.*, every Englishman on the averages gets so much more from foreign countries and returns so much more to them. The tonnage figures tell the same story. In 1873 tonnage cleared at ports of the United Kingdom was 44,000,000; in 1890 it was 74,000,000. If we take Mr. Giffen's figures, including both internal and external trade, we find that between 1870 and 1890 incomes and wages rose nominally 40 per cent., while if reduced to the value which gold had in 1871, the rise would be 100 per cent. The average workingman could obtain with his wages in 1890 four times as much of the articles of common consumption as a man in a similar position obtained in 1820. While the increase of trade has not been so rapid in recent years as from 1840 to 1870, it would seem that the improvement in the condition of laborers has gone on at an even more rapid pace.

Space does not allow us to describe Mr. Bowley's other processes and results, or even to enumerate them. Suffice it to say that he examines the trade of Great Britain from many points of view, and in no instance that we have observed without unusual suggestiveness. It would not be easy to name any book that demonstrates more conclusively the case for free trade, although there is very little in it of what by the protectionists is called "theory."

The Ideal of Humanity, in Old Times and New. By John Stuart Blackie, Emeritus Professor of Greek in the University of Edinburgh. Fleming H. Revell Co.

PROF. BLACKIE has chosen an admirable title except that it does not indicate, nor even suggest, the heterogeneous contents of his book. The first chapter has for its subject "David, the King of Israel." It might have been written in the happy consulship of Plancus, before the beginning of the critics, for all the profit it has derived from them. Either Prof. Blackie has not read Prof. Cheyne's Bampton Lectures on the Psalms, or he has given them no heed. David is for him the traditional "sweet singer of Israel," and, whether or not "a man after God's own heart," one after the author's own. In that matter of Uriah he was a little crooked, to be sure; but then he may have argued thus and so. As for Renan's accusation—that he was always instigating others' wickedness and profiting by it while hypocritically condemning it and sacrificing the instruments of his perfidy—nothing is said about it. Yet it is extremely suggestive of what was actually the ideal of humanity in David's time and for some centuries after.

That Prof. Blackie's attainments are in Greek and not in Hebrew will lead the reader to expect something better in the second essay "On Christian Unity." But evidently a critical study of the New Testament has not been within his scope, seeing that he finds his ideal of Christian unity in the New Testament and the early church. Queerly enough, moreover, the Jewish Christians are treated as the heretics and schismatics, when, in fact, they were the orthodox party and Paul was the radical come-outer; his first canonical appearance being in the list of the heretical Marcion. The chapter entitled "Women" has an old-fashioned tone of patronage towards "the fair sex," also called "the weaker sex," "the dainty sex," and by other similar names. There is a laborious argument for women's speaking in church, notwithstanding the injunction of St. Paul, and they may be permitted to practise medicine and to write novels; but about woman in politics Prof. Blackie is not so sure. "It is a sphere from which the purer nature of the more moral sex may justly shrink." Still, if women wish to vote, "it is their business, not mine. If they will walk with silken shoes in dirty puddles, let them walk." In a chapter on the Epistle to the Romans this recreant Scot takes direct issue with the apostle in the mat-

ter of inherited sin. But he is such a good Scot for the most part that the wonder is that anything that his countrymen have believed should not be good enough for him. His provincialism is intense, but in all the essays except the last it is incidental; there it is warp and woof, the subject being "The Scotch Covenanters." This story is told with glowing sympathy, but one would never gather from it how much the new presbyter was like the old priest.

The Story of Louis XVII. of France. By Elizabeth E. Evans, author of 'The Story of Kaspar Hauser.' With five engraved plates. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co. 1893.

Delusions die hard. In this story of Mrs. Evans, one of them that long ago seemed "twice dead, plucked up by the roots," comes forth in newness of life. Its former recrudescences were several times plausibly explained by the aspects of the political horoscope of the Bourbons. On other occasions pretenders to Bourbon relationship found a notoriety—an easy life, and a luxury—which had before been beyond their dreams. They belonged to a class analogous to the Tichborne Claimant. They found a demand and they furnished a supply. *Populus vult decipi* is proverbial. They added, *et decipiatur.*

The story of the 'Lost Prince' as told by Hanson, the champion of Eleazar Williams, thirty years ago, Mrs. Evans condenses into about ninety pages. Most of her volume, however, is filled with proofs that the claims of rival pretenders are groundless, absurd, and ridiculous. Among these men who posed as princes—all of the Bourbon type, and three of whom were living in London at once—there were a tailor, cobbler, soldier, and clockmaker, and each bound, like the Turk, to bear no brother near the throne. All these competitors fell lower than Williams, for they died in jail, as many thought he ought to have done, but they all found more partisans than he, though his claim had something of social and pecuniary success, especially on our Atlantic shores among pious ladies who knew least of his real labors as an apostle among Western Indians. The two last pages in Mrs. Evans's book contain a list of authorities from which she formed her compilation. The truth is, that well-nigh all her evidence of Williams's royal relationship is traceable to the testimony of Williams himself. Of this sort is the affidavit of his mother that he was an adopted child; the assertions that money came for him in childhood from France, that a Frenchman in New Orleans declared he had himself stolen him away from the Temple, etc.

Nine years at a Massachusetts school unfitted Eleazar to be an Indian hunter, and roused his ambition to figure as an Indian chief. When he emerged into active life, Eastern Episcopalians wanted such a missionary as he seemed to be, to send among Indians, and readily appointed him. But a New York gang of land speculators coveted the land of the tribes near Oneida Lake where Williams had begun to work. They either originated, or efficiently aided, his project for inducing New York Indians to remove into the wilderness now Wisconsin. He went thither with a large colony in 1823. Other aborigines followed, and there was a disposition at Washington to form an enormous Indian reservation along the west shore of Lake Michigan, lest another free State might spring up there. Williams was the leading Indian orator of his time, and dreamed of sitting as the uncrowned king of a vast Indian league. Nor did he lose influence till he lost his reputation for honesty. The ignis-fatuus of Indian supremacy Williams persistently chased, and never without hope, nor was that fool's-fire extinguished till 1836. By that time, as described by one of his neighbors at Green Bay, which was from first to last his Western home, he had become a "disowned clergyman of the Episcopal Church, false in his pledges to the Indians, recreant to the United States Government," etc.

His eloquence still gave him favor with an Indian faction, his wife had brought him land, and he was himself master of more, as well as of lumber which he had acquired by questionable means. Still, at times he pawned many books which had been given at the East for his missionary library. Some of them lie on the table of the present writer. After alternate sojourns in the Oneida region and in Wisconsin, while voyaging westward in 1841 he fell in at Mackinaw with Prince de Joinville, who was making a tour on the track of early French explorers, and who, on the passage to Green Bay, was much interested in talking with Williams as a resident versed in their traditionary routes and adventures. The Prince, however, did not pass a single night at the Bay, but, after dinner, took horse up the Fox River by which Joliet had made his way to the Mississippi. He gave cordial thanks to Williams, asked further epistolary information, and even sent him some presents. But an iron pot, if taken off the fire with a silver hook, thinks itself silver. From this coming into momentary touch with royalty, Williams began to fancy, or pretend to fancy, that he was himself royal. The assertion, however, of a secret interview in which he was offered wealth *ad libitum* if he would renounce his claim to the throne of France, was not heard of for many a year. As soon as known, it was declared by the Prince to be totally a lie; nor has it any intrinsic probability. The pretence, it would seem, was first devised by Williams to thicken other proofs which did demonstrate thinly concerning the rôle of royalty he had resolved to play. He was not proof against temptations a thousand times weaker.

One authority omitted in Mrs. Evans's bibliography is the collections of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin. These volumes, evidently unknown to her, give Williams such a home endorsement as to prove that he was no Bourbon—save in dissimulation and duplicity, or, as the flock he had fleeced would say, "pure cussedness." The Dauphin was born in 1785, Williams seven years later—so he declared in his written application for admission to a Masonic lodge before his princely aspirations began and when a lie could not be lucrative. There are many collateral proofs that on this occasion he spoke the truth. Much of Mrs. Evans's book is filled with refutations of Naundorf's pretensions to dauphinship, and she says: "In reality, the whole case is disposed of in the fact that when Naundorf arrived in Berlin, he could neither speak nor read French" (p. 108). He cannot have been more ignorant of French than was Williams, who, according to many witnesses, and especially his own wife, who was a Frenchwoman, "could not speak a single word right." But he translated the Prayer Book into Mohawk very creditably.

Instead of being fair like a Bourbon, as Mrs. Evans remarks, Williams was taken at first sight for a half-breed by everybody acquainted with that race. The physician who inspected a scar in his side declared the color of his skin to be more that of an Indian than of a white man. His copper color increased greatly with his age. His ears, in the view of Indianologists, were a sure mark of aboriginal origin. Admitting some doubt about the significance of ear-marks, a man who served under Williams as a curate, and was a witness of his whole career, declares that the testimony of his *toes* proclaimed him indubitably an Indian: he toed in. "He always made an effort to turn out his toes, but, forgetting it, he would, Indian-like, soon turn them in." Should Mrs. Evans visit the rooms of the Wisconsin Historical Society, she will be shown a trunkful of Williams's tell-tale manuscripts, every one of which he ought to have burned up before he started to play the rôle of a Lost Prince.

When tidings of Eleazar's imposture reached De Joinville, he pronounced it "a speculation upon the public credulity"—credulosity, one is inclined to say, since such speculations have been so successful. We meet with them in all ages. Without honor in his own country, Williams was elsewhere followed by such troops of friends that he could not fail to think himself a prophet. By often telling his story, he made such a sinner of his memory as to credit his own lie.

General Scott. By General Marcus J. Wright. [Great Commanders.] D. Appleton & Co. 12mo, pp. 350, with portrait and maps.

For writing the military life of Scott Gen. Wright has some peculiar qualifications. As a young soldier following his chief in the greatest of his military enterprises, the invasion of Mexico, he was a devoted subordinate on terms of personal intimacy with Scott. The greater part of the General's career is consequently told with the warm sympathy of a devoted friend and admirer, as it should be. But Gen. Wright has done still better. Although himself a Confederate in our civil war, he has handled the subject of Scott's consistent loyalty to the Union with an impartial fairness which leaves little to desire. No trace of prejudice or hint of the author's predilection is seen, and he has carried the story to the end with the same appreciative yet judicial spirit which marked the beginning. There was no room for any striking discovery of new facts, or surprises in new revelations of character, for Scott is among the best known of our worthies. The task was one of judicious compilation and wise condensation of authoritative material. The character delineated is a noble one, despite some blemishes due to amiable weaknesses, and the book is a convenient biography of one who has a sure place in the list of great soldiers.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adler, Hermann. Alternating Generations: A Biological Study of Oak Galls and Gall Flies. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $3.25.
Andrews, Prof. E. B. Wealth and Moral Law. Hartford Seminary Press. $1.
Austin, Alfred. The Garden that I Love. Macmillan. $2.50.
Bailloud-Mermet. Crazy Book-Collecting; or, Bibliomania. Dupral & Co.
Beers, H. A. A Suburban Pastoral, and Other Tales. Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents.
Blackmore, R. D. Perlycross. Harpers. $1.75.
Booth, Charles. The Aged Poor in England and Wales Condition. Macmillan.
Buchanan, T. B. Principles of Money and Coinage. Denver: Chamber of Commerce.
Carnegie, Douglas. Law and Theory in Chemistry. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Carruth, Prof. W. H. Schiller's Wallenstein. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Christy, Miller. The Voyages of Captain Luke Foxe of Hull and Captain Thomas James of Bristol in Search of a Northwest Passage. 2 vols. London: Hakluyt Society.
Cobbleigh, Tom. Young Sam and Sabina. Cassell. 50 cents.
Cole, G. A. J. The Gypsy Road: A Journey from Krakow to Coblentz. Macmillan.
Cotes, Mrs. Everard. A Daughter of To-Day. Appletons.

Cruickshank, A. H. The Bacchæ of Euripides. Introduction and Text. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Curtis, G. W. From the Easy Chair. Third Series. Harpers. $1.
DeGraff, E. V. The School-Room Guide. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.
Dixon, Ella H. The Story of a Modern Woman. Cassell. $1.
Dodge, Rev. J. S. The Purpose of God. Boston: Universalist Publishing House.
Drummond, Prof. Henry. Lowell Lectures on the Ascent of Man. James Pott & Co. $2.
Fasnacht, G. E. Select Specimens of the Great French Writers in the 17th, 18th, and 19th Centuries. Macmillan. $1.75.
Fawcett, Edgar. Outrageous Fortune. Concord Press. 50 cents.
Finley, Martha. Mildred's New Daughter. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Flagg, A. T. Primer of Navigation. Macmillan. 35 cents.
Fletcher, W. I. Public Libraries in America. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Fosdick, Gertrude C. Out of Bohemia: A Story of Paris Student-Life. G. H. Richmond & Co.
Francis, M. E. The Story of Dan. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Friedrich, Friedrich. The Workingman's Wife. Chicago: E. A. Weeks & Co. 25 cents.
Gardener, Helen H. An Unofficial Patriot. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Garland, Hamlin. Crumbling Idols. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.25.
Gerard, Dorothea. The Rich Miss Riddell. Appletons. $1.
Gingell, Julia R. Aphorisms from the Writings of Herbert Spencer. Appletons.
Gower, F. L. Letters of Harriet Countess Granville 1810–1845. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $9.
Gray, Maxwell. The Last Sentence. Lovell, Coryell & Co. 50 cents.
Gregory, Caspar R. Novum Testamentum Graece ad Antiquissimos Testes denuo Recensuit. Pars ultima: Prolegomena. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs; New York: Westermann. $13.50.
Gummere, Prof. F. B. Old English Ballads [Athenæum Press Series.] Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.35
Gunter, A. C. The King's Stockbroker. Home Publishing Co.
Harraden, Beatrice. In Varying Moods. Putnams. $1.
Hardinge, E. M. With the Wild Flowers. Baker & Taylor Co.
Hatfield, Prof. J. T. Freytag's Der Rittmeister von Alt-Rosen. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 75 cents.
Heywood, John. The Solder and the Flie. Manchester, Eng.: Printed for the Spencer Society.
Holcombe, Dr. W. H. The Truth about Homœopathy. Philadelphia: Boericke & Tafel. 25 cents.
Hole, James. National Railways. Cassell.
Hoppin, Prof. J. M. Sermons on Faith, Hope and Love, with Horæ Homileticæ. 2d ed., enlarged. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Howells, W. D. A Likely Story: A Farce. Harpers. 50 cents.
Howells, W. D. A Traveller from Altruria. Harpers. $1.50.
Hubbard, Elbert. One Day: A Tale of the Prairies. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Hutchinson, Rev. H. N. Creatures of Other Days. Appletons. $3.
Hutton, R. H. Criticisms on Contemporary Thought and Thinkers. 2 vols. Macmillan. $3.
Johnson's Universal Cyclopædia. A New Edition. Vols. I.–IV. A. J. Johnson Co.; D. Appleton & Co
Judaism at the World's Parliament of Religions. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. $2.50.
Kayserling, Dr. M. Christopher Columbus and the Participation of the Jews in the Spanish and Portuguese Discoveries. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Kipling, Rudyard. The Jungle Book. Century Co.
Lavedan, Henri. Le Lit. Paris: Lévy; New York: Charles Eitel.
Leclerc, Max. L'Education des Classes Moyennes et Dirigeants en Angleterre. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Lee-Warner, William. The Protected Princes of India. Macmillan. $3.
Lemaître, Jules. Myrrha, Vierge et Martyre. 2d ed. Paris: Lecène, Oudin & Cie.; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.
Letters of Franz Liszt. 2 vols. Scribners. $6.
Lewis, H. C. Papers and Notes on the Glacial Geology of Great Britain and Ireland. Longmans, Green & Co. $7.
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Cash in Bank	205,600 46
Amount	$12,055,058 49

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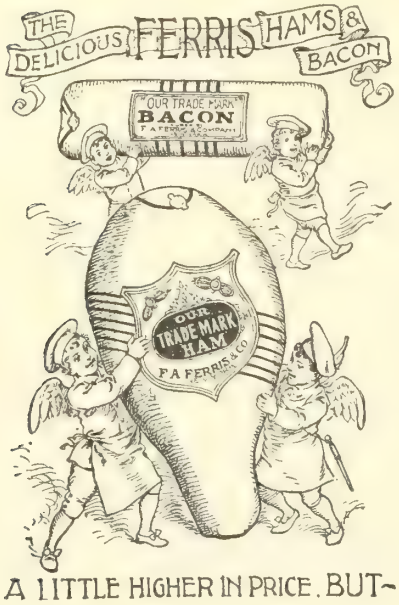

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 7, 1894.

The Week.

TAKING up free silver to save protection, as the Republican Senators from New England and Pennsylvania now propose to do, ought to open eyes that have remained blind to all the other demonstrations of the reckless and unscrupulous nature of the protective system when driven into a corner. We have already had the pension squandering and corruption to avoid reducing tariff taxes; we have seen the sugar bounty and the silver purchases bartered for votes for protective duties; and now, it appears, we are about to see 100 per cent. protection joining fortunes with a fifty-cent dollar. On their part, Messrs. Lodge, Hoar, Gallinger, Reed, Cameron, and Quay have shown their hands, and Senator Pettigrew of South Dakota showed his in his speech of May 29. He laid down the platform upon which "we of the West" are standing. It is the platform of protection and free coinage of silver. "Upon this platform, and on this alone," said the South Dakota Senator, " we can continue to act with New England." And he added significantly: " I feel sure, from my conversation with New England's leading men, they are getting ready to join us." If this is not last-ditch protectionism, it is hard to say what would be. Our finances may be ruined and our currency debased and our commerce destroyed, but if protection can be " saved," all will be well. The virtuous New England Senators who are " getting ready " to go in for that, have no reason to assume a " holier-than-thou " air in the presence of Coxeyites.

An encouraging indication of the temper of the Democratic members of the House towards the Brice-Gorman tariff bill, similar to that already given by Mr. Wilson, appears in the letter which Congressman Tarsney of Indiana has addressed to Senator Faulkner. Mr. Tarsney says he declines to send to the Democratic newspapers in his district the Senate circular purporting to give a tabulated statement of comparative rates of the Wilson bill and the Brice-Gorman bill, because of its " misleading character "; and after exposing once more the cheap trickery behind that statement, he adds: " I think a less misleading, a more candid and fair statement to give out for publication would be that under the McKinley law the people are taxed annually $198,000,000; under the Senate bill it is proposed to tax them $175,000,000, and under the House bill $125,000,000—which shows a difference of something more than 1.27 per cent." Every additional Democratic protest of this kind will be of great public service in making possible the undoing of the Brice-Gorman work when the bill gets into conference committee. If the Democrats of the House will insist upon the passage of the bill substantially as it passed the House, they will have the support of the overwhelming majority of their own party, and of the country as well, for the Brice-Gorman business has no support anywhere outside high protection circles, and it will be extremely difficult for the Democrats of the Senate to stand by their bill if by so doing they defeat all action whatever.

To the vast majority of the women of America the cloak is an article of prime necessity as a protection against weather, the price of which they have to weigh with great anxiety. Its fashion and material constitute one of the few luxuries of the poor. One would think, therefore, that anybody raised above the savage state would try to make cloaks so cheap that every woman would find it easy to get a good one. The protectionist theory, however, as propounded by ex-President Harrison and the thoughtful Senator Lodge, is that it is bad for poor girls to have cheap cloaks, that it makes them feel cheap, and that the more of their scanty wages you take for a cloak, the better they are off. Accordingly some of the Cleveland tailors wrote to the Hon. Tom Johnson, begging him to make cloaks dearer by putting on them, besides the duty of 45 per cent. ad valorem, an additional specific duty of 49½ cents per pound, so as to make the poor sewing-girl, as he remarks, pay as much duty on her shoddy cloak as Mrs. Astor on her cloak of velvet, and drawing his attention to the horrible state of things in Berlin, where a poor woman can get a cloak for $1.20. The way the Hon. Tom takes up the cudgels for the poor women, and jumps on the greedy tailors, is delightful reading. If the poor of the country had many such champions in Congress, there would be much fewer Coxeyites and Populists, and far less marching on Washington.

Secretary Carlisle made short work on Thursday of the sensational story that he had called upon the Democratic members of the Senate finance committee with a sugar schedule which he insisted must be put into the pending tariff bill, because such terms had been promised the Sugar Trust in return for a liberal contribution to the Democratic campaign fund in 1892. He swore that he made no such statement, and he is a man whose word is to be believed. Moreover, it came out that, while he did present a draft of a proposed schedule in response to a suggestion from the Democratic members of the committee, this draft was not accepted. Instead of the schedule which is now in the bill being dictated by the Sugar Trust through the secretary of the treasury, as was charged, Mr. Carlisle presented no demand of the Trust, and his own recommendations were not adopted without change by the committee. There is thus nothing left of the original charge. As for the assumed impropriety of such recommendations by the head of the Treasury Department, only the most ignorant could be deceived by such a pretence. It has always been the practice for Senators and Representatives to invite his suggestions and welcome his advice as to the framing of a tariff bill. It is precisely because he is theoretically qualified to give advice and make suggestions of value when financial measures are under consideration by Congress, that a man is appointed secretary of the treasury. Under a better system he would probably draft all financial measures in the first instance.

The sensation-mongers are left in a most humiliating plight by the developments since the investigation began. When they printed their wild stories, they professed to be burning with impatience to be called before some tribunal and allowed to free their minds. " If the newspaper men are given a chance to tell all they know, there will be some interesting developments," one of them wrote to his newspaper. But when he got the chance, he was unwilling to tell anything which would be of service to the investigators, and took refuge in the plea of " professional honor." The incident illustrates the growing sense of irresponsibility among writers for the press. Here is a case where a man whose personal integrity has never been impugned was charged with the baseness of acting as go-between in a bargain between men seeking legislation in their own interests and the Senators in charge of a bill affecting those interests, and telling his fellow-partisans that they must make such and such a schedule in return for so much cash paid into the party treasury. There proves to be not a word of truth in it. But the man who wrote the story will not tell where he got it, and many newspapers profess to regard it as entirely proper for a writer to make such a charge, and then take refuge in the plea that he cannot expose the liar because it would be " a breach of professional confidence." This seems an odd way of fulfilling " the mission of the press."

THE NEW SILVER MOVEMENT.

THE disgust with tariff tinkering which is spreading among the people of both parties throughout the country, and the plain demonstration which the events of the last four years have now afforded that tariff-making is something which must in the long run ruin any democratic government by corrupting the Legislature, have apparently convinced some of the Republican managers that they must have a new issue in the next canvass. They have accordingly fixed on silver as their particular vanity, and have managed quite ingeniously to couple with it that odious power, the Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. Mr. Lodge was put up to start the movement in the Senate. He perceived the enormous importance to commercial nations of more money—that is, of more silver—and then he asked himself, Who is it that hinders mankind from having as much silver money as it pleases? Why, England, of course, by adhering to the gold standard. Now, why does England adhere to the gold standard? If she adhered to it from philanthropic motives or desire to benefit the human race, Mr. Lodge would forgive her. He believes in sentimental money. But he found out that she adheres to it through pure selfishness, from a desire to benefit herself and make money in commercial operations. The effect of such a discovery on a nature like Mr. Lodge's may be readily imagined. He determined to "go for" England and compel her, by discriminating duties on her imports, to change her standard, to give ear to the bitter cry of the Coxeyites, and adopt a humane silver or bimetallic system.

The appearance of Mr. Lodge with this scheme in the Senate did not attract much attention, as he has for some time been working hard for popularity by any tools that come to hand. He is, in fact, a Presidential candidate in the very earliest stage, who has been much impressed by the large number of persons who are laboring under the silver hallucination, and, therefore, is perfectly overpowered by the weight of the silver arguments and the wickedness of gold-standard nations. But he has now been reinforced by Mr. Thomas B. Reed of Maine, who is also a Presidential candidate, but a very much weightier person than Mr. Lodge, and very much nearer to a nomination. Mr. Reed has been interviewed, and says he is of the same mind as Mr. Lodge. His attention too has been called to the sufferings of the world from want of more silver, and to the large exporting powers of the silver nations, like India, who are now competing with the United States. What is the remedy for this? Why, a union of the Latin nations to coerce England and Germany, by means of high discriminating tariffs, to change their standard. This will doubtless be the programme of the party in the next canvass, particularly if, after the passage of the Wilson bill, there should be two years of revived industry and prosperity.

The scheme is not worth discussing as a practical plan of legislation, any more than the fox's plan of having all his fellows cut off their tails after he had lost his own. Of course, in international trade, if you will not buy, you cannot sell, and we cannot discriminate against any European Power which would care about our discrimination, without cutting off our own trade. The largest market for our farm produce, in fact we might say the only one, is England, and a proposal to discriminate against her specially, together with Germany, savors of the kindergarten. Mr. Lodge's idea that by forcing England to retaliate he would blow "the free-trade system" to atoms, will only lead English business men to ask what his age is.

But, from the point of view of home politics, Mr. Reed's adhesion to the plan is one of the most encouraging of recent signs of the times. It shows pretty clearly that the Republican candidates—if not the Republican managers—consider the tariff, as a plan for raising the wages of American workmen, to have had its day. The workmen, to use the slang phrase, "have got on to it," and in so far as they desire the Government to raise their wages at all, desire it to be done by some sort of direct gift or subsidy or distribution, such as the Coxeyites ask for—that is, either the employment of labor by the Government, or a great issue of cheap money, either silver or paper. They are not willing any longer to have the bounty come through the manufacturers. Reed and Lodge have caught the idea. If they are to advocate a high tariff again at all, it will not be with the view of enabling the employers to pay better wages, but with the view of punishing England in the interest of "cheap money for the poor man."

The drift of public sentiment towards free trade, too, will, we think, be hastened by the blundering way in which the Senate has managed the Wilson bill. What the country sees clearly is that this remarkable display of corruption and incapacity has been called forth in the interest not of free trade, but of protection, and that, in short, it is almost hopeless, when once a high tariff has been put in operation, to look for real reduction or reform from any legislature. The influence of a high tariff on all legislatures is in the highest degree corrupting. Huge pecuniary interests grow up behind it, which are sure to defend themselves by every means in their power against legislative interference, and the readiest means is, of course, the seduction of the legislators. So that, as we see in the case of the Wilson bill, no matter what the people may vote for at the polls, if you give the beneficiaries of the tariff time to "see" the lawmakers and work upon them, there will be no change, or as little change as possible.

Against this influence the reformers have no means of defence. As a rule the pecuniary interest of free-traders in the tariff is small. With them the tariff is not "business." They therefore have nothing to oppose to the protectionist corruption but argument, and to argument the reply of the Gormans and Brices of course is that, "thanks be to God, they are not open to conviction." We predicted most of what has happened in a passage which we printed immediately after Mr. Cleveland's election, when urging him to call Congress together while the members were fresh from the polls and still felt strongly the reform impulse. More and more, therefore, every year, those who care for the future of democratic government will fight for its deliverance from the curse and snare of protective tariffs, and for the total withdrawal of the legal-tender quality from money. Legal tender is now, as it was when first invented, a means of keeping adulterated money in circulation, or, in other words, of cheating the poor and unwary. It puts the property and business of the community at the mercy of ignorance and fraud; and those who want to "see the government of the people, by the people, for the people," perpetuated, will try to confine taxation to the needs of revenue, and coinage to stamping and weighing.

SEPARATE CITY ELECTIONS.

WE are glad to see that the first subject to engage the attention of the Constitutional Convention's committee on cities is the proposition for an amendment so extending the terms of elective officials that national, State, and municipal elections can all be held in different years. This proposition is not a new one in this State. It was put forward first by the Constitutional Club of Brooklyn in 1885, and was submitted to the Legislature in the spring of that year. Its form to-day is precisely what it was then, though during its repeated submission to one Legislature after another it has undergone some temporary modifications. What it proposes is to lengthen the term of Governor and all minor State officials to a uniform period of four years. At present the Governor's term is three years, and that of minor State officials two years. It proposes, furthermore, to extend the term of Senators from two years to four, and the term of Assemblymen from one year to two, and to provide for biennial sessions of the Legislature.

With this arrangement of terms, the election of Governor, State officers, and State Senators could be placed midway between the elections for President—that is, every four years, beginning with 1894. This would bring every State elec-

tion no nearer any Presidential election than two years, and the pestiferous influence of national politics, in the form of appeals to carry the election on national issues for the "moral" effect of the result upon a close-following national election, would be eliminated. The only State candidates who would have to be voted for in Presidential years would be members of the Assembly. The odd years between national and State elections could thus be reserved entirely for municipal elections, without either a national or a State candidate or issue to confuse or complicate them. Thus we should, under this division, elect a Governor, minor State officers, a State Senate and Assembly at one time. In the following year we should have a municipal election, with nothing except municipal candidates and issues before the voters. In the next following autumn we should have a Presidential election, with no State or local candidates, except members of the Assembly, to complicate, or serve as bases for trades and deals. The great advantages of this absolute separation are too obvious to be dwelt upon. The argument which has been raised so often against spring municipal elections, that the voters will not take interest in them, cannot be advanced against this plan, for the municipal elections will be held on the regular November date—that is, at the time to which the voters have become accustomed.

Heretofore more objection has been raised against the biennial-session part of the proposition than to any other, though there has been some raised also against the lengthening of official terms. So far as the biennial sessions are concerned, it is sufficient to say that all except six of the forty-four States have adopted the plan, and in none of them is there a serious movement in favor of returning to annual sessions. Maine adopted biennial sessions in 1880, and in 1888 the people rejected a proposition to restore annual sessions by a vote of 39,320 to 5,776. In two States, Georgia and Ohio, the law is evaded by the politicians, who, under plea of an adjourned session, manage to hold annual sessions, but the popular objection to this evasion, especially in Ohio, is so strong that the practice is not likely to continue. The six States which adhere to annual sessions are Massachusetts, Montana, New Jersey, New York, Rhode Island, and South Carolina. It would be difficult to show that any one of these is better off because of its annual sessions than the other forty-four States are with only half as many. So far as New York is concerned, we are convinced that if the people were given a chance to say whether or not they would cut down their supply of legislation one-half, they would answer in overwhelming numbers in favor of the reduction.

That four years is not regarded as too long a term for State officials is shown by the fact that nineteen States, nearly half the whole number, have that term now and do not find it in any way objectionable. In New York the gain of having our State elections turn on State issues alone would be so great that any disadvantage which might follow from the addition of one year to the Governor's term and the doubling of the terms of the minor State officials would be trifling in comparison. It is impossible to find any arguments in support of our present method of shorter terms for the minor offices than for Governor. The chief result of this arrangement is to keep our State elections dribbling along through other elections, complicating the whole of them with issues which distract the voters' attention and do no one except the machine politicians any good.

That separate elections are of great value in municipal affairs has been shown conclusively by the experience of Boston and other New England cities. In Massachusetts the elections in many cities are held about a month after the regular November elections. It has happened repeatedly that cities which have been carried by one party in the November elections on State or national issues, have turned about, a month later, and elected mayors of the opposite political faith on local issues alone. In one year, 1890, no less than six cities which had given Democratic majorities in November, elected Republican mayors in December, and six which had given Republican majorities in November, elected Democratic mayors in December. In all these cases the best men won without regard to their party names. In Boston there has been a Democratic majority given in every November election since 1880, but during the fourteen years between that time and the present the Republicans have four times elected a mayor in December, winning each of the four times because of the superior character of their nominee. The Democratic pluralities in November have ranged from 4,000 to 13,000, but have fallen in the four November defeats to a minority ranging from 700 to 5,460. The most complete reverse of all was in 1889, when the Democrats carried the city by 5,654 plurality in November, and lost it by 5,640 plurality in December. That the interest in municipal elections has been little less than that aroused in other elections is shown by the fact that the average falling-off in the December vote from the November vote was during ten years less than 2,500.

Similar results have been shown in the separate elections which are held in other New England cities and in Philadelphia. There is, it should be remembered, much more interest in municipal matters everywhere now than there was a few years ago. The one thing necessary to stimulate that interest and concentrate it upon the sole issue of good government is to eliminate all other questions from the municipal elections. Let the voters be called upon to decide between the capabilities of candidates to pave, police, light, drain, and rule the city, without regard to their views on the tariff, or pensions, or Hawaii, or silver, or the income tax, and we shall then be able to get a verdict in accordance with common sense and the rudimentary principles of good government.

THE PANIC AND POOR-RELIEF.

THE past winter, with its unusual demands on charity, furnished also unusual opportunities for the study of methods and results in the administration of charity. Several valuable reports from different cities have fallen under our notice, and it is instructive to group some of their conclusions.

One of them comes from New Haven, being tabulations relating to destitution and its relief in that city published in the last two numbers of the *Yale Review*. The particular aim was to show how greatly the distress and helplessness of the unemployed in New Haven had been exaggerated. Their numbers were put at 5,000 (out of a population of 81,000) by many "competent observers," including the mayor of the city, yet a police census, taken with characteristic looseness, found a total of only 2,886. These figures, of course, cover those who were usually idle in winter as well as those thrown out of employment by the hard times. On the other hand, the police may have overlooked some names that should have been recorded. But it is evident that the popular impression of the amount of destitution through lack of work erred seriously on the side of exaggeration.

This becomes still more clear when the demands made upon the organizations for poor-relief are studied in detail. The New Haven Organized Charities handled nearly all the money raised for aiding the unemployed, and from the records kept by that society an accurate comparison can be made with foregoing years. Comparing in this way the three months from last November to January, inclusive, with the corresponding period of the preceding year, it appears that there were 299 more cases of resident applicants for help, but 2,192 more of non-resident—in other words, of tramps. Taking the first quarter of this year, compared with the first three months of 1893, we find that there were 175 more cases of residents and 2,607 more of tramps. There was thus a positive falling off in resident destitution, though an increase in tramps. In New Haven, accordingly, the main question seems to come down to the inquiry why the city is so peculiarly attractive to tramps. The *Review* statistics handle admirably the returns from

savings banks, by the test of which it appears that the poorer classes had resources of their own to fall back upon in an emergency, and also that times were actually better in New Haven in the first quarter of 1894 than in the same part of 1893.

Baltimore's experience last winter in banishing tramps and helping the unemployed is set forth in the last *Forum* by Mr. E. R. L. Gould. The main feature of the scheme devised by the city authorities in coöperation with the Citizens' Relief Committee, was the application of the "work test." It had its usual fatal results upon the tramp population, cutting down the lodgers at the police stations from 320 on January 1 to 200 on the 16th, to 80 on the 28th, and to zero on February 3. Work furnished the unemployed was undertaken on "economic principles"—that is, market rates were paid for raw material and demanded for the finished product, and the market rate for wages was paid as nearly as possible. Mr. Gould's conclusion from the whole experiment is:

> "No new sociological principles may be derived from Baltimore's experiments, but highly satisfactory sociological results have been accomplished. The potency of the work test in relieving a community of most of its vagrants and tramps has been once more established, and the feasibility of providing industrial work for relief purposes on a fairly large scale has been successfully demonstrated. Let us hope that these may soon avail against repetition of ill-advised schemes emanating from unwise philanthropists, interested politicians, or socialistic dreamers."

Of extraordinary interest is the report of a "special committee on public poor-relief" in Waterbury, Conn. That there was need of investigation was evident from the way the amounts expended in public alms had been increasing. During the past twenty-five years the taxable property has increased 56 per cent., the population 176 per cent., but the pauper expenditures 462 per cent. The amount paid out for poor-relief last year (exclusive of the sums expended on hospitals) was $38,452, or 88 cents per capita. This is among the highest per-capita taxes for relief of the poor paid by any of the Connecticut cities; and Connecticut, as Prof. McCook has demonstrated, "leads the world in its dispensation of public alms."

The committee was not long in finding that the great leak came in the abuses, so often exposed but so hard to abandon, of out-door relief. Some of the cases taken from the selectmen's books are simply astounding. A man convicted on December 4 of keeping a house of ill fame had got groceries and fuel from the city authorities only three days before. One family had been enjoying public relief for eight years consecutively, and in that time the husband had been arrested once for non-support, five times for breach of the peace, and twelve times for drunkenness. One woman who had received outdoor relief for seven years, and who was helped to the extent of $58.50 in 1893, has the following police record: "Arrested in August, 1892, for drunkenness; arrested in February, 1893, for keeping a house of ill-fame; arrested in November, 1893, for drunkenness." So overwhelming was the evidence collected by the committee of the "vast amount of hereditary and chronic pauperism" directly caused by the unwise methods of poor-relief so long in vogue, that a special town-meeting, called to consider the report, passed resolutions which will lead to an immediate reform of the worst features of the system, and ultimately to its total abolition.

THE LATE G. J. ROMANES.

OXFORD, May 26, 1894.

GEORGE JOHN ROMANES, F.R.S., died at Oxford very suddenly, though after an illness of intermittent severity which had lasted more than two years, on Wednesday, May 23. His achievements in science would doubtless have created more stir if he had not possessed that unusual fairness of spirit and openness of mind which made it constitutionally impossible for him to advocate pronounced and uncompromising views. The ripeness of judgment and breadth of view which characterized the later years of his vigor would, however, have been sure to culminate in the very highest sort of original work had not his failing health come in as an impediment and finally cut him off in his forty-sixth year.

He was born in 1848 at Kingston, Canada, where his father had established himself, having been sent out by Dr. Chalmers as a sort of Presbyterian bishop charged with the general organization of the Church in Canada. The name Romanes is not uncommon in Scotland, and it was in the north of Scotland that Mr. G. J. Romanes spent the summers of many active years of his manhood. At his place in Rossshire he went into the careful study of material drawn from the ocean at his doors—jelly-fish, star-fish, and sea-urchins. His education was not in any of the English public schools, but came from private tuition given him in London and on the Continent; as a boy he spent some years in Spain, for instance. He was graduated with honors in science at Gonville and Caius College, which he left in 1870, and of which he was afterwards made an honorary fellow. Having come to Cambridge with no pronounced tastes, and with the prospect of following out some one of the more usual courses of study there pursued, he was strongly and permanently attached to scientific work by Prof. Michael Foster, then prelector at Trinity. Upon leaving Cambridge he continued his studies at University College, under the auspices of Prof. Burdon-Sanderson, through whom he made the acquaintance of the great Charles Darwin. Darwin's attention having already been attracted by contributions which Romanes had made to *Nature*, the acquaintance, which began in 1874, soon ripened into an unusually strong friendship, and culminated during the later years of Darwin's life in the closest intimacy. These circumstances, combined with the previous bent of his mind and his special studies, made Mr. Romanes one of the most representative successors of Darwin. The very fact that he maintained an independent initiative, and could not insist upon the letter of the Darwinian law enough to meet the views of all Darwinists, constitutes his best title as Darwin's representative. A recognition of this among other things may be found in his election as a fellow of the Royal Society in 1879.

His investigations were by no means confined to observations and experiments upon the lower forms of sea-life, but they concerned also the signs and symptoms of mental evolution among animals in general. Indeed, his experiments and recorded observations in the case of a monkey in the Zoölogical Gardens attracted much attention, the more so because they appeared in a volume, published in 1883, containing a hitherto unpublished essay upon instinct by Charles Darwin himself. In the year 1885, Lord Rosebery founded a professorship at Edinburgh for the special behoof of Mr. Romanes, who delivered there his lectures on the 'Philosophy of Natural History.' The same matter, or practically the same, was incorporated in the more extensive course which Mr. Romanes gave when appointed, in 1888, Fullerian Professor of Physiology at the Royal Institution in London. These lectures were published under the title of 'Before and After Darwin,' and should be distinguished at least chronologically from Mr. Romanes's 'Darwin and After Darwin,' published in 1892. His agreement with his master did not prevent his dwelling in these lectures and publications upon points in organic evolution which could not, in his opinion, be cleared up satisfactorily by Darwinism pure and simple. How sincere he was in regarding himself as the most loyal of Darwinians, will be brought home to any one who turns to certain passages where intense admiration of the great naturalist takes on an almost lyric form of expression.

Mr. Romanes used to defend such passages in prose against the reviewers, always in ambush and ready to pounce upon the accidental blank verse of prose-writers. Certain themes and certain ideals seemed to him not to justify only, but to require, some departure of this kind from the accredited modes of pedestrian writing. Not the least interesting among the traits of this strictly scientific scholar was the poetic temperament which found private expression in verses known to his friends. The wideness of his view of life is further exemplified in the active sympathy given by him to the movement in favor of opening galleries, museums, and libraries on Sunday. While in London he gave many Sunday lectures, and thus contributed by efforts of his own toward the practice of the sort of Sunday observance in which he believed. Such a man was not in his element where controversy was at its height, but still he had a fair share even of that. His publication in 1886 of "an additional suggestion on the origin of species," wherein he developed his theory of "physiological selection," did as a matter of fact give rise to a very notable war of words. Since his ripest years have been incapacitated by an illness which has just ended fatally, and deprived science of the full and final fruits of his original research, it must now be recorded as his greatest service that he did much towards the successful confirmation of Darwin's views. Adherents and opponents alike will allow that these views were brought by Mr. Romanes before the non-scientific public in such a manner as to win a fair hearing and gain a wide acceptance for them. A few of his more notable books not mentioned above are his 'Animal Intelligence,' 1881, his 'Scientific Evidences of Organic Evolution,' 1881, and his 'Mental Evolution in Man,' 1888. His contributions to magazines have been numerous, and are well known.

Mr. Romanes came to live in Oxford rather more than a year before his health broke down, and was made an M.A. and a member of Christ Church College. His foundation of the Romanes lecture, and the three lectures of Mr. Gladstone, Profs. Huxley and Weismann—all this is of recent and familiar notoriety. His friends, however, have alone the privilege of remembering his rare fortitude under suffering, and the devotion to scientific work from which he remitted nothing to the very last. Less than an hour before the fatal stroke of apoplexy, he was engrossed in preparations for a series of experiments that he hoped to complete during the summer. L. Dyer.

ÎLE DE FRANCE AND PICARDY.—IV.

London, April, 1894.

Noyon, our next station, has an interesting municipal history, which has lately been fully investigated from manuscript sources by M. Abel Lefranc in one of the monographs of the École des Hautes-Études. It appears that this city has been too much congratulated on the pacific origin and course of its commune, and that the legend which has grown up, of a benevolent bishop promoting its charter and the Church looking with a favorable eye upon the commune, is no more warranted by facts in Noyon than it would be in Laon. There was, indeed, less fighting than in the neighboring towns of Saint-Quentin, Chauny, Soissons, Laon, Amiens, and Beauvais, but there was continual litigation.

Noyon was a typical episcopal city, full of canons, clerks, and proctors. Its many churches and its rich and powerful abbeys covered half of its territory, and received the greater part of the revenues. Among themselves the ecclesiastics were not always at peace. The bishops and the monasteries or the bishops and the chapter were often at loggerheads, nor was it always the bishop who was victorious. But bishop, canons, and monks were firmly united when it came to a contest with the laity, whether it was with the châtelain or the commune, and they ended by getting substantially the whole power into their own hands. The châtelains of the tenth and eleventh centuries were not the same officers as those who are found in the latter part of the eleventh and later. The first were delegates of the king, the second were lieutenants of the bishops, but the struggle for power seems to have been equally eager in both cases. The earlier châtelains were no doubt more offensive to the bishops, who had no authority over them, and were equally hated by the commune which they oppressed. So the citizens willingly joined Bishop Hardouin de Croÿ when, taking advantage of the absence of the châtelain and his men, and getting admission to the castle on pretext of showing to the châtelaine a rich piece of silk, he carried her off to his palace and entirely destroyed the keep. At first it seemed as if his successful stratagem had not profited him much, for he was obliged to flee to Flanders to escape the king's wrath. But everything turned out well; for the Count of Flanders, bribed by the surrender of some altars which the bishop owned in his territories, made peace for him with King Robert, the donjon never was rebuilt, and the royal châtelain disappears from Noyonese history. The bishops were thereafter supreme masters, being counts and high justiciaries, till they themselves set up a line of châtelains as their substitutes in the execution of justice, when these delegates, usurping power wherever they could, became in time rivals to their originators, and would gladly have played the rôle of masters of the palace, but did not succeed.

The other lay enemy was the commune. Its charter, the first communal charter except that of Cambrai, granted at the very beginning of the twelfth century, was made of little effect before the close of the thirteenth by the fault of those who held it—the aristocratic bourgeois. For the commune of the Middle Ages was no more democratic than the Italian republics, or the Greek republics, or the Southern States of our Union before the civil war. The "liberties" of the city did not belong to the people, who had no political power, but to the rich and influential families, who divided the offices among themselves and managed the finances without control. Naturally, when he who pays and he who spends are different persons, the one becomes in time wearied of the burden or the other becomes careless and extravagant. The first of these results appears in the terrible riots of the thirteenth century at Ypres, Ghent, and Bruges in Flanders, where manufactures had made the working class strong, and in some of the larger cities of France. But Noyon, which once had had considerable commerce, had declined in industry; the Church had entirely got the upper hand; it was a city of clerks and monks, of convents and churches—*Noyon la Sainte*, with even a better right to the title than Laon. Its laboring class were in proper subjection, and its communal life peaceable compared to the bustling towns around. Its only two riots were in 1027, when the people followed the Bishop in razing the castle, and in 1223, when they followed the magistrates in a quarrel with the canons, and, attacking the cathedral, maltreated its officials. But this very submissiveness of the people led the aristocracy into financial extravagances which resulted in their abasement. The city failed! It was absolutely unable to meet its obligations, and the liquidation took half a century. The embarrassment and discredit that this state of things brought upon the magistracy—combined with the loss of their cause in the matter that had led to the riot of 1223, when a court of appeal, in which were the Archbishop of Rheims and the King himself, condemned them to pay damages, make an apology, and thereafter annually to take oath never to lay hand on the person or the goods of the canons, clerks of the choir, or sergeants of the chapter, and never to raise the seditious cry of *Commune! Commune!*—left them shorn of their power. Henceforth the bishops ruled untrammelled.

There is no new lesson to be drawn from this sketch of the history of a pious town. These are old morals—that for power to be stable its basis must be broad, and that where authority has no check it is likely to have little duration. But it is interesting to find the troubles of the present day cropping out six centuries ago—a corrupt ring, a great debt, and a *populus qui vult decipi*. The financial failure of a mediæval town, too, is perhaps something unusual. Is there any other example?

The cathedral is a fine example of a transitional church. In the eleventh century round arches alone were used; in the thirteenth they had entirely disappeared in northern France, and ogives were your only wear; but in the century between, in which the cathedrals of St. Denis, Noyon, Laon, and Senlis were erected, though the builders were pleased with the new and graceful form brought by pilgrims from the East, and had perceived many of its constructional advantages, the employers had not yet lost their love for the arch of their fathers. A compromise seems to have been the result. The architects freely mixed the two styles, at Laon sandwiching two stories of round arches between the ogives on the ground floor and those in the clerestory, and at Noyon putting two stories of round above two stories of pointed arches. The columns show the same indecision; a simple round shaft and a group of columns alternating in the nave. The circular ends of its transepts, too, are a feature which the cathedral shares with those of Tournay and Soissons, but which could not be found in any church of the next century.

But the mixture of styles, though it is interesting to observe, is after all of little importance. The main question is, What result did the architect draw from his materials? Now Noyon is singularly pleasing, and merits all the praises which its enthusiastic historian lavishes upon it. It is well set, too, among buildings of a grave, decorous character, such as one would expect to find in a city of priests and monks. The chapter-house adjoins it on the north, and one side of a very fine cloister, pleasant enough to make one wish to be a monk, in which are displayed columns and capitals and slabs from parts of the buildings that have disappeared. Many great monuments in France have this museum of architectural relics, from which one sometimes gets a better idea of the past richness of decoration than from the building itself. C. R.

A BLIND ARCHITECTURAL GUIDE.

Alassio, May 15, 1894.

One is tempted to think that a chronology of architecture which gives a year-by-year table of the architectural events of Europe from the year 303 of the present era to 1626* must be interesting and useful to the student. The period embraced between the foundation of the first basilica of St. Peter at Rome and the dedication of the present church covers the history of modern architecture—at least all of it which is of any great value. Mr. Tavenor Perry's Chronology is supplemented by an index of names of places by means of which it is easy to follow the growth of, for instance, a given cathedral, from its foundation to its completion, with the various additions it may have received and the restorations undergone. Then comes a table of architects, sculptors, and other persons referred to in the chronology, and lastly a list of authorities consulted. To all this there is an introductory synoptical table of the characteristics distinguishing "the various periods of Western architectural art."

Now such a book ought to be of handy reference, but a slight examination proves it to be, if not absolutely worthless, at least very far from fulfilling the promise it holds out. The statement of the publisher that the work is intended to accompany Fergusson, together with the assertion of its preface that nowhere has the rise and fall of the Gothic schools been so completely described as in the pages of the 'Handbook of Architecture,' might well make one suspect that this is only another of the happy-go-lucky compilations in which England is already too rich. *Ex pede Herculem;* the suspicion soon becomes a certainty. For instance, opening the book at random, here is the record for the year 1233; though short, it

* 'The Chronology of Mediæval and Renaissance Architecture; a date book of architectural art, from the building of the ancient Basilica of S. Peter's, Rome, to the consecration of the present church.' By J. Tavenor Perry, member of the Royal Institute of British Architects. London: John Murray. 1893.

is long enough to illustrate the merits and defects of the work:

"Bazas—Cathedral begun.
"Dunkirk—Hôtel de Ville first built.
"Heisterbach—Choir of church consecrated.
"Lucca—Duomo. Bronze reliefs by Nicola da Pisa.
"Milan—Piazza dei Mercanti built."
"Southwell—Minster. Choir and chapter-house begun by Bp. Walter de Grey."

We will refrain for the moment from any criticism of the first three entries in this list (though each of them gives rise to exceptions), but with regard to the reliefs at Lucca, where did Mr. Perry learn that they were in bronze? Most people who have seen them have taken them for marble, as indeed Vasari expressly states them to be, in praising enthusiastically their workmanship. As to the name of the artist, under the date 1230 is found S. Maria della Spina at Pisa, and under 1231, St. Antonio at Padua, both by Niccolò Pisano. Does Mr. Perry suppose that this is another artist from him who did the reliefs at Lucca, or does he simply think it of no consequence how his name is spelled? He is certainly capable of the latter belief, perhaps also of the former. In the succeeding entry, what does he think is the meaning of Piazza? The building he indicates—the only one, that is, of about this date—is the Palazzo della Ragione. It is situated in the middle of the Piazza dei Mercanti. On one side is the Palazzo degli Osii, which Mr. Perry mentions under its approximate date, and on the other is the beautiful Palazzo dei Giureconsulti, which he does not mention at all. Indeed, it appears upon further examination that what is inserted and what is left out are equally without rhyme or reason, and in obedience solely to the dictates of the author's intelligence. What this is can be illustrated if not explained.

Opening the book, again at random, you may find that the date 1507 is on a window of the church of S. Godard at Rouen, that in 1508 the retable of the high altar in the cathedral of Avila was painted, that in 1509 the clock was put into the gable of the porch of the Frauenkirche in Nuremberg (under the same date Fergusson's blunder about the "Holy Anders" church at Wisby is repeated), and in 1510 benches were put into the church at Kiedrich. We would not doubt the importance of these and similar facts to some people. To Mr. Perry they would appear highly remarkable. With regard to the little town of Villingen, he has three notes: 1478, Rathhaus, earthenware stove; 1537, Rathhaus, date on doorway; 1613, Minster, date on font. In 1538 the bells of Madley Church were brought from the Abbey Dore. Carried out with such minuteness this work ought to have consisted of ten volumes instead of one. As it is, the space for these trifles must be gained at the expense of more considerable things.

After a slight examination, one might say—at the risk of seeming Irish, to be sure—that the omissions are the principal part of the book. Two inferior churches at Pavia are spoken of, but no mention is made of S. Michele, which to the architect and archæologist is worth all the other churches in the city put together. At Aachen the first date given for the minster is 1353, when the late Gothic choir was begun; the nave built by Charlemagne after the model of S. Vitale at Ravenna, and for which he brought not only artists, but marbles and bronzes, from Italy, one of the most interesting monuments in all Germany, is utterly ignored. Why, when the hôtels-de-ville of S. Quentin and Noyon are given, should not also be those of Dreux, Compiègne, Middleburg? Why, when Mr. Perry recognizes the existence of Münster, should he be oblivious of Osnabrück? or what claim has the Jesuit church in Bonn to mention which is not good in a much higher degree for the cathedral there? Why should a chronicle of Gothic art be silent about Morienval, where the Gothic principle was perhaps first essayed? How can a list of Renaissance art in France omit the châteaux of Amboise, Anet, Châteaudun, Écouen, Beauregard, or how can its record of mediæval art be complete without a word of Aigues-Mortes, the fortifications of Carcassonne or the churches in the lower town there, of Moulins, of Paray-le-Monial, of Coucy-le-Château, of Valence, or Vincennes? So we have Mantua without the palaces del Te or of Giulio Romano, Verona without S. Zeno, Brescia without the Madonna dei Miracoli, Parma without the Madonna della Steccata, Piacenza without S. Maria della Campagna, Genoa without S. Maria in Carignano, Rimini without S. Francesco, Vicenza without anything of Palladio except the Rotonda or Villa Capra (which Mr. Perry characteristically calls Villa Capri), and no Urbino at all, no Gubbio, nor Bergamo, nor Pienza, nor Pesaro.

But why go on? These omissions are a part only of those revealed by a cursory examination, but "enough is as good as a feast." Our little excursions of discovery among Mr. Perry's pages might have been a little dull had not the dead level of blunders been occasionally enlivened by an eminence that shows our author to be remarkable in his way. We were startled by stumbling upon the name of Söchisher-Reen, which did not evoke any memory and did not smack of any country or any language in Europe. Gazetteers, architectural works, and atlases were in vain interrogated—no such place was found. Perseverance, however, elicited the fact that Mr. Perry had merely played one of his little tricks upon the name of Săchsisch-Reen in Hungary. The second surprise was still more diverting: among the churches of Milan was found, with the date 1477, that of S. Abbiate Grasso. About thirty kilometres from Milan there is a small town called Abbiategrasso, which has a church ascribed to Bramante, that may well be of the year given. It certainly is a peculiar ingenuity that can evolve from such a fact as this a new fat saint for the calendar. But Homer nods, and even Mr. Perry cannot always remain at the height of Mrs. Malaprop; most of his slips of spelling and language are trivial enough to excite compassion in place of admiration. Blaubeuren appears in his pages twice as Blaube*vern*, and once, with an effort after exactness worthy of a better result, as Blaubeüren. Che*r*nonceaux, la Martore*n*a (3 times), S. Salvato*r*o, Palazzo A*b*bergati, Luca della Ro*b*ia are other few examples of his orthography, while his Italian is represented by such jewels of speech as Piazza *degli* Signori, S. Maria del*l*a Grazie, Sagr*a* Spico (for Sagro Speco), etc. Of course there is either no question of accents, or they fall where they will, as in S. Maria di Gèsu.

In fact, one is at a loss to know what Mr. Perry has ever seen, what judged, or what learned. The things left out prove that he has yet to see many of the most important architectural centres of Europe, the things put in that he has no judgment, the authorities cited that he does not know what or how to read. His book is a haphazard compilation, with scarcely a pretence of original research, made without sufficient knowledge to control the sources of information or to distinguish what is worth noting from what is worthless.

In itself considered, the idea of chronological tables of architecture is not a bad one, but, in order to be of any use to anybody, it would not be amiss that they should be made up by some one who really knows about the art in question. Mr. Perry's book reminds one of the curious fact that architecture, the art most closely related to every-day life, has been, in English at least, almost exclusively treated by charlatans or Dryasdusts, patiently occupied with the dead details, but stone-blind to everything in it that is living and essential. This is so much the case that it was a surprise when, a short time ago, Sir F. Leighton, in his lecture before the students of the Royal Academy upon the Gothic period in Germany, said that Gothic architecture seemed to him a matter of principles rather than of forms. Academic reserve did not allow Sir Frederic to state his conviction more strongly, but in point of fact, since the appearance of Viollet-le-Duc's 'Dictionnaire Raisonné de l'Architecture Française,' in 1858, there has been no excuse on the part of educated artists for thinking otherwise. There is no more doubt than in the case of a proposition of Euclid. Still, there are reasons why the truth should be of difficult acceptance in England, and Mr. Perry gives abundant evidence that the old school of ignorance is still alive.

Indeed, while in France writers have not been wanting capable of explaining just what Gothic architecture is, I know of but one book in English that clearly embodies the results of modern research on the subject. This is the work of an American,* and consequently free from the chauvinistic bias that makes Englishmen try to prove that if Gothic art was not born in their country, it was at least as much at home there as in France, and produced there some of its noblest triumphs. Mr. Moore shows to a certainty what were the exigencies that gave rise to that art in France, and how these exigencies determined absolutely every feature of it. Thus much he does in following Viollet-le-Duc and other French authors; then of himself, but with equal mathematical conclusiveness, he shows that in England, unless the work of Frenchmen or directly inspired by French influences, there is no such thing as Gothic architecture as it was evolved in its native land. He shows, for instance, how the cathedrals of Salisbury and Wells are nothing but an application of pointed arch forms to Romanesque (or Norman, as the English call it) construction. In adopting the pointed arch, the English builders seemed to think that they had assimilated what was essential in the new art; but because they were bound by the mere forms, and oblivious of the principles and the system of which these were but a consequence and part, Mr. Moore refuses the name of Gothic to their architecture. And without being a rigorous purist, one can hardly refuse assent to the proposition: if that which constitutes the architectural distinction of Rheims and Amiens, differentiating them from the Abbaye-aux-Dames at Caen, be what we agree to call Gothic, it would be absurd to give the same name to the architecture of Salisbury, where the essentials are borrowed from Normandy, and then "make believe" only to be something they are not. Similarly, Germany and Italy borrowed the art without understanding its *raison d'être*, and so for the most part did nothing but misrepresent it. Mr. Moore accordingly bestows the name *pointed* on all mediæval architecture outside of France, or rather of that part of it, with Paris for a centre,

*'Development and Character of Gothic Architecture.' By Charles Herbert Moore. Macmillan & Co. 1890.

where the true Gothic was invented and practised.

It will be readily seen that this nomenclature will not be acceptable to everybody—notably not to Englishmen. None the less is it true that our language boasts no more clear, sufficient, and convincing statement of what Gothic art really is than the work of Mr. Moore. S. K.

Correspondence.

THE LATEST SCIENTIFIC DEVELOPMENTS OF POLITICAL ECONOMY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: At the International Bimetallic Conference held in London, May 2 and 3, Mr. A. J. Balfour is reported to have thus expressed himself:

"The general consensus of scientific economic opinion has now for many years been thrown with an overwhelming balance of opinion into the scale of the double standard. I am not offering now an opinion as to whether the double standard is just or is expedient—I am only discussing whether it is possible; and I say that on that question there is practically now a consensus of the whole economic scientific opinion which has devoted itself to the elucidation of this problem, and any man who, in the face of that opinion, now quotes any of the old tags about demand and supply making it impossible to fix a ratio between the two metals, or such doctrines as that the interference of the State to fix prices must necessarily fail—any man who now relies on arguments of that kind to show that the double standard is an impossible expedient, does nothing else than write himself down an individual ignorant of the latest scientific developments of political economy."

Mr. Balfour's remarks are very similar to, and almost identical in substance with, some made by Prof. Andrews of Brown University at the Congress of Economics and Politics held in this city March 29 and 30 of the present year.

Mr. Balfour went on to say that "of course the percolation of scientific opinion through the general body of the community is slow," etc. Now the practical consideration of this subject internationally has not been by the general body of the community, as one might infer from Mr. Balfour's remarks, but by the "judicious few" who have given the subject profound study on account of its practical bearings on the general welfare—trained experts, as it were. At the first session of the Paris International Monetary Congress of 1881, M. Magnin referred to the two great preceding congresses held in Paris, the first in 1867 and the second in 1878, at the first of which, in a representation of twenty States (only two of them then maintaining the gold standard), the conclusion was reached that the surest basis for the monetary unity of the future should be sought in the gold standard, "with silver, if need be, as a temporary companion"—in which the delegates concurred by a seven-eighths majority. In 1876, a commission was appointed in this country to consider the subject, from which the Paris Congress of 1878 resulted. Practically, the action of the Paris Congress of 1867 was confirmed by that of 1878, and also that of 1881, and also that of Brussels of 1892, and gold remains to-day the standard of all the great commercial nations.

In view of the deliberate conclusions, thrice confirmed by the best-equipped men available as judges, men who brought to the consideration of the subject substantially all that is comprised in the term scientific attainment—knowledge and wisdom derived from study, observation, and practical experience—what does Mr. Balfour mean by his assertion that any man who now "quotes any of the old tags, etc., writes himself down as ignorant of the latest scientific developments of political economy"? Prof. Andrews's remarks, already referred to, indicated that he deemed the exclusion of silver from free coinage to have been vastly calamitous, nationally and internationally.

Such assertions by men like Mr. Balfour and President Andrews confirm the free-silver advocates, the Populists, the Prohibitionists, Coxeyites, etc., in their delusion that they have been grievously wronged by the exclusion of silver from unrestricted free coinage. Will you kindly give us a synopsis of "the latest scientific developments of political economy" in this particular field of investigation to which Mr. Balfour refers, and to which Prof. Andrews also referred in like tone?

A Layman.

San Francisco, May 26, 1894.

A NICE POINT OF BIBLICAL ENGLISH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In Luke xxiv. 51, in the authorized version of the Bible, we read "he *was parted from* them and carried up into heaven." Instead of this, the Victorian revisers give, after Wakefield and others, "he *parted from* them," etc. Tyndale, followed by many, has "he *departed from* them," all one with which is Wycliffe's "he *departide fro* hem."

Whether the learned often differ, nowadays, from the unlearned, in their understanding of *he was parted from them*, as occurring above, is exceedingly questionable. Do they not take the construction to be passive? So, at all events, it is taken by one of the recent Revisers, the Rev. W. G. Humphry, Prebendary of St. Paul's Cathedral, who, in his *Commentary on the Revised Version of the New Testament* (1882), observes on the new rendering and the one replaced by it: "The Greek has not a passive sense." Consonantly, in the *Bible Word-book* (1884), Dr. W. A. Wright, one of the Revisers' secretaries, explains the *parted* under discussion by "separated," and parallels the *was parted* with *were parted* in Shakspere's "They *were parted* With foul and violent tempest."

On the view thus indicated of *was parted* in Luke, it is assumed that the divines employed under King James I. were so unscholarly as to suppose a passive in διέστη, "stood apart," etc.

Tyndale's translation has "he *departed from* them, and was caryed vp in to heven." But it seems as if, to the Revisers of 1611, *depart from*, compared with *part from*, went too far, and suggested the idea of withdrawal, ensuing on separation, beyond that which is warranted by διιστάναι. Furthermore, as one may conjecture, it was considerations of rhythm that led them, when they substituted the shorter word for the longer, to prefix to it, as they did with the allowance of living usage, *was;* the result being that, at least to us of the nineteenth century, they appear, unless minutely scrutinized, to have intended two passives, *was parted* and *was carried up*. Besides this, in any English short of very archaic *was parted* implies that some external agency was brought to bear in order to Christ's retiring from his congregated disciples.

That *was*, in the character of a passive auxiliary, is to be mentally resumed before *carried up*, in "he was parted from them, and carried up into heaven," is obvious. Yet, before *parted*, *was* is a copular auxiliary, not a passive; just as it is in the obsolescent "he *was* risen." Such is my position; but it remains to make it good.

Mr. Goold Brown, like a genuine old-school grammarian, classes *I am mistaken*, "I have made a mistake," among "errors of conjugation, or, perhaps, of syntax." In No. 1442 of the *Nation*, setting forth the rationale of that locution, I have demonstrated that we have, in it, as we frequently have, the adjectival use of the past participle of an intransitive verb. And the same use, I contend, is presented in the *was parted* before us, where *parted* denotes "gone apart."

The option, at present, of *I mistook*, in preference to *I was mistaken*, is mainly a matter of taste; the two expressions, while equivalent in import, being, almost in an equal degree, at once intelligible to everybody. Different, however, are the old Biblical *was parted from* and *parted from* which has been proposed to take its place; in that the former, over and above its having entirely passed out of currency, is altogether misleading. The Revisers' phrase is, therefore, liable to no objection, except that, though it occasions no perplexity, it is rapidly falling into desuetude.

Of the intransitive *part*, in its sense which is but slightly distinguishable from that of *depart*, a sense of it far from uncommon in Elizabethan English, no earlier authority than Milton's is adduced by Dr. Johnson, or by his editors, Archdeacon Todd and Dr. Latham. And they all hastily derive it from the French *partir*. The fact escaped them, that the conversion of a transitive verb, with or without an intervening reflexive, is an ordinary phenomenon, and that such a conversion may have befallen *part*. But again, and not improbably, the intransitive *part* originated, by aphesis, from the intransitive *depart*, in which *de-* is atonic. That it was felt to be shortened from *depart* is evidenced, it may be, by the anomalous use of it seen in the subjoined verses, dating some time before 1600, from Sir John Harington's *Epigrams*, Book IV., No. 42:

> "A man appointed, vpon losse of life,
> With bag and baggage, at a time assin'd,
> To *part* a towne, his foule vnweildy wife
> Desired him that she might stay behind."

Here we have the like of *depart* in "he *departed* this life," as we have again in the following quotation:

> "In truth, their perpetual teasings diminished my regret at *parting* this second Eden." Anon., *The Minor* (1787), vol. ii., p. 222.

A short time ago, in the course of some remarks on *to part from* and *to part with*, I said that the Bible nowhere exhibits either of the combinations. I had consulted a concordance for them; and a friend has reminded me that I cannot have extended my search to *parted*, where there is a reference to Luke xxiv. 51. This latter has, indeed, no justification in my carelessness; but yet it is amply justified by the circumstance that, though the *was parted* on which I have been dwelling must have been misapprehended by readers without number, nothing, so far as I have means of discovering, has been hitherto written to rectify their misapprehension. F. H.

Marlesford, England, April 7, 1894.

INTERNATIONAL POSTAGE STAMPS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A fatal objection appears to me to stand in the way of the adoption of international postage stamps. Each country, ex-

pediting at its own cost its external correspondence to the confines of the countries to which such correspondence is addressed, and delivering free within its own borders correspondence received from abroad, retains the full value of the postage stamps it sells. No accounts for ordinary postage are kept between nations. It is presumed that upon the average one letter will bring one reply, one newspaper another newspaper. International postage stamps would hopelessly complicate this arrangement. If I bought four shillings and twopence' worth of such stamps here and sent them to a friend in New York, the United Kingdom would pocket the money, and the United States would be at the expense of forwarding gratis one dollar's worth of mail matter.—Sincerely yours, ALFRED WEBB.

HOUSE OF COMMONS, LONDON, May 22, 1894.

Notes.

GINN & CO. will publish next month 'The Philosophy of Teaching,' by Arnold Tompkins.

The Messrs Putnam will begin in July the publication of "The Hudson Library," a new fiction series of bi-monthly issues. The initial volume will be 'Love and Shawl-Straps,' by Annette L. Noble. They have also in press 'Eyes like the Sea,' by Maurice Jókai,' and 'The Story of South Africa,' by George M. Theal.

Dr. W. J. Rolfe supplies an exceedingly long introduction, treating almost entirely of the development of the Romeo and Juliet story and the various forms which it took on before it reached Shakspere's hands, to a reprint of an English translation of Da Porto's charming sixteenth-century tale, 'Juliet and Romeo' (Boston: Joseph Knight Co.). More interesting than such a mass of descriptive matter would have been some information as to the condition of the Italian *novella* in Da Porto's time, and the relation which his work and style bear to those of his contemporaries and predecessors. The little book is bound in white, and contains a number of illustrations, almost all of which are modern and romantic in spirit, and entirely inappropriate for an Italian story of nearly three centuries ago.

To appreciate thoroughly Abel Hermant's 'La Carrière' (Paris: Ollendorff; New York: Charles Eitel), the reader needs to have his Paris—his boulevard, that is—at his finger's ends, and to be entirely willing to concede that Scribe's view of history and diplomacy was the correct one. It is that adopted by M. Hermant in his representation of the inner working of courts, embassies, and salons generally. The dialogue (with brief exceptions the whole book is a dialogue) is full of the latest slang, of suggestion and allusion, admirably managed, and bringing out the particular characters as they successively appear. It is a bit fatiguing, too, for the abrupt, broken phrases and the frequent stage directions pall quickly.

A very different as well as more satisfactory piece of work is Jean Reibrach's 'Les Lendemains' (Paris: Ollendorff), which is a very delicate, very subtle, very fascinating study of a woman's heart. The style is daintily engaging, at times languorous, at times pathetic, always refined and winning. There is not much plot, but one does not miss it; the story, slight as it is, being told so well and the revulsions in the heroine's feelings so cleverly analyzed. The hero is romantic, a vague remembrance of Chateaubriand and Hugo; but there is, by way of ample compensation, a very lovely portrait of a pure, frank, firm girl, a type not often attempted by the French novelist. 'Les Lendemains' will amply repay perusal.

'La Cendre' is by one of the *Jeunes*, Fernand Vandérem (Paris: Ollendorff), and is sure to succeed with the French of Paris and a few foreigners. It makes one reflect on the French love of conventionality: there was the conventional classical tragedy of the seventeenth century; the conventional "homme bon" of the eighteenth; the conventional "homme fatal" of the Romantic school, and then the conventional woman who is always an adulteress in thought, word, or deed—usually all three—and the conventional man who marries only to make an end. He and his females are M. Vandérem's characters, and their sensualities are dignified with the name of love, and their lying and treachery are carefully, affectionately depicted, and every one deceives every one else. The book is very conventionally French, and the life it depicts possibly true, but very wearisome and stale and unprofitable.

M. Gaston Boissier's latest work, 'La Fin du Paganisme' (Hachette & Cie.), will interest many classes of readers. Moot questions are passed upon ingeniously and plausibly, with ample learning to arrest the attention of the best informed. The whole mass of biography and literary criticism which makes up his two stout volumes is strictly relevant evidence in favor of a single simple thesis. This thesis is, that modern civilization has resulted from a compromise between Christianity and pagan culture which had reached an issue at the time of the fall of Rome, was laid on the table by the invading barbarians, and was revived and definitively passed upon by the Renaissance and Reformation. To the first of these three periods, the fourth century after Christ, M. Boissier devotes his present study. Everywhere he insists upon the fundamentally compromising policy of the Christians, especially in politics, education, and literature. Contrary to the usual opinion, he maintains that the platform of the Church was tolerance, liberalism of the most marked nature, and that the Church was heartily with the Empire until its ruin became an irrevocable fact, and self-preservation commanded an acceptance of the new order of things. To the fundamental objection that Christianity could not without self-debasement have countenanced so corrupt an institution as the late Empire, M. Boissier opposes the unprejudiced, because unintentional, evidence of Symmachus, to prove that Roman society in the fourth century was far less vicious than the current opinion of it due to uncritical reading of polemists like St. Jerome.

The thirteenth instalment of Hatzfeld, Darmesteter and Thomas's 'Dictionnaire Général de la Langue Française' (Paris: Charles Delagrave) concludes the letter E and makes beginning of F. The scheme of this popular work approximates it to Webster or Worcester. It gives the pronunciation, and, very concisely, the etymology of each word, with a fair number of illustrative citations, and at all points may be instructively compared with the much fuller Littré. We will note here a difference in syllabication when indicating the pronunciation, as (*exhorter*), Littré è-gzor-té, Hatzfeld èg'-zòr-té; (*exfoliation*) Littré èk-sfo-li-a-sion, Hatzfeld èks-fò-lyà-syon (adding that in verse -li-à si-on prevails); (*estouffade*) Littré è-stou-fa-d', Hatzfeld ès'-tou-fad', etc.

The appearance of a new and improved edition of Maruffi's 'Piccolo Manuale di Metrica Italiana' allows an opportunity to call attention to the little book as probably the best short, scholarly, and sensible treatise on Italian metrics. The unphilological reader can understand it, and the advanced student will be glad to see and profit by a work on the subject so thorough and yet so succinct. It is also worth while to notice with regret, if not with shame, that there is no account in our own language of English metrics that serves a similar purpose and can meet with equal praise.

The second part of the fourth volume of D'Ancona and Bacci's 'Manuale della Letteratura Italiana' (Florence: Barbèra) deals exclusively with the minor writers of the eighteenth century. If the general scale be not changed, the whole work will be completed in another volume. In this field also we have nothing in English dealing with English literature on a like scale and equally well done. Ward's 'English Poets,' deservedly so popular as an anthology for the library and as a textbook for the class-room, comes nearest to it, but that covers only the poetry, and the introductions and comments are more concerned with literary criticism than with literary history.

The March Library Bulletin of Cornell University records the gift of a remarkably rich and extensive Spinoza collection, thought to be the largest in existence, from ex-President White; some two hundred volumes of works on Romance philology, from Prof. Crane; and such additions to Prof. Willard Fiske's Dante collection as to bring it up to nearly 3,000 volumes, and to constitute it "undoubtedly the richest outside of Italy." The Library has just issued a catalogue of Prof. Fiske's "Rhæto-Romanic [Romaunsch] Collection," gathered rapidly by the donor three years ago in the Tyrol. It fills thirty-two pages in double columns, and the collection, which has a curious linguistic interest, probably has no rival in completeness.

That part of the Report of the National Museum for 1892 which relates to Japanese Woodcutting and Woodcut Printing has just been issued separately from the Government Printing-Office. The author is Mr. T. Tokuno, chief of the bureau of engraving and printing of the ministry of finance at Tokio, and his account has been edited by Mr. S. R. Koehler, curator of the section of Graphic Arts. It accompanied a gift to the Museum of a complete outfit of tools and materials, together with express illustrations which are here reproduced and are very curious. But one graver, always of the same pattern and size, is used for coarse work or the finest. It is held very much in the way shown in Jost Amman's 'Book of Trades,' 1568. Modern cutting is much shallower than the ancient, as with us. The cherry is the favorite wood, and the engraving is on the plank side. The ink is water-color, and the printing extraordinarily rapid.

A hint of future extension of teaching in our public schools is contained in the current annual report of the school committee of Cambridge, Mass. For geographical instruction with the aid of the lantern, Prof. W. M. Davis supplies a list of 126 slides, which will be furnished at fifty cents through Mr. E. E. Howell, 612 Seventeenth St., N. W., Washington, D. C. The significance of each scene portrayed is described by Prof. Davis, who has drawn upon the great collection of photographs in the geological department of Harvard University. In time, doubtless, the lantern will form as much a part of the school equipment as the blackboard. The list has been printed separately.

Partisans of the adoption of the referendum

may be referred to Rhode Island's primitive experimenting (1647-1664) with that clumsy form of legislation, as described by Mr. Sidney S. Rider in his Providence *Book Notes* for May 5.

M. Homolle, writing from Athens, April 25, announces the recent discovery at Delphi of what may prove to be the prototypes of the Parthenon frieze as well as the porch of the Caryatides. One of these is a caryatid belonging to the end of the sixth century, resembling the archaic female statues of the Acropolis, but superior in style, executed by an Attic artist and possibly designed for the temple of Apollo. It is a preliminary sketch of the maidens of the Erechtheum. Another discovery of even greater interest consists of portions of a frieze representing a procession of chariots and of horsemen, and a charming group of three seated goddesses who converse together, and regard with curiosity some spectacle to which one of them naïvely directs the attention of her neighbor. All this recalls the composition of the Parthenon frieze, and was probably its forerunner and inspirer. If so, we should have another instance of the permanence of type and tradition which is so characteristic of Greek art. A link of great importance in the history of art will also be supplied by the remains of the "Treasury of the Athenians," which M. Homolle describes as a masterpiece of archaic architecture and sculpture, and would date *circa* 490–480 B. C.

The island of New Mecklenburg, one of the Bismarck Archipelago to the east of New Guinea, has recently been visited by Count Pfeil, who gives an interesting account of the natives in *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for April. His explorations were confined to the central portion of the island, the northern and southern parts being still inaccessible on account of the hostility of the natives to strangers. As it was, his party was attacked and two of his attendants were killed and eaten. Though inveterate cannibals, the natives are not pure savages, but have some conception of a supreme deity and believe in a future life, a certain island off the coast being regarded as the home of the dead, whence they sometimes return and bring misfortune upon their relatives. While the bodies of their enemies are eaten, their own dead are burned. The more costly the funeral pyre, the greater is the consequence of the individual, and many prepare the wood for this purpose during their lifetimes. The hopelessly sick are burned alive with their own consent. Great skill and taste are shown in wood-carving. Count Pfeil saw some pieces which were remarkable both for the delicacy of the carving (it was like lace-work) and for the fact that it represented a bird of paradise and a monkey, neither of which creatures is known to exist on the island. The weapons consist of axes, which the natives handle with great dexterity, and spears. These are decorated with the arm bone of a slain enemy, but, failing this, an arm is carved in the wood. With their drums they are able to send messages from one village to another, having "a whole Morse alphabet of drum beats." Adultery is punished with the death of the woman, as is her marriage with a person of the same caste, the natives being divided into two castes. They are keen traders.

The perfection of cartographic work is illustrated in a large sheet of the Oetzthal and Stubai in the Austrian Alps, one of a series of five sheets of that mountainous district in publication by Giesecke and Devrient of Leipzig for the Austrian Alpine Club. The map has been drawn by Simon, the Swiss expert engineer-artist by whom the celebrated model of the Jungfrau district was constructed. The base of the map is the Austrian army survey; but Simon has revised the whole district, taking more than seven hundred photographs as an aid to the correct representation of details. In its published form, the sheet is a model of clearness, both in its expression of relief by shading and contours and in its names and other culture marks. The combination of contours, hachures, and shading is far superior to any one of these methods of topographic representation alone. In illustration of the minuteness to which the map is carried, mention may be made of the crevasses of the various glaciers, whose attitude is correctly portrayed. As a map for Alpine excursions and as an ideal towards which our mapmakers may press forward, this sheet has our highest recommendation.

The sixth session of the International Geological Congress will be held this year at Zurich, Switzerland, from August 29 to September 2. A number of excursions under competent guidance of local geologists will be offered both before and after the session; a guide-book descriptive of the various routes may be had for ten francs. Subscription of members is fixed at twenty-five francs, to be paid to C. Escher-Hess, treasurer, Zurich. The opportunity afforded by the congress for vacation excursions, profitable in seeing men as well as places, should not be lost by our professors of geology.

—The *Century* for June has something of interest on several reforms at present discussed. Dr. Albert Shaw writes of the government of German cities, preceding his account by statistics which show that the growth of almost all the large cities of the empire during the last two decades has exceeded both in area and population the growth of American cities of corresponding size during the same period, thus anticipating and nullifying the conventional apology for our failures in municipal government. There is much, of course, in the German systems that is complicated, unnecessary, and inapplicable to our conditions, but there is much also that we could adopt with infinite benefit to ourselves, notably their insistence on fitness and capacity in applicants for office. Dr. Shaw points out that German municipal salaries are small, citing as an example the mayor of Berlin with his 30,000 marks ($7,500) a year. He omits to add, however, that this sum represents in Germany a great deal more, nearly double what it does with us, so that in reality the mayor of Berlin is better paid than the mayor of New York, and his term of office is twelve years. In line with this paper is the open letter on an honest election machine, as run by the "Volunteer Electoral League" of Montreal, an organization of young men intent on securing good government for their city. A collection of opinions from ex-ministers of the United States on the consular service and the spoils system is a valuable addition to the subject. Among the literary articles, the description of the mother of Ivan Turgeneff by Prof. Boyesen will especially interest those who are inclined to accept Lombroso's theory of genius.

—The *Atlantic* will likewise attract those interested in the municipal and educational agitations of the hour. Dr. Shaw appears in these pages also with an account of Hamburg's new sanitary impulse, which is the result of the cholera visitation of 1892. With characteristic German thoroughness, the authorities of the afflicted city have gone to the root of their trouble, and have introduced a hygienic system that is likely to prove a model for the rest of the world. Under the head of American Railways and American Cities, Mr. Henry J. Fletcher endeavors to trace a connection between railway discrimination and the growth of the large terminal cities at the expense of the smaller towns and rural districts along the line. The scope of the Normal School is the subject of a paper by Mr. M. V. O'Shea, who defines its present and its ideal functions with a sympathetic pen. The literary attraction of the number is the contribution of Sir Edward Strachey, "Some Conversations and Letters of Thomas Carlyle," which reveal the rugged genius in the pleasant light of friendly intercourse. There is a good deal of the great man's peculiar self in these intimate communications, and the constant complaints about his own and his wife's physical ailments that run through them remind one oddly of the hypochondriacal tone of George Eliot's letters. The end of Tortoni's, the famous restaurant which closed its doors about a year ago, furnishes Mr. Stoddard Dewey with the theme for a good old-fashioned article in *Spectator* style—much gossip about the *beau monde*, some kindly criticism, a touch of satire, and an apt Latin quotation at the end.

—*Scribner's* opens with an historical essay on Maximilian and Mexico, by Mr. John Heard, jr., who bases his article on documents, recently made accessible, which have thrown light on many of the details of that involved and tragic episode. The character of the nominal protagonist in this drama, Maximilian, is drawn with unsparing truth. Like Charles I., he seems to have been able to do but one thing successfully, namely, to die. Under the ornamental title, "The Story of a Beautiful Thing," Mrs. Frances Hodgson Burnett writes an equally ornamental but not very clear account of a London charity, the Invalid Children's Aid Association. In these days of organized charities, one expects such descriptions to be business-like, adequately informing, and not too pathetic. "The Dog" is the subject of a paper by Mr. N. S. Shaler, who denies the theory of canine descent through the wolf, and maintains that the present animal is derived from ancestors as distinctly canine, which in the wild state have long since become extinct. In regard to the breeding of dogs, he deplores what thoughtful critics of the annual dog-shows have already remarked, and that is the tendency of breeders to substitute the symbol of a desired quality for the quality itself in their culture of the animal. A certain shape of the nose, or width of chest, or peculiarities of coloring, are desired, and they breed towards them extrinsically, without any attempt to develop in the animal the qualities of which these external features are but the sign. Of course, this is in part inevitable, owing to the diminishing use of dogs in the various ways in which formerly their special characteristics were of practical value.

—*Harper's* gives first place to an article on Philadelphia by Mr. Charles Belmont Davis, who presents the Quaker City from the social point of view that obtains in the aristocratic old town south of Market Street. All that portion north of this thoroughfare has, we are told, no history. It is perhaps impossible to convey an adequate idea of a great city in the narrow compass of a magazine article, but to the majority of people Philadelphia means something more and something other than the place here described. In "Memories of Wendell Phillips" Mr. George W. Smalley gives a

spirited and truthful description of some of the stirring scenes in Boston during the winter of 1860–'61, when the famous orator was in greater peril from mob violence than at any period in his career as an abolitionist. Mr. Smalley seems to intimate that he is engaged upon a fuller account of his subject. Another journalist, Mr. de Blowitz, is among the contributors for the month, with an essay on French diplomacy under the Third Republic, which gives a good general idea of the present personnel of the service. Mr. Alfred Parsons, the artist, writes of and illustrates profusely the Japanese spring. There is the usual amount of fiction, Du Maurier's "Trilby" still continuing to be the *pièce de résistance* in this department.

—The third Romanes lecture was given on May 2 in the Sheldonian Theatre by Prof. Weismann, who had been courteously provided with a D.C.L. gown by decree of the University an hour or two before his lecture began. His subject was the one with which his name is so conspicuously associated, but he gave no popular survey of the whole ground. He addressed himself to a careful and somewhat minute consideration of a portion of the evidence supporting his own view that characters acquired during the lifetime of a living being are not inherited by the offspring, saying in one of his more daring periods that there was about as much support in scientific evidence for the contrary view as there was for maintaining that the sun revolved around the earth. Discussing the characteristics of social insects—bees, termites, and ants—he argued in the case of bees that there is but one kind of egg, while the individuals produced are of three kinds, queens, female workers, and drones. Unfertilized eggs produce males, fertilized eggs produce female grubs, and of these only the well-fed become queens, the others becoming workers (imperfect females). Here an external cause, abundant food, would appear to determine the character of the adult, and this character would appear to be transmitted by inheritance. But the female workers are sterile and cannot transmit anything, and therefore the capacity for change according to the amount and quality of food obtained must inhere in the race. House flies, the lecturer showed, are not affected by diet in any analogous fashion. Half-starved maggots produce smaller flies, but these are quite as fertile as larger ones whose larvæ had lived in abundance. Confronting the two cases, Dr. Weismann argued that it is the different nature of the germ-plasm of an organism which determines the characters of the adult, and he maintained that external influences acted only as stimuli by which latent powers in the germ are called forth. Hence the external conditions which appear to determine characters are not in any sense a true *causa efficiens*, but merely a necessary condition for the appearance of that which is inherent in the organism at some stage of development. The lecturer ended with the conclusion that the Lamarckian explanation of evolution fails when applied to these cases of so-called "neuter" insects, as it has failed before when offered as an explanation of other biological problems.

—Many people, and especially those who have lately been reading M. Édouard Grénier's 'Souvenirs,' or have at hand M. Émile Deschanel's new book on Lamartine, will hear with sympathetic interest of the recent death at Paris of the poet's faithful and devoted niece. She is a principal figure in Deschanel's eloquent last chapter, "Les travaux forcés de l'honneur." Everybody knows of Lamartine's long struggle with the debts by which he found himself encompassed on his retirement from power. His case was even more pathetic than Scott's, since he lacked Scott's indomitable soul. Hopeless and sick with chagrin, he lived at the châlet of Passy which the city of Paris had granted for his use, and kept up the long struggle, which never was crowned with success. During these years his chief support lay in the devotion of his wife and his niece. In 1863 the niece was left to bear the burden alone, which she sustained with heroic piety and tenderness till the death of the poet in 1869. After his death she was obliged to give up the châlet, in lieu of which the city gave her a yearly stipend of 12,000 francs. In the years 1873, 1874, and 1875, she published the five volumes of Lamartine's correspondence. Mlle. Valentine de Lamartine, who early in life took the name of her uncle, was a daughter of Mme. de Cessia, one of the five sisters of the poet. She was sixty-three years of age at the time of her death, on May 16. She leaves many important papers and documents that were in her possession—notably the manuscripts of 'Jocelyn' and of the 'Girondins.'

—It is impossible within reasonable limits to give any adequate idea of the multitude and the interest of the subjects treated in the five bulky volumes bearing the general title of 'The Industries of Russia,' which the Russian Government prepared for the Chicago Exposition. They have come late to hand, but they will long remain a very valuable source of statistical and other information relating to Russian manufactures, mining industries, products, trade, and so forth. In fact, they are the only authoritative source of information available, in English, on many points. The haste with which they were necessarily prepared rendered mistakes inevitable, but it is safe to say that many people will learn from these volumes for the first time what wealth of natural resources and energy and industry vast Russia possesses. Two volumes are devoted to "Manufactures and Trade," and one volume each to "Agriculture and Forestry," "Mining and Metallurgy," and "Siberia and the Great Siberian Railway." The editing of the work in Russian was intrusted to the celebrated chemist Prof. D. I. Mendeléeff of the University of St. Petersburg. The editor of the English version is the American Consul-General, Mr. J. M. Crawford. Perhaps the most astonishing feature of this huge compilation, containing more than 1,600 large octavo pages, is the fact that the entire English version was set up and printed by Russians who knew not a word of the language in which they were working. Naturally, the abundance of technical terms with which every page bristles presented immense difficulty to the translators. However, an expert in any of the departments treated could readily make the corrections requisite for a profitable use of the facts therein set forth. The peculiarities of English are such as might have been expected from Russians turning their own language into another tongue, or from English people unused to translating, or so long resident in Russia as to have partially lost idiomatic control of their native tongue. The typographical errors are very few.

—The article on each branch of industry has been prepared by a specialist, and wherever maps and charts will help to a comprehension of the matter, they have been provided. Thus, there are maps showing the route of the Siberian railway, with the rejected routes, the location of the gold, silver, platinum, and other mines, and the amounts taken from them, and the railway connections all over Russia and Siberia, though the volume devoted to a "Review of the Railway and Steamboat Lines of the Empire," mentioned in the preface, has not been received. There are maps of atmospheric precipitation, of the principal soils in the black-loam region, of the density of population, of the area of cultivated lands in proportion to the whole surface for each government, a similar map of the proportion of forests; another which shows the ownership of land by the government, the peasants and private individuals; one which shows the distribution of different kinds of land, one which illustrates fertilizing, others for the area under rye, millet, Indian corn, and spelt, the prevailing crops, the average yield of rye, and of spring wheat, oats, and potatoes, the export of the principal cereals, in five-year periods; variations in price of the different cereals; the total number of cattle, with the distribution of large and small live stock, and many other maps and diagrams, colored and uncolored. The Russians have thoughtfully provided for each volume tables of weights and measures, with the equivalents in the English and the mētric systems, and each article begins with an instructive historical sketch of the industry under consideration, supplementary to the more extensive historical sketch that introduces each volume. The volume which treats of Siberian industries, trade, railway, and mineral wealth is of particular interest, in view of the probable close connection with our country, and the development of its wealth by Americans when the completion of the trans-Siberian railway shall have rendered such development possible and profitable. Many people will, no doubt, be surprised to learn that in 1766 "a mining engineer, Polsounov, erected the first steam-acting blowing engine for blast furnaces at the Barnaoul works. Polzounov may justly be called the forerunner of Watt. In the Altai [Mountains] also the first experiment of laying down a tram-line was made in 1817, for transporting the ore from the Zmeinogorsk mine and the Zmeevsk works, along a distance of two and one-half versts." Those who have the patience and courage to attack these formidable volumes will be rewarded, and will agree with the director of the Department of Trade and Manufacture, who says in his preface that, "however successful the choice of exhibits [at Chicago] may be, they cannot convey an adequate idea of the productive forces of the empire and its industrial development," and will feel grateful to the Minister of Finance, Mr. S. I. Vitte, for having supplied the deficiency as far as was possible with this impressive survey. The Putnams market the volumes in this country.

LORD WOLSELEY'S MARLBOROUGH.

The Life of John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough: to the Accession of Queen Anne. By General Viscount Wolseley, K.P. Illustrated. Vols. I. and II. London: Richard Bentley & Son; New York: Longmans. 1894.

A LIFE of Marlborough by a general himself so distinguished as Lord Wolseley cannot fail to be full of interest. Marlborough, we suppose, would be generally allowed to be the first of British soldiers. If his reputation as a general does not vie in brilliancy with those of the most renowned commanders in history,

Voltaire could say of him with literal truth that he never fought a battle which he did not gain, besiege a place which he did not win, or undertake an operation which did not prove successful. He was not a scientifically trained soldier, and was perhaps on that account somewhat underrated by William, who, while he lacked military genius, was master of the science of war. Strong sense and great practical sagacity were, as the Duke of Wellington said, Marlborough's gifts. To these he added the serenest intrepidity and the most imperturbable self-possession. His qualities as a military diplomatist seconded his strategy, and were not less indispensable to the generalissimo of a discordant and fractious coalition. No general ever more completely clipped the wings of Victory. This was the more remarkable because he commanded armies made up of motley materials, and accustomed to defeat, against the armies accustomed to defeating them. The confidence with which he attacked at Blenheim, and the decisiveness of the result, are among the most striking things in military history. The result of his last battle, Malplaquet, was less decisive, though the fault was not his, but that of his allies. Yet his career of conquest was not arrested: he afterwards forced the lines of Bouchain; and had not Mistress Abigail crept, in the interest of the Jacobites, to the ear of the fatuous Anne and wrought his fall, with that of the patriotic party, it is not impossible that he might have entered Paris, and it is morally certain that he would have given the French monarchy such a blow as could hardly have failed to alter the course of history.

Macaulay has failed, but Lord Wolseley does not fail, to appreciate the importance of the part played by Marlborough in the Revolution of 1688. James had an army on foot strong enough to cope with the Dutch invader had it remained true to him. And apparently it might have remained true but for the secession of Marlborough. Marlborough and his wife also rendered William a great service by drawing over to him the Princess Anne. James, in his agony of rage, cried, "I must make examples, Churchill above all; Churchill whom I raised so high. He, and he alone, has done all this. He has corrupted my army. He has corrupted my child. He would have put me into the hands of the Prince of Orange but for God's special providence." The last assertion was a mistake. The majestic intriguer would never have been guilty of such an indecorum.

In these two volumes Lord Wolseley gets only to the death of William III. and the eve of the war of succession. The day of Marlborough's glory, the theme on which Lord Wolseley would be most interesting, is yet to come. We have here nothing more in the military way than the drooping laurels of Sedgemoor, the melancholy trophies of an Irish campaign, and displays of ability in subordinate command on the Continent, which, however, were the earnest of greater things to come. The day which is not that of Marlborough's glory, the sun of which breaks fitfully through dark clouds of dishonor, is the present subject, and in dealing with it the impartiality of the biographer is sorely tried. It is not true, however, that, as some of Lord Wolseley's critics seem to have thought, he whitewashes his hero. Again and again he speaks of Marlborough's conduct in language of the strongest reprobation; and in some cases where we should ourselves hesitate to condemn. He is right in making allowance for the moral standard of the age. Great allowance assuredly must be made for the moral standard of the age in the case of a poor, extremely handsome, and most fascinating youth, thrown among the men and women of the court of Charles II. In respect of social morality, the worst thing, perhaps, that can be said of Marlborough is, that he accepted the patronage of James when James had seduced his sister. Licentious intercourse with women probably never presented itself to his mind as wrong. To be caught in Lady Castlemaine's bed-chamber would be regarded by the circle in which he lived as a feather in his social cap. That he was "kept" by a woman is a flourish of Macaulay's pen. He was so far better than his companions that he did not drink or gamble. Nor, if in that slough of public corruption he shared illicit gains, was he so much to blame as he would be if he did the same thing now. The foulest of all illicit gains, that which was made by the traffic in prisoners after the suppression of Monmouth's rebellion, apparently he did not share. That he was avaricious is undeniable. So, unfortunately, was the wife of his bosom. But Macaulay has exaggerated this feature of Marlborough's mixed character, as he exaggerates every feature of every mixed character, for the purpose of his chiaroscuro. It is amusing to see how the great historical rhetorician makes everything work into his theory. The young adventurer whose beauty, charm of manner, and social reputation would have won for him the hand of the richest heiress of the court, marries a penniless girl for love. "He must have been very desperately in love," says Macaulay, "not to marry for money." Of course he was, and that he should have been so desperately in love with a penniless beauty proves that money, though he coveted it, was not mistress of his soul. So when Macaulay says that Sarah was "the one human being who was fervently loved by that cold heart," we must ask what proof better than fervent love there can be that the heart is not cold.

Marlborough chose his wife for her beauty, which matched his own; but when her beauty faded, his love did not lose its warmth. His devotion to her remained to the end of his life as passionate as it had been on their wedding-day. Nor was her love of him less, though the violence of her temper gave him many a bitter hour and probably had not a little to do with his worst departure from the path of honor; for her disappointment at her position under William and Mary probably helped to draw him into his intrigues with the exiled King. When she was his widow and a ducal suitor sought her hand, her answer was that not even if she were still young enough for marriage would she allow any man to share a heart which had once belonged to the Duke of Marlborough. One day, in a fit of rage, she cut off the beautiful tresses which were Marlborough's delight, and threw them where he would be likely to light upon them. He did light upon them, and at his death they were found laid up among the cherished treasures of the victor of Blenheim. Macaulay might let alone this redeeming story of affection amidst all the impurity and roguery of the age.

The three great counts in the indictment against Marlborough's character are his desertion of his patron James II., his correspondence with James while he was in the service of William, and his betrayal of the Brest expedition. In the first of these cases his conduct was cynical and savored of the generation of Shaftesbury and Sunderland; but we cannot say that it was vile. James had conferred favors on him, but he, at the battle of Sedgemoor, in which his capacity supplied the defects of the incapable Feversham, had rendered most important service to James. So far they were quits. It may be added that the favors of a king, being conferred at the public expense, can hardly be held to cancel the claims of public duty. To say nothing of constitutional principle, for which Marlborough, who, if he was anything except a soldier, was a courtier, probably cared little, it was impossible for a man of his sound sense to adhere to such a fool as James and such fanatics as James's priestly guides in their fatuous and ruinous career. Whatever of patriotism there might be in Marlborough would revolt against subserviency to France. Nor can we blame him for having masked his design from the king, though, as he was in immediate attendance upon James's person, the process involved profound deception. It would have been absurd to incur suspicion which would have exposed him to arrest. It does not seem that James had taken him into his political councils, while, by refusing to turn Roman Catholic, Marlborough had given practical notice of his independence.

Lord Wolseley, looking at the matter from a military point of view, discusses the charge which might have been brought against Marlborough of desertion. But in this case the military question was lost in the political necessity. We should no more think of arraigning Marlborough as a deserter for going over to William than we should think of arraigning him as a horse-stealer if he had ridden off on a regimental horse. In his letter of explanation to James he states his motive to have been his attachment to the Protestant religion. It is difficult to believe that religion was an influence paramount with so thorough a man of the world, and we are inclined, in Marlborough's case, as in those of many ardent Protestants of the period, to take Protestantism in a political sense. Yet Marlborough seems not only to have been a firm believer in Providence, but to have sincerely valued the ordinances, at least, of religion. He spent a part of the night before Blenheim in prayer, and always before going into battle received the sacrament. He had, however, another motive for secession which both Macaulay and Lord Wolseley have failed to notice. His wife had by this time acquired a complete ascendancy over the feeble mind of the Princess Anne, whose favor, if she became Queen, opened a splendid vista to his ambition, while her chance of succession to the crown, otherwise than by a revolution, was extinguished by the birth of a son to James II. In his subsequent double dealings it was suspected by the Jacobites, at least, that his real object was, not to restore James, but to get rid both of William and James, and place Anne, as a Protestant and an Englishwoman, on the vacant throne.

Marlborough's secret correspondence with the Court of St. Germain, when he was in the service of William, can neither be defended nor excused without disloyalty to morality and honor. His motives on any hypothesis were manifestly personal, not public. He and his wife had not gained so much by the Revolution as they had expected. He wished to make himself safe in the event of a restoration of the exiled dynasty, which the unpopularity of the foreign deliverer seemed at one time to portend. If he had the more ambitious aim which the Jacobites suspected, that aim still was purely personal. The only palliations of his conduct are the number of his associates in infamy and the low standard of public mo-

rality in that age. That he should have been employed again after the discovery of his treachery is the highest proof of William's magnanimity and of his noble preference of the public service to his own interest and feelings. Too true, though couched in rugged verse, was the judgment of Defoe:

"We blame the King that he relies too much
On strangers, Germans, Huguenots, and Dutch,
And seldom does his great affairs of state
To English councillors communicate.
The fact might very well be answered thus:
He has so often been betrayed by us,
He must have been a madman to rely
On English gentlemen's fidelity.
For (laying other arguments aside),
This thought might mortify our English pride,
That foreigners have faithfully obeyed him,
And none but Englishmen have e'er betrayed him."

Worst of all is the betrayal to the French Government by a British soldier of the intended attack on Brest, which led to the failure of the expedition and the death of its gallant chief. Lord Wolseley pleads that Marlborough was not really responsible for the disaster because he was not the first to give the information. It appears, however, that he gave it as soon as he knew the destination of the force.

"It is but this day that it came to my knowledg what now I send you; which is that the Bomb Vessells and the twelve regiments now encamped at Portsmouth, together with the two Marine Regiments, are to be commanded by Talmach, and are designed to burn the harbour of Brest, and to destroy the men of war there; this would be great advantage to England, but no consideration can, or ever shall hinder me from letting you know what I think may be for your service, so you may make what use you think best of this intelligence, which you may depend upon as exactly true." (vol. ii., p. 313).

Suppose Marlborough had been anticipated by another traitor, how much would that do to purge his honor? If two officers in Lord Wolseley's army had betrayed to the enemy his plan of attack at Tel el-Kebir, would he not have sent them both before a court-martial, though the information of the second might have happened to come too late? Even if we suppose Marlborough to have known that the information given by him would come too late, and by sending it he would only gain a false credit for infamy, would this exonerate him or even much diminish his turpitude in the eyes of any man of honor? Nothing can efface this stain; apologists only call attention to its blackness. They had better let it alone and allow it to be lost, as far as possible, in the blaze of Marlborough's glory.

An infinitely less serious charge is that of illiteracy. Against this Lord Wolseley would fain defend his hero. The facts, we fear, are against him. Here is one of Marlborough's letters to Blaythwait, secretary of war:

"For Mr. Blaythwait, Secretary att War, att his house neer the Horse Guard, London.—Maestrich, May 25th.—SIR.—I have not heard from [you] sense I left England, which I hope is ocationed by your not knowing how to direct your's to me. If you will call at my lodgings, my wife will lett you have the same direction she has for writing. I desier you will constantly lett me have what passes in Ireland. I must desier you will give the enclosed to my Lord Portland, there being own in it for the King. I desier you would send me over a copie of the oath that Monsieur Schonberg gave to the officers about ther never taking nor giving money for ther employment, because I am resolved to give the same oath here. I goe to-moroe for Boldnecke, and from thence to some other guarisons, to draw out six regiments, the other four not yett being ready to march.—I am, sir, your friend and servant, MARLBOROUGH."

The age was one of unsettled orthography no doubt, but not of such spelling as this amongst tolerably educated men.

Soldiers and men of action generally, when they take up the pen at all, usually write with verve and freshness. Cæsar's Commentaries are the type of military style. The vigor and animation of Lord Wolseley's style are such that we can easily overlook a few literary slips which have been pointed out by critics. Whenever war is his theme we feel that he is a master of it, that his descriptions are sure to be true, and that his ardor, when he speaks to us of the raptures of the battle, is unfeigned. But of these excellences we shall get the full benefit only when we come to the series of grand campaigns and stirring battle-pieces with which the next volume will open.

RECENT POETRY.

LONDON is prolific, of late, in a type of poetic genius for which the following recipe has lately been given in *Truth*: "Half educate a vain youth at Oxford; let his hair grow; dip him into erotic French literature; add one idea; chop it small; give a grotesque name; then serve up as a rival to Milton, Sheridan, and Shakspere." The *Athenæum*, usually well informed, though speaking lately of "the two thinkers, Thoreau and Walden," goes still further, and remarks of this flock of youthful bards in London that they are constantly discovering one another. The most questionable feature of their fame, however, is not this mutual discovery, but the very insecure basis on which it is apt to rest. The men brought to light are not suffered to stand upon their poetic work alone, but appear in the light of chromo-poets, who must have some private romance to give them color; it is urged in their behalf that they have begged about the streets, that they have become monks, that they have been more or less insane, that they have spent some years in a hospital. A great many persons have lost their wits without poetic madness, and have wasted their substance without any lofty soarings; so that the stress laid on such things awakens suspicion, like the recurring burglaries which remind a doubting world that some second-rate actress has diamonds to lose. The worst result is that, under these beguiling influences, we Americans have reverted for a season to that meek and deferential attitude from which Emerson and Hawthorne for a time rescued us. Any one thus advertised in London finds at once somebody to lecture about him in American universities; and whole cities are temporarily modified by his influence.

Those who lament what they find discouraging in the present aspect of English poetry may well find some comfort in the thought that, half a century ago, there was just the same solicitude. John Sterling, himself a poet of fine and elevated type, wrote thus in 1841: "It is true, no doubt, that what new poetry we have is little cared for; but also true that there is wonderfully little deserving any honor. Compare our present state with twenty years ago, when Wordsworth, Byron, Shelley, Keats, and Scott, the novelist, were all vigorously productive." Yet Tennyson and Browning were already rising to the zenith, and Swinburne, Rossetti, and Morris—to speak of London bards alone—were yet to come. Between that time and this, what stars and starlets have risen and set. Who now remembers the Shaksperian quality that was found or fancied in Alexander Smith; or how Sainte-Beuve wrote of Edmund J. Armstrong, "His young star will continue to shine before the eyes of all who study English poetry"? When Coventry Patmore comes forward to discover Francis Thompson, it is the rediscovery of Coventry Patmore that excites surprise; he was generally supposed to have died long since, like his transitory fame. The very complaints we make against the current poetic whims are much like those which were made against the earlier ones. The dedication of a serious volume "To Sissie Le Gallienne" is not much sillier than Tennyson's "O, Darling room, my heart's delight," which was wisely suppressed in later editions. The "affected archaism" which Lord Houghton admitted to be a defect in Leigh Hunt and his friends is conspicuous on every page of William Morris, not to speak of the younglings, and is manifest to the eye in the imprints of the latest poet-publishers, Mathews & Lane.

Dr. Richard Garnett, more than most Englishmen, retains health and vigor, even amid this phase of sadness. In his 'Poems' (London: Mathews & Lane; Boston: Copeland & Day) he has sometimes a touch worthy of Shelley, as in this (p. 18):

EVEN-STAR.

First-born and final relic of the night,
I dwell aloof in dim immensity;
The gray sky sparkles with my fairy light;
I mix among the dancers of the sea;
Yet stoop not from the throne I must retain
High o'er the silver sources of the rain.

Vicissitude I know not, nor can know,
Yet much discern strewed everywhere around;
The ever-stirring race of men below
Much do I watch, and wish I were not bound
The chainless captive of this lonely spot,
Where light-winged Mutability is not.

I see great cities rise, which being hoar
Are slowly rendered into dust again,
And roaring billows preying on the shore;
And virgin isles ascending from the main;
The passing wave of the perpetual river;
And men depart, and man remaining ever.

The upturned eyes of many a mortal maid
Glass me in gathering tears, soon kissed away;
Then walks she for a space, and then is laid
Swelling the bosom of the quiet clay.
I muse what this all-kindling Love may be,
And what this Death that never comes to me.

Though Dr. Garnett's book bears the imprint "London and Boston," yet, inasmuch as the printing was done abroad, we suppose that there is no copyright on the publication. Certainly we should all wish to see the international copyright law strained a little, if necessary, for the benefit of an author who writes a sonnet like the following (p. 132):

TO AMERICA.

[After reading some ungenerous criticisms.]

What though thy Muse the singer's art essay
With lip now over-loud, now over-low?
'Tis but the augury that makes her so
Of the high things she hath in charge to say.
How shall the giantess of gold and clay,
Girt with two oceans, crowned with Arctic snow,
Sandalled with shining seas of Mexico,
Be pared to trim proportion in a day?
Thou art too great! Thy million-billowed surge
Of life bewilders speech, as shoreless sea
Confounds the ranging eye from verge to verge
With mazy strife or smooth immensity.
Not soon or easily shall hence emerge
A Homer or a Shakspere worthy thee.

The publications of the young firm of Stone & Kimball (Cambridge and Chicago) are so attractive as to merit especial commendation and in fact to form a new era in the external dress of American poetry. There is visible a frank imitation of Mathews & Lane; but, after all, it is only superficial, and the selection of authors is carefully made. Gilbert Parker's 'A Lover's Diary' is disappointing; indeed, a whole book of sonnets is always so—sonnets should be the occasional spice of a volume, not its main repast. These sonnets, moreover, are in the irregular Shaksperian form, while modern taste has trained itself to the Italian sequence of rhymes. Mr. Hugh McCulloch, jr., in 'The Quest of Heracles, and Other Poems,' has risked his fate upon the Greek legend, a thing now so overdone that it needs the vigor of Michael Field to save it from the charge of languor. In some of his lyrics, as "A Requiem," we have a fresher and more varied charm. 'When Hearts are Trumps,'

by "Tom Hall," is full of excellent fooling, as piquant as the best work of the kind from London, and with more good nature. Mr. George Santayana also yields to the sonnet-indulgence, and his poems are almost always sad ('Sonnets, and Other Verses'); there is a distinct impression of immaturity, and yet of an underlying earnestness of feeling and imagination which imply a promise that is rare in a first volume. The closing and longer poem, "Lucifer," is an exceedingly strong and original study, not quite worked out.

Mr. Hamlin Garland's 'Prairie Songs' must carry a little disappointment to those who were struck with the fresh vigor and strong local coloring of his 'Main-travelled Roads,' and who regret that he—like all the type he represents, like Bret Harte and Joaquin Miller, for instance—apparently made his best mark at first, and shows no power of growth. These poems are full of valuable material, they carry the very flavor of the upturned furrow; yet the trace of Whitman and Miller is on them all, they are often strained and turgid and, so to speak, over-dressed. It is little that Mr. Garland says "fartherest" (p. 163), and says of the snow, "I saw it lay" (p. 162). These things are trifles—Emily Dickinson took far greater liberties with the Queen's or the President's English; but compare her poem on the "Blue Jay" with Mr. Garland's, and see which has the vigor and the grip. Mr. Garland even insults this bit of pure American life by one of the worst of Whitmanisms, the interlarding of foreign words, and calls the jay an "emigre," without an accent—whatever that may mean.

Mr. Grant Allen, who has put in a bid for second prizes in a good many directions, but without succeeding in any, now sends forth a volume of verse, not the "sweet Spenserian" of which we used to hear so much, but of sub-acid Spencerian, which is a very different thing. Were a poet to write of science, the men of science would hold him to a strict account as to the smallest laboratory precepts; but when a man of science—if Mr. Allen really counts among that class—writes poetry, he troubles himself very little about small points of art, and rhymes "kisses" with "tresses," "quarrel" with "coral," and "barter" with "Montmartre." Such blemishes occur freely in the volume called 'The Lower Slopes.' Comparing the verses about a moth, "Only an Insect," with Mr. Carman's fine and thoughtful poem on the same theme, one sees at a glance the difference between the poetic and unpoetic types of mind. The best thing in the book, its searching suggestion (p. 73) of the horrible realities lying beyond the gayeties of the Jardin Mabille, conveys a moral which has probably never yet been brought home to Mr. Allen—the extent, namely, to which he, and such as he, have laid the foundation for precisely those horrors by their persistent treatment of every woman as if she were only a tolerably intelligent kitten (p. 26):

> "For a man, he tries
> And he toils and sighs
> To be mighty wise
> And witty,
> But a dear little dame
> Has enough of fame
> If she wins the name
> Of pretty."

This he fortifies yet farther (p. 27) by the comforting and polygamous doctrine:

> "I hold that heart full poor that owns its boast
> To throb in tune with but one throbbing breast.
> Who numbers many friends, loves friendship most;
> Who numbers many loves, loves each love best."

After this, what remains but Mabille?

It is a question whether to take pleasure or pain in the fact that the most really enjoyable of all these contributions from Messrs. Stone & Kimball's young poets has for its birthplace neither England nor the United States, but that Canadian region, dumb until lately, but to whose rising literature we have more than once borne witness. Mr. Bliss Carman's use of his own early local coloring is at its best in 'Low Tide on Grand Pré,' and the breadth and mystery of that landscape of lonely distances and colossal ocean tides are fully rendered in his verse. He has that lyrical note and that power of imagination which lend to his poetry a haunting quality—a trait sure to secure a permanent charm beyond all mere wit and wisdom. It includes, of course, an ear for poetic names. The new localities he embalms for us—Blomidon, Arrochar, the Ardise hills, Martock, and Menalowan—are all names made for poets or by poets, it makes little difference which; but they are as valid and permanent, if rightly improved, as Tweed and Yarrow. The poem which, perhaps, strikes the deepest note is "Pulvis et Umbra," suggested by a gray moth coming in from seaward and leaving dust upon the poet's fingers. The most condensed in its vigor, with most of what Mr. Carman elsewhere calls "the valor of the North," is this pair of verses (p. 55):

> A SEA CHILD.
>
> The lover of child Marjory
> Had one white hour of life brim full;
> Now the old nurse, the rocking sea,
> Hath him to lull.
>
> The daughter of child Marjory
> Hath in her veins, to beat and run,
> The glad indomitable sea,
> The strong white sun.

One thing which leads to the belief that Mr. Carman's merits may be partly those of his early surroundings is the fact that Mr. Duncan C. Scott's 'The Magic House, and Other Poems' (Ottawa: Durie) shows some of the same fine qualities. He also reveals an exceptional dramatic faculty in the poem "At the Cedars"—a lumberman's tragedy—and turns to an exquisite mood of meditative thought and fine expression in his poem on "A Country Churchyard" (p. 26):

> "This is the acre of unfathomed rest:
> These stones, with weed and lichen bound, enclose
> No active grief, no uncompleted woes,
> But only finished work and harbored quest,
> And balm for ills;
> And the last gold that smote the ashen west
> Lies garnered here between the harvest hills."

It is in such volumes as Mr. Carman's, Mr. Scott's, and Mr. Santayana's that the hope of our cis-Atlantic poetic literature lies, for they differ from the young London poets in being unbackneyed, and from Mr. Garland and his kind in showing enough of cultivation to avoid that note of provincialism which still hangs around the whole school of dialect-writers. Dialect, like slang, can be endured as flavoring only—it soon grows wearisome if offered as food. Burns does not tire us, but Allan Ramsay does; James Whitcomb Riley can take us "back to Grigsby's station" with him, but when William Allen White tries the same key in "The Exodus of Elder Twiggs" it seems flat. Mr. White and Mr. Albert Bigelow Paine are joint authors of 'Rhymes by Two Friends' (Fort Scott, Kansas: Izor), of which a friend who writes the introduction says, that "they have in no way offended the Kansans' idea of poetry." This makes one feel that the nation is safe in their hands. Yet there is almost always in these defiant border books a note which betrays essential weakness, in the fine names they give their heroes and heroines; thus, in these 'Rhymes' the persons celebrated in the most serious poem are not called John and Susan but Gustave and Emilie. In somewhat the same way, Mrs. Julia Ditts Young, whose poems are not in any way objectionable, spoils their flavor from the outset by taking a motto from Stevenson, in which he speaks of "a nightingale in the sycamore" as a necessary part of poetic housekeeping. But the book is called 'Thistle-Down' (Buffalo: Paul), and do nightingales really sing in Buffalo? On the whole, we prefer a little dingy book like 'Skipped Stitches,' by Anne J. Granuiss (Keene, N. H.: Darling), which is written, it appears, by an author who herself worked in a mill and knows what she means by "Songs and Burred Needles," though we do not. She at least offers no nightingale on the doorstep.

When we turn to the writings of more highly cultivated authors, we sometimes find that, as in the case of Mr. E. F. Fenollosa's 'East and West: The Discovery of America, and Other Poems' (Crowell), the experience of two continents has turned largely to effervescence in the brain. There is doubtless some thought behind them all, but the result is weariness to flesh and spirit. Certainly there is in them no such glut as the author deprecates (p. 42):

> "O dance of the dishes! O pulse of the purses!
> O whirlpool of wishes! O chaos of curses!
> O hybrid hypocrisy of high bred democracy!
> O self contradictions of pious convictions!
> O mental congestions of insoluble questions!
> Are there no panaceas for a glut of ideas?"

Mosse MacDonald, whose name is new to us, in his 'Poems' (London: Innes), is, like most poets new or old, more enjoyable as he is least ambitious; more when he sings of maidens than when he discourses of Iona. A modern and spiritualized Herrick could scarcely do better than this (p. 37):

> "Virgins, laugh no more, but weep
> For Idonea, fall'n asleep:
> Winter winds have ceased to stir,
> All the world wears snow for her.
>
> "Cold, sad world, these saints so free
> Tarry little space in thee!
> Their true home is God's fair land.
> None can take them from His hand.
>
> . . . . . .
>
> "Who this star of virgins lit
> He alone was worthy it;
> He has touched the sleeping maid,
> She has followed unafraid.
>
> "We will don the mail of light
> Each whom Love has made a Knight,
> Raising eyes, however dim,
> For Idonea, unto Him."

In Mr. Robert Bridges's 'Humours of the Court: A Comedy' (Macmillan), we find little that is comic and not much that is musical. Mr. Gleeson White's 'Book-Song' (New York: Armstrong) gleans after Mr. Brander Matthews, and is more miscellaneous; many people have written about books, producing verse which is hardly worth putting into books. It is this same waywardness which most damps the unusually high hopes otherwise to be entertained from the volume which has so arrested attention in London, 'Poems by Francis Thompson' (London: Mathews & Lane; Boston: Copeland & Day). It is discouraging to open (p. 42) upon

> "Thy mists enclip
> Her steel-clear circuit illusions,
> Until it crust
> Rubiginous
> With the glorious gales of a glowing rust."

And yet Keats had sometimes dithyrambic whims like this; and certainly Mr. Thompson has far more in common with Keats than with "the mob of gentlemen who write with ease" in the current Franco-Cockney idiom of London verse. Mr. Thompson has wonderful phrasing, like Keats, exquisite fancies, high uplifts; and his love-making has a refined beauty which equals Rossetti at his best. Rossetti's summary of the beloved woman

> "Whose speech Truth knows not from her heart,
> Nor Love her body from her soul,"

is not carried to a point more high and exqui-

site than when Thompson says of the object of his love (p. 9):

> "Whose body other ladies well might bear
> As soul—yea, which it profanation were
> For all but you to take as fleshly woof,
> Being spirit truest proof."

Again he says (p. 23):

> "All which makes other women noted fair,
> Unnoted would remain and overshone in her.
> How should I gauge what beauty is her dole
> Who cannot see her countenance for her soul,
> As birds see not the casement for the sky?
> And as 'tis check they prove its presence by,
> I know not of her body till I find
> My flight debarred the heaven of her mind."

These are glimpses of that fine style familiar to English poets in the seventeenth century, but now almost lost to sight; nor did that century produce anything finer. Yet perhaps it is not strange that the one poem in the volume which has been oftenest quoted is not among these subtleties, but brings to us Wordsworth —with a difference. It shows a range of gifts which makes Mr. Thompson an interesting, but not yet an altogether hopeful figure, since his impulses are wayward, like his life. This is the poem just mentioned, omitting some verses (p. 65):

DAISY.

> Where the thistle lifts a purple crown
> Six foot out of the turf,
> And the harebell shakes on the windy hill,
> O the breath of the distant surf!—
>
> The hills look over on the South,
> And Southward dreams the sea;
> And with the sea-breeze hand in hand
> Came innocence and she.
>
> Oh, there were flowers in Storrington
> On the turf and on the spray;
> But the sweetest flower on Sussex Hills
> Was the Daisy-flower that day.
>
> Her beauty smoothed earth's furrowed face!
> She gave me tokens three:—
> A look, a word of her winsome mouth,
> And a wild raspberry.
>
> She went her unremembering way,
> She went and left in me
> The pang of all the partings gone
> And partings yet to be.
>
> Still, still I seemed to see her, still
> Look up with soft replies,
> And take the berries with her hand,
> And the love with her lovely eyes.
>
> Nothing begins, and nothing ends
> That is not paid with moan;
> For we are born in others' pain
> And perish in our own.

Man and Woman: A Study of Human Secondary Sexual Characters. By Havelock Ellis. Illustrated. [Contemporary Science Series.] London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners. 1894.

THAT tiresome little egotist, Marie Bashkirtseff, refused to claim for her sex an utopian equality with the opposite sex, "because there can be no equality between two such different beings as man and woman." Her grumbling arose from the fact that personally she was a woman, "whereas I have," she said, "only the skin of one." Mr. Ellis's comparative study makes havoc of accepted notions as to the difference between the sexes, and, while not destroying that difference, results on the whole in a great levelling of natural endowments. Man's boasted superiority in many particulars disappears, and excellences which he condescends to impute to woman are strangely shown to be rather his own property. Larger he is, and stronger, as a rule, but his skeleton is not always distinguishable from a woman's, and his pelvis tends to approximate hers. In measurements of the living body the surest sexual discrimination is in the girth of the female thigh. The male brain is universally heavier than the female, and upon this physiological fact much of man's lordship rests; but Mr. Ellis shows that, proportionately to the size of the rest of the organism, woman's brain is as heavy if not rather heavier. Stronger and brawnier as he is, she surpasses him in endurance of pain, bears amputations better, rallies more certainly from zymotic diseases, has greater longevity after the age of sixty-five.

On the other hand, the available evidence tends to show that men have a keener and more delicate sense of smell, are more sensitive to faint color, surpass women in rapidity and precision of movement, and are perhaps more deft in manipulation. Regarding the artistic impulse, "there is thus a certain justification of Schopenhauer's description of woman as the unæsthetic sex." In the moral sphere, man is by nature franker and more truthful. "The method of attaining results by ruses (common among all the weaker lower animals) is so habitual among women that, as Lombroso and Ferrero remark, in women deception is 'almost physiological' "; Mr. Ellis remarking, for his own part, that "it is inevitable, and results from the constitution of women, acting in the conditions under which they are generally placed." To the seven causes which these Italian authors assign for dissimulation, Mr. Ellis adds another, viz., compassion: "An exaggerated desire to avoid hurting or shocking others is one of the most frequent causes of minor dissimulations, and works more powerfully in women than in men." Finally, "the crimes of women are usually more marked by cruelty than those of men."

Mr. Ellis's method is purely scientific and not a little original, and is fortified by his well-known sociological researches. He candidly points out from time to time the slenderness of the basis of induction in a field where observation on a large scale is difficult and where much remains to be observed. He constantly refers for comparison to the infant on the one hand and the ape on the other, with a general collocation of woman with the infant, but by no means to her disparagement. "The young anthropoid is comparatively human in character, the adult ape is comparatively bestial in character"; and so "Man starts in life with a still greater portion of human or ultra-human endowment, and to a less extent falls from it in adult life, approaching more and more to the Ape." "We might say that the fœtal evolution which takes place sheltered from the world is in an abstractly upward direction, but that, after birth, all further development is merely a concrete adaptation to the environment, without regard to upward zoölogical movement." What woman illustrates, therefore, is not arrested development, but racial progress. "It is open to a man in a Pharisaic mood to thank God that his cranial type is far removed from the infantile. It is equally open to a woman in such a mood to be thankful that her cranial type does not approach the senile."

One can but admire the impartiality of Mr. Ellis's study, which is replete with curious physiological and psychological information, and which deserves to be read and reread by every thinking man and woman. The greater "affectability" of woman (*i. e.*, her readier responsiveness to stimuli psychic or physical) and the greater variational tendency in man—such are the two grand divisions he allows, for whatever they may be worth:

"We must regard genius as an organic congenital abnormality, . . . and in nearly every department it is, undeniably, of more frequent occurrence among men than among women. The statement of this fact has sometimes been regarded by women as a slur upon their sex; they have sought to explain it by lack of opportunity, education, etc. It does not appear that women have been equally anxious to find fallacies in the statement that idiocy is more common among men. Yet the two statements must be taken together. Genius is more common among men by virtue of the same general tendency by which idiocy is more common among men. The two facts are but two aspects of a larger zoölogical fact—the greater variability of the male."

Women will not complain of Mr. Ellis's conclusions:

"The hope of our future civilization lies in the development in equal freedom of both the masculine and feminine elements in life."

"A precise knowledge of the actual facts of the life of men and women forbids us to dogmatize rigidly concerning the respective spheres of men and women. . . . Only Nature can pronounce concerning the legitimacy of social modifications. The sentence may be sterility or death, but no other tribunal, no appeal to common sense, will serve instead."

"It is safer to trust to the conservatism of Nature than to the conservatism of Man. We are not at liberty to introduce any artificial sexual barrier into social concerns. The respective fitness of men and women for any kind of work or any kind of privilege can only be ascertained by actual open experiment; and as the conditions for such experiment are never twice the same, it can never be positively affirmed that anything has been settled once and for all. . . . An exaggerated anxiety lest natural law be overthrown is misplaced. The world is not so insecurely poised."

Primitive Music. By Richard Wallaschek. Longmans, Green & Co. Pp. 336.

A Study of Omaha Indian Music. By Alice C. Fletcher and John C. Fillmore. Cambridge: Peabody Museum of American Archæology and Ethnology.

UNTIL quite recently it has been the custom of musical historians to begin their volumes with Greek and Hindu legends regarding the invention of music by the gods. But it was inevitable that the scientific spirit of the age should at last reach this department too, and increasing attention is now being paid to the lines of investigation suggested by Darwin, Spencer, Engel, and others. It remained for Mr. Wallaschek to collect into one volume the principal facts scattered in books of travel regarding primitive music. How thoroughly he has covered the ground may be seen from the list of authorities referred to, covering twenty-three pages in small type. For this carefully compiled list alone scientific students of the origin of music and musical æsthetics would be under immense obligations to him, even if his own contributions were of less value than they are.

The first five chapters are given up to extracts from the works of travellers and anthropologists, describing the music and the instruments of primitive peoples on the five continents. It must be confessed that the more one reads this sort of evidence, the more sceptical one feels as to its value in most cases. We know what a small proportion of us are able to judge of and describe even our own music, and how violently most of us disapprove of any novelty or deviation from familiar lines in melodic intervals. Bearing this in mind, it is easy to see why travellers should so often disagree in their estimates of the music of primitive peoples, and why we must accept their statements with great caution. An expert's opinion would here be worth more than the reports of a hundred explorers; and even experts are liable to be led into error by preconceived theories and inattention to important details. It will be long before this chaos can be reduced to order, but in the meantime we must thank Mr. Wallaschek for bringing together the material and offering many valuable suggestions.

As regards the origin of music, he discards

both the impassioned-speech theory of Spencer and the bird-melody theory of Darwin, holding instead that the origin must be sought in a rhythmical impulse in man, arising from a general appetite for exercise of the organs. It has long been believed that rhythm is the first and oldest element of human music, and all the testimony collected by Mr. Wallaschek supports that belief. But while we may go with him so far, it is much less easy to accept his theory that harmony may be as old as melody. It may be true that Hottentots and New Zealanders have harmony in their music; but when we bear in mind how marvellously imitative some tribes are, we need to exercise extreme caution in accepting as original with them what they may have picked up from contact with Europeans. Mr. Wallaschek himself says, in speaking of the Hottentots: "It is worthy of note how quickly the natives learn songs and imitate those which they have heard from travellers. . . . Indian children, too, learn simple melodies in the Sunday-schools with the greatest ease."

Among other heterodoxies maintained by Mr. Wallaschek are the contention that the pentatonic is not the oldest of the scales; that there is no necessary connection between the minor mode and sadness, the major mode and cheerfulness; and that primitive vocal music does not always imply a poetic substratum, but often goes with meaningless words. While his argumentation is not always convincing, he shows at any rate that those questions are not as settled as they are usually supposed to be, and leaves the impression that probably many a literary battle will be fought over them in the future.

In the second work on our list, a brochure of 152 pages, we have, in part, the condition most desirable in investigations on primitive music, Prof. Fillmore being an expert in the theory of music, while Miss Fletcher, too, prepared herself for her part of the task by "ten years of constant study." She collected several hundred songs of the Omahas and other tribes of the same linguistic family, and submitted them to Prof. Fillmore for a scientific verdict. Here the conditions were obviously favorable for arriving at the truth, yet we fail to be convinced of the truth of Prof. Fillmore's inference, drawn from these songs, that the harmonic sense is universal, being shared by the Indians in a latent condition. No evidence is presented that the Indians used harmony of their own accord, but only that they accepted his harmonizations of their melodies, approving some in preference to others. His principal reliance was placed on Mr. Francis La Flesche, a (pure?) "Omaha Indian in the service of the Indian Bureau at Washington." This in itself is a suspicious circumstance, since Mr. La Flesche's harmonic sense may have been largely influenced by hearing our music, and the same is true of other Indians experimented upon, who have ceased to exist as a tribe and have long been under educational influences. While, therefore, it is interesting to hear that the Indians do take kindly to our harmonies (although we still have doubts on that point), we think that much more rigorous experiments would be needed to show that they have a "latent harmonic sense" except in the way in which a statue is latent in the marble. The Japanese have no harmony in their music, yet they soon learn to use and appreciate it; but we would not infer from this that our system of harmonies is "latent" in their melodies. The best authorities on Russian folk-song have protested against the harmonizing of Slavic folk-songs in our conventional way by which their exotic character is completely altered. How much more must this be true of Indian melodies. Prof. Fillmore has shown much skill and ingenuity in harmonizing ninety-two of these melodies (in the appendix), but it seems to us labor and ingenuity wasted. The result is more like Sunday-school songs than like wild Indian music.

Apart from this one point, there is a great deal to approve and admire in the joint work of Miss Fletcher and Prof. Fillmore. Of the interesting observations noted a few may be mentioned here: "Indian music seems to be out of tune to our ears conventionally trained to distinguish between the singing and the speaking tone of voice." "Baritone and mezzo-soprano are more common than the higher or lower classes of voices." Gradations of piano and forte are rarely attempted. "Words clearly enunciated in singing break the melody to the Indian ear and mar the music. They say of us that we 'talk a great deal as we sing.' Comparatively few Indian songs are supplied with words." This seems to us by far the strangest point observed by Miss Fletcher. Prof. Fillmore further notes that "major keys and major chords predominate in these songs, and that the Indian ear prefers a major chord, as a rule, at the close of a minor song." The rhythm is often so complicated that it is difficult to note it down. "I know of no greater rhythmic difficulties anywhere in our modern music than these Omahas have completely at command in their every-day music." The idea of vocal cultivation is entirely foreign to the Indian mind. Nor is beauty of tone to be thought of where the men sometimes sing loudly two hours at a time in the face of a strong wind and to the noise of big drum and rattles. On superficial acquaintance there seems to be more "sound and fury" than beauty in Indian music; but under proper circumstances Miss Fletcher was profoundly moved by it. Prof. Fillmore finally notes, as against the theory of Hanslick, that "these Omaha songs mean *feeling* to the Indian, in all cases."

Hans Sachs und seine Zeit. Von Rudolph Genée. Leipzig: J. J. Weber. 1894. Pp. 524.

Every one who is interested in German literature and in German music is looking forward to the great celebration of the four-hundredth anniversary of the birth of Hans Sachs, which is to be held next November in Nuremberg, and one of whose chief features will be the rendering of Wagner's "Meistersinger" by the foremost artists of Germany. The book before us is presented to the German people in the hope that it may arouse an interest in the great popular poet of a bygone age. The author does not pretend to make a contribution to the history of literature, but presents a picture of the culture of a well-defined and very important epoch, upon which Hans Sachs exerted a powerful influence. First he reproduces the Nuremberg of the sixteenth century, showing its relation to the Empire and the renown it had won for its art and industry, and especially for its group of mastersingers. Numerous illustrations of the buildings and fortifications and customs of the inhabitants, together with portraits of several eminent personages, are here introduced. Then begins the poet's biography proper, into which the author has woven some account of nearly everybody in whom Sachs was interested, and of nearly every event to which he turned his attention or about which he wrote. Any significant occurrence in Sachs's life is improved for a description of similar happenings in a general way. For example, when the author comes to speak of the poet's marriage, he describes briefly the bride, and then exhibits the marriage ceremony as conducted in the various classes of society, with the aid of some ten illustrations showing the dress worn by the brides and bridesmaids, according to their respective stations. In like manner, commenting on Sachs's poem, "Schembartlaufen," he shows that the occasion of it was the carnival of 1539, after which this particular amusement was abandoned. The origin of *Schembartlaufen*, its primitive political element, which had quite vanished at the time Sachs wrote; the way in which the contest was carried on, and the extravagant and fantastic costumes worn by the participants; the cause of its sudden end—are all passed in review. Sachs's numerous "Fastnachtspiele" lead to a good description of the rude stage and drama of his day.

An appendix contains several of the tunes to which the mastersongs were sung, the regulations of the Nuremberg Mastersingers, and several of Sachs's hitherto unpublished poems. The book, although popular in its nature, is prepared in a careful and scholarly manner, and cannot fail of its end. Tourists may well resort to it for information suitable for spectators of the coming celebration.

Reminiscences of the Great Mutiny of 1857-59, including the relief, siege, and capture of Lucknow, and the campaigns in Rohilcund and Oude. By William Forbes-Mitchell, late Sergeant Ninety-third Sutherland Highlanders. Macmillan & Co. 1893.

We shall never know half the truth about the struggle to throw off the British yoke in India, for we can hear only ex-parte testimony. In Bernard Quaritch's catalogue No. 114 there are 272 titles of works relating to India, but not one of them touching at all upon the Mutiny is by a native. Next to such a Hindu witness, though *proximus longo intervallo*, is a book from the British ranks. Hence we wish Sergt. Mitchell had written even sooner. He was under fire less than six months, his first fight being at Lucknow, November 14, 1857, and his last the next spring at Bareilly, May 6. A battle before the latter city, another before Cawnpore, with an assault on Lucknow for the rescue of beleaguered women and children, and the subsequent capture of the same place, were the chief military exploits.

It was ten days after the India outbreak before the sergeant's regiment started from Dover on May 20. They sailed for China, but at the Cape their destination was changed. Their arrival at Calcutta was on the equinoctial day, and in the rebel region not till a month later. After leaving the army the writer set up a rope factory in Calcutta, and appears to be an Anglo-Indian still. The charm of the volume, and it is great, lies in personal experiences and anecdotes. Though the author was no teetotaler, we learn from him that tea or coffee, in extreme cases reinforced by a pill of opium, proved ten times better as a tonic and restorative than extra grog. A round match-box of salt in his haversack turned tasteless forage for his mess into dainty dishes. Like the present writer in the same region, he felt on the self-same day the bitter change of fierce extremes. Many fell with sunstroke, and, the night after, he was too cold to sleep. One Bell of his regiment, the most powerful man in the British army, perished in an athletic *tour de force* through overrating his

strength. One incident may encourage the rain-makers to bombard the heavens again when rain is needed. A very large quantity of powder which had been stored in a deep well accidentally exploded, and an immense cloud of black smoke was sent up in a vertical column at least a thousand yards high. This accident happened in cooking the mid-day meal. "It was followed in the afternoon by a most terrific thunder-storm and heavy rain which nearly washed away the camp" (p. 261). Mr. Mitchell is inclined to criticise British arms and tactics. British sword-blades were inferior in pattern to those of natives, as was evident in many hand-to-hand-encounters. Near battlefields, flies became multitudinous and roosted in the roofs of tents. "When the roofs were swept down, five basketfuls, each holding an imperial bushel, were carried out of a single tent."

In reading these Reminiscences the war of 1857 rises before us as a religious crusade. The Ninety-third Highlanders Mr. Mitchell declares to have been a Highland parish, minister and elders complete, with a regular service of communion plate, etc. (p. 52). Like Cromwell's Ironsides, they went into battle with the high praises of God in their mouths and two-edged swords in their hands. Their best fighter cried out from the 116th Psalm, Scotch version,

> "I'll pay my vows now to the Lord
> Before his people all,"

with every rifle shot or bayonet thrust. His victims were twenty. Not one life was spared. The Secundrabagh, the scene of slaughter, is to-day kept a ruin and is so to remain as its own monument. In what other war of recent times have no prisoners been taken? Giving no quarter was bad enough, but we read in these pages of far worse atrocities on the part of the British. Many English women and children were massacred in a prison and their blood dried on its floor (but Mitchell shows that they were not dishonored). The supposed murderers, whenever caught, were made to crouch in that slaughter-house and with their mouths lick clean each a square foot of that blood-soaked floor before being taken to the gallows. No torture was so horrible as this for Moslems, who view tasting blood as the worst of pollutions. The General who for four months enforced this blood-licking died soon, but his son was killed by a son of one of the defiled Moslems thirty years after. He had treasured up the wrong. The story of the spy Jamie Green we pity the man who can read without tearful eyes. The night before his execution he was put in charge of Sergeant Mitchell, and saved by him from being smeared, as was customary, with pig's fat to break his caste. His antecedents were beyond comparison more noteworthy than the career of Major André, as his rank and culture were higher. In the colleges at Bareilly and Roorkee he stood first; but as a cadet of the East India Company he was sent to serve under a sergeant of no education, who irritated and disgusted him by arrogance, insolence, and selfishness. Resigning, he was taken by the sovereign of Nepaul as his secretary during a visit to England. But let every one read this whole chapter.

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The titles of the contributions are as follows:

Notes on Horace: Prof. Sidney G Ashmore, Union College.
Anaximander on the Prolongation of Infancy in Man. A Note on the History of the Theory of Evolution: Dr. N. M Butler, Columbia.
Of Two Passages in Euripides' Medea: Dr. M. L. Earle, Barnard.
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Literary Frauds among the Greeks: Prof. Alfred Gudeman, University of Pa.
Henotheism in the Rig-Veda: Prof. E. W. Hopkins, Bryn Mawr College
On Plato and the Attic Comedy: Prof. George B. Hussey, University of Neb.
Herodotus vii. 61, or Ancient Persian Armour: Prof. A. V. W. Jackson, Columbia.
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On Certain Parallelisms between the Ancient and the Modern Drama: Prof. Brander Matthews, Columbia.
Ovid's Use of Colour and Colour Terms: Dr. N. G. McRea, Columbia.
(1) A Bronze of Polyclitan Affinities in the Metropolitan Museum; (2) Geryon in Cyprus; (3) Hercules, Hydra, and Crab: Prof. A. C. Merriam, Columbia.
Onomatopoetic Words in Latin: Prof H. T. Peck, Columbia.
Notes on the Vedic Deity Pūshan: Prof. E. D. Perry, Columbia.
The So-called Medusa Ludovisi: Dr. J. Sachs, Collegiate Institute, N. Y.
Aristotle and the Arabs: Prof. Wm. M. Sloane, Princeton.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 14, 1894.

The Week.

THE defeat of the bill to repeal the ten per cent. tax on State bank-notes was the most conservative and wholesome vote taken in Congress since the repeal of the Sherman act. If it be true that Mr. Cleveland personally counselled members to vote against the repeal, on the ground that public opinion is not yet ripe for any radical change in our banking system, that is another of his titles to public confidence. The truth is that people are generally dissatisfied, as they ought to be, with the antiquated and hide-bound system of bank-note issues now existing. This system was designed for an entirely different state of things from that which now exists, and it did not even accomplish what it was designed for—the replenishment of the public treasury. It did accomplish a vast deal of good in a collateral way. It expelled chaos from our banking concerns, and that was a mighty gain. To open the door for the return of chaos simply because the system needs amendment, would be an enormous mistake. It would be like a respectable man going barefoot because one of his shoes pinched. What is wanted now is a scientific study of the whole question by a competent committee, who shall take evidence from all who are competent to give it, and sift it for general use. There is no objection to taking the evidence of Populists as well as of bankers on these terms and conditions. What everybody is striving for is the truth. We acknowledge that very few, if any, people who are busying themselves with this question have in view anything but the public good. We acknowledge, too, that many of those who differ from us more or less in this matter have brought important contributions to the solution of the controversy, and in this respect we especially commend the speeches of Mr. Warner of New York, Mr. Rayner of Maryland, and Mr. Harter of Ohio. Mr. Warner has brought together a large collection of facts, important to the issue in hand, which have not been previously compiled. His collection of the extemporized currency of clearing-houses and factories during the panic of last year is especially important, and these are all the better for being presented in facsimile.

Whatever danger there may be of this country's falling into the silver slough again is now distinctly traceable to the party that piques itself on being the party of sound money. Five Republican State conventions have lately been held, and they have vied with each other in the absurdity and peril of their financial planks. Maine and Ohio and Indiana go in furiously for the protection-free-silver combine, and Pennsylvania is for inflation any way to get it. The Kansas plank is a curiosity. It declares that "the interests of the producers of the country, its farmers and its workingmen, demand that the mints be opened to the coinage of silver, and that Congress should enact a law levying a tax on importations of foreign silver sufficient to fully protect the products of our own mines." This evidently means free coinage of silver without daring to say so explicitly. Characteristically enough, Senator Sherman comes out with a "hearty endorsement" of the Ohio platform, as "in line with the views I have always held on this question." Precisely so—views interchangeable with votes.

Senator Sherman prophesies smooth things about "an international agreement on this important subject," but no one knows better than he that such an agreement is farther off than ever. The wind-up of the latest German silver commission, given to the agrarians by Caprivi as a plaything to amuse themselves with for a while, shows how dim and far-off an event international bimetallism is. The greatest public service rendered by the commission, said the imperial secretary of the treasury in closing its sessions, would be in spreading the conviction that "serious difficulties attended the solution of the silver question." We did not need one risen from the dead, not even a resurrected silver commission, to tell us that. "The Government," added the sage secretary, "would examine all the proposals submitted to it, and would make those it regarded as feasible a basis for further consideration." Go on, gentlemen, getting up your little demonstrations of how to square the circle and invent perpetual motion, and when you succeed just let us know. Meanwhile, a great chance is offered the English bimetallists to show the stuff they are made of, by the *Investor's Review*, which undertakes to publish "the names of all holders of United States gold or sterling railroad bonds who are prepared to accept payment of their coupons in silver, just to encourage the rest."

Ex-Speaker Reed's recent deliverance on the silver question has proved a great surprise to the country. While the Republican leader in Congress has never been credited with thorough study of financial questions, he has made an excellent reputation. As Speaker in 1890 he successfully used his power to prevent the passage of a free-coinage bill in the House, and as the controller of the minority in the present House he resisted and defeated the disposition of such men as Burrows to have the Republicans keep silent and let the Democratic majority pass bad and positively dangerous measures. Most people, therefore, have set down Mr. Reed as sound on financial issues, and nobody supposed that he would "play second fiddle" to Henry Cabot Lodge by endorsing the latter's absurd plea for bringing England to terms on the silver question by bulldozing her on the tariff. The Republican editors have been so puzzled by his recent outgivings that many of them have kept entire silence, or contented themselves with saying that there must be some mistake in the report, as it was inconceivable that he should have uttered such nonsense. Some party journals, which are constrained to accept its authenticity, denounce the ex-Speaker's course in the roundest terms.

On the other hand, there are signs that Mr. Reed's scheme, or some similar piece of demagogy, may find a good deal of support among the politicians who run Republican conventions and make the party platforms. It is to the influence of the ex-Speaker's friends in the Ohio Republican State convention on June 6 that the "wobbling" outgiving on the silver question is ascribed. The McKinley men, who managed the convention and who want to keep the tariff issue to the front in the interest of their favorite for 1896, would not accept the full-fledged scheme for a tariff-silver "combine" which Reed advocates, but they had to yield so far as to adopt a resolution for "such a policy as will, *by discriminating legislation* or otherwise, most speedily restore silver to its rightful place as a money metal." As Congressman Burrows and the Detroit *Tribune*, which are influential in their State, endorse the Reed policy, it is expected that the Michigan Republicans will go at least as far as their brethren in Ohio. The growing demoralization of the party on financial issues is illustrated by the platforms of congressional as well as State conventions. Representative Grosvenor is perhaps the most prominent man in the Ohio delegation, and seems likely to succeed McKinley in the governorship. The first plank in the platform adopted when he was renominated the other day "demands the adoption of such legislation by Congress as will guarantee bimetallism and enlargement of the currency to at least forty dollars per capita." Grosvenor takes this plank from Quay, who had the Pennsylvania Republicans adopt it.

Quay got it from the Populist national platform of 1892, the only difference being that this called for $50, while he asks for only $40.

Maine and Minnesota are both in the northern tier of States, and both come into competition with Canada. But there is a marked difference in their attitude on the general issue of the tariff and the special question of Canadian competition. The Republican State Convention of Maine on June 6 condemned the Wilson tariff bill and the "vicious features" added to it in the bill now before the Senate, which "delivers nearly every industry of Maine into the hands of our nearest and most hostile rival, the Dominion of Canada." Governor Cleaves, who was renominated, in his speech of acceptance spoke particularly of free lumber, and asked how the men employed in Maine forests, on her rivers, and in her mills, cutting and preparing that product for market, can expect to find employment at good wages "when we invite a foreign province to furnish that product to us with their labor, and thereby paralyze our own lumbering interests." On the other hand, the Republican Governor of Minnesota, Knute Nelson, who will shortly be renominated, is a man who in the Fiftieth Congress voted for the Mills bill, and in his speech announcing his position declared his belief in free lumber and cheaper shelter—"cheaper because released from the heavy and unnecessary bondage of high-tariff taxes." The St. Paul *Pioneer Press* a few days ago declared that lumber ought to be free, in the interest of "cheap building material for all the vast prairie region of the West and Northwest," and ridiculed the idea that Canadian competition in wages could give us much trouble. Evidently the Republican stump speaker of Maine will not do for the longitude of Minnesota.

It is not surprising to learn that the rural delegates to the New York Constitutional Convention are objecting to the proposed separation of municipal from State and national elections. They claim that separate elections will not work well in the country districts in years in which only town officers are to be chosen, since the stimulus of State or national issues is necessary to "bring out the vote." That is to say, the cities must continue to be a sacrifice to politics in order that the rural vote may be got out. The cities have for years been made in the Legislature a sacrifice to the wishes and interests of the politicians from the country districts. These have legislated, not in accordance with the wishes of the inhabitants of the cities, but in accordance with what they thought would help party interests outside the cities. The cities have, in fact, been governed for years from Albany by legislators responsible only to constituencies who had no interest whatever in city affairs. The consequence has been that no matter how damaging may have been the results of such legislation, the legislators were safely removed from being called to account for it. To say that the cities must go on indefinitely in this way, is to say that "getting out the vote" in the rural districts is the all-important end of government, to accomplish which no sacrifice is too great. If that argument is to prevail in the Constitutional Convention, there can be no separate election amendment and no municipal home-rule amendment hoped for.

The fuss made in the newspapers about Croker's doings and goings would be inordinate but for the part he has played in city affairs since Tammany came into power, and the amount of knowledge of Tammany administration he possesses. But his knowledge is so great that we have marvelled much that the committee did not serve a subpœna on him before now. It seems to us that he is about the first witness they should have taken pains to secure. Nearly the whole Tammany income must have passed through his hands, and he must have been very familiar with its sources. The blackmail paid him, too, to secure immunity from hostile legislation, ought surely to have come within the purview of the investigation as explaining and illustrating the nature of the Tammany system. We say all this on the supposition, which we take to be well founded, that the committee can summon and examine any one they please who is presumed to be able to give information bearing on the matter in hand. His hasty departure for Europe, therefore, at the very opening of the racing season, does not surprise us. The wonder is that he did not go sooner. His object in being out of the country now, even if he should come back before the investigation is over, is doubtless to see what comes out before he submits himself to examination. This was undoubtedly his game when the Fassett committee was sitting. He came back when he knew what he should have to explain or deny. The exposures before the present committee may be such that his stay in Europe may be indefinitely prolonged, or they may be such that he can meet them by simple denial and forgetfulness. But the time of his departure—just as his horses are beginning to run—shows that he considers the situation serious.

The testimony thus far adduced in the police inquiry has agreed in fixing pretty definitely the rates of Tammany tariff on some forms of vice and other sources of revenue. Thus, the regular rate for a disorderly house is $500 "initiation fee" to the police captain, to be paid whenever a new captain is placed in charge of the district; $50 a month for the captain, usually collected through the ward detective, and something for the ward detective himself, the amount of which depends upon his personal ability as an extortionist. In addition to this tariff there is a contribution to the "Christmas present" of the captain, and sometimes something to the patrolman on the beat. Concert saloons, without licenses, pay $50 a month to the captain. The regular tariff for cafés with waitresses, selling liquor without licenses, runs from $15 to $25 a month. The regular pay to ward men from a liquor-saloon for the privilege of selling on Sunday is $5 a month. The regular pay to the inspector of the Excise Department, from saloons that have no licenses, is $5, as salve to his conscience for "overlooking" the fact. This is in addition to the $5 to the ward man for Sunday selling. The regular tariff for admission to the police force is $300. Tickets to Tammany "chowder parties," usually distributed among disorderly houses and liquor-saloons in batches of five, are $5 each, and it is "bad form" for any to be sent back.

We trust that the *Tribune* will give us some light about its custom of making a Christmas present of a basket of wine to Police Commissioner McClave. Was it sent regularly, and if so what was the motive? Had the sending of it anything to do with the election advertising, which is worth $20,000 a year to each newspaper securing it, which is bestowed by vote of the police commissioners, and which usually goes to the *Tribune?* It will be remembered that the late Elliott F. Shepard tried to get it on one occasion, and that he assured an advertising agent that, under proper pressure, it could be obtained for his religious newspaper, since the commissioners "are weak and will yield easily." The advertising agent, in the excess of his zeal, supposed the colonel to mean that he should offer the commissioners a rebate of $5,000. The *Tribune's* plan of a basket of wine—quality unknown—was much more economical than this, and seems to have been quite regularly successful. What was the quality of the wine? Was it the famous brand of American champagne which another Republican editor, late head of the Census Bureau, was wont to boom so industriously? Or was it Reich's famous *Nullum Vinum nisi Hungaricum?* We trust not, for the sake of McClave's stomach. The *Tribune* ought to explain this freely, for it is only a few days since it remarked of McClave that "unfortunately he does not enjoy a reputation in this community which entitles him to protest against a searching inquisition." Is the Hon. Whitelaw Reid in the habit of sending Christmas presents of wine to persons of doubtful reputation? We earnestly

trust that this community may be spared the shock of such a revelation.

The failure of the courts in Monroe County, Pa., to punish anybody for the lynching of a negro a few weeks ago is an ominous sign. The judge seems to have been in earnest, but the grand jury were in evident sympathy with the law-breakers and reported that they could find no one who was responsible. The explanation is found in the statement of a local newspaper, while proceedings in court were pending, that "there is apparently no fear on the part of the lynchers, and no one cares to see them punished." It is even suspected that there were lynchers or witnesses of the lynching on the grand jury itself. Worse still, this is not an isolated case of the condoning of such crimes at the North. Two negroes have been lynched by white mobs in Ohio within a year, but nobody has been punished or will be punished for the offence. New York, Michigan and Kansas are other Northern States in which lynch law has been invoked by whites against blacks in recent times, and the law of the land has proved helpless against the criminals. In all of these cases the difficulty has been the same—that public sentiment did not demand the punishment of the lynchers.

The full influence of last summer's panic on the immigration movement was not felt at once. The arrivals during the last six months of 1893 fell only a trifle short of the same period in 1892; and, although this comparison is somewhat impaired by the cholera scare of 1892, and the consequent check to immigration, the general results up to last year's close were not particularly striking. But, beginning with 1894, a very remarkable change in the volume of immigration developed. During the first three months of the year the immigrant arrivals decreased from 98,799 in 1892 and 71,640 in 1893 to only 38,278 in 1894. In April less than half as many immigrants arrived as in April, 1893, showing a still heavier rate of decrease. This decrease has been most heavy in the countries whence our most desirable immigrants are drawn. The movement from Russia during the year's four opening months was actually larger than last year's; Italy's immigration fell off barely one-half. But the movement from Great Britain and Ireland decreased from 33,624 in 1893 to 13,668 this year; the German immigration from 27,064 to 12,157; while that from Sweden and Norway fell from 15,932 to 5,218, a decrease of more than 66 per cent.

The disastrous smash of the New Zealand Mercantile Company, which finally drove Mr. Mundella out of the English cabinet, laid bare, at the judicial examination of the directors, an astonishing state of things. The board was made up, in good part at least, of honorable men of high standing, like Mr. Mundella himself, yet it had been, collectively, doing the most dishonorable things for years. It had borrowed on false pretences, issued new stock without notice to stockholders, and published misleading balance-sheets. All sorts of excuses were put forward by the men at whose doors these things were laid, all of whom protested that they were ignorant of the rascality and animated only by the most high-minded motives. Yet they could not deny their moral or legal responsibility for what had occurred. It was their business to direct, and if they did not or could not, they should have resigned from the board and not allowed their names to stand as a lure for the unwary. What the London *Times* said on the subject is of universal application:

"It is idle cant to pretend anxiety for the better distribution of wealth until we can devise means by which this preying upon people of small incomes can be put a stop to. It is idle to prate of thrift when the small investor has no guarantee whatever for the most ordinary honesty and sagacity in the conduct of his affairs. If we are to admit the mass of the nation to a share in the lucrative business now carried on by men of capital—and there is no other way to equalize wealth without sapping the foundations of industry—we must find some cure for this collective recklessness or dishonesty which is the curse of joint-stock enterprise."

The impossibility of imagining Mr. Gladstone in Lord Rosebery's place on Wednesday of last week is the best measure of the essential difference between the two men, and of their comparative fitness to lead the reforming party in English politics. Mr. Gladstone has had many popular ovations, but he never went out in the face of a Derby throng, to lead back his winning horse and be madly cheered by thousands of men in whom the coarser passions were running riot. The protests of the Nonconformists against a "horse-racing Premier" are already beginning to be heard, and more of them will be heard in the future. There is a Puritan strain in the great body of the Dissenters who have gone into the struggle for Welsh disestablishment and justice to Ireland, which may be narrow and prejudiced, but which is a factor not to be neglected. By Mr. Gladstone's leadership and by his austere public utterances and private life, these men were braced and nerved; but they will not long follow a man so much at ease in Zion as Lord Rosebery. He has already lost a good part of the moral enthusiasm which has so clearly marked and dignified the home-rule cause, and his rather defiant speech at Eton in defence of horse-racing will not win him back the support which he has alienated. If he maintains himself long in power, it will be by means of new political combinations and issues, and not by the backing of the chapel-going middle classes.

It needs but a single glance at the map of Central Africa to see that the Anglo-Belgian agreement signed at Brussels on May 12 is a direct blow to France. It is no secret that of late years the ambition of the directors of the French colonial policy has been to extend their Congo possessions to the Nile, and thus to acquire the rich province of the Bahr el-Ghazal, formerly governed by Lupton Bey. Up to this time, however, they have limited their action in this direction to repeated energetic protests against the extension of the Congo Free State north of the 4th degree of latitude, their exploring and treaty-making expeditions having been confined to the country between the Congo and the Niger valley. By the new treaty Great Britain leases to the Congo Free State all the territory lying between the watershed of the Congo and Nile basins and the Nile as far west as the twenty-fifth meridian, and to the tenth parallel in the north. This includes the province of the Bahr el-Ghazal and that part of the equatorial province of Emin Pasha which is to the west of the Nile. The greater portion of this latter province reverts to Great Britain on the death of King Leopold, but the lease of all that lies west of the thirtieth meridian, together with a strip of land twenty-five kilometres in breadth connecting this territory with the northern shore of Lake Albert, is "continued so long as the Congo territories, as an independent state or as a Belgian colony, remain under the sovereignty of his Majesty and his Majesty's successors." In return for this important concession the Free State leases to Great Britain its most northerly station on Lake Tanganyika and a strip of country twenty-five kilometres in breadth, connecting it with Lake Albert Edward, thus affording England direct communication between the Nile and her South African possessions.

This latest act in the partition of Africa is not a mere paper agreement, but rather a ratification of accomplished facts. An armed force of the Free State has already for some time been established at Lado on the Nile, the former seat of government of the equatorial province, while the English last winter took temporary possession of Wadelai, Emin's latest residence, thus reasserting, as the protector of Egypt, the claims of that country to the upper valley of the Nile. It is hard to predict with any confidence what will be the results of this action of the two powers. Certain provisions in the agreement would seem to indicate the prompt occupation by King Leopold of the ceded territory. But the French minister of foreign affairs says the lease is null and void, and that he is sending troops to resist its execution. This makes the situation look serious.

THE SUGAR SCHEDULE.

WHEN the Republican party bankrupted the Treasury with its pension largesses and turned the government over to the Democrats with a deficit of $75,000,000 the following year, the necessity was imposed on the Cleveland administration of finding revenue sufficient to close the gap. The most obvious way was to restore some portion of the sugar duties, which had been repealed in the vain hope of reconciling the country to the McKinley tariff. The House, however, decided that sugar should remain free, and that the bounty should be repealed. We think that this was a mistake, and that the Senate was entirely justified in reclaiming a portion of the revenue from sugar; and although we detest bounties, as containing the germ of all the socialism and Coxeyism now rampant, we should not have grudged some gratuity to the planters of cane and beet for a limited number of years, either by tariff or by bounty. The plain and honest course for the Senate was either to pass the bill as it came from the House, or to impose a revenue duty on raw sugar, which would have protected the planters in an incidental way.

The Senate did the latter, but it did not stop there. It proceeded to construct a monstrous scheme of bounty and protection to the one industry in the United States which stands least in need of government bounty and tariff coddling. It would have been quite as appropriate and edifying, and quite as good policy, to have enacted that the Standard Oil Trust (or Company, if that name is preferred) should receive thirty million dollars out of the public treasury during the next six months as a reward of merit, and one-eighth of a cent per gallon for all the oil they might sell in this country thereafter, as to do what is done for the Sugar Trust (or Company) in the Senate bill. The Sugar people have the same grip on the country that the Standard Oil people have had these many years. They control such a vast quantity of freight that they can dictate their own terms to the railroads. They control such an enormous amount of capital that they can dictate the price of raw sugar to the planters of the West Indies and of the East Indies.

These things we do not complain of, because they are not governmental contrivances. We allude to them only to show that anything like a bounty or protection to this monopoly is not only unnecessary and uncalled for, but reprehensible in the last degree. It is true that the Republicans gave to this monopoly raw sugar free of duty, and a protection of half a cent per pound plus a countervailing duty against the German export bounty. This was an enormous gratuity, but it was in keeping with the Republican idea of protection, which has been gradually enlarging its scope for thirty years. Originally, it meant protection only where it was clearly needed. Now it means protection to anybody who asks for it (except the quinine manufacturers). Formerly it meant protection sufficient to insure fair competition. Now it means prohibition, for no argument is more common, or has greater force, than the statistical tables showing that some small amount of an article (pig iron, for example) is still imported at Galveston, or Seattle, or some other place far distant from our furnaces. In every such case the Home Market Club is ready to burst with indignation if the duty is lowered by the smallest fraction. Its members really think that they have been attacked by highwaymen and robbed of their pocketbooks.

The Democratic party professes to be opposed to this conception of the duties of government. It holds that the function of government is simply to collect and disburse its revenues in an economical and just manner, and especially not to pamper greedy and overgrown monopolies. How have its principles been carried out in the sugar schedule? In a way to disrupt the party inevitably, and perhaps for all time. If the House consents to let the Sugar Trust collect the sugar duties for its own use by importing in anticipation of the tariff during six months or any other period, however small, the party is doomed. The Philadelphia *Ledger's* correspondent tells us that a prominent member of the Senate finance committee says:

> "We shall inform the [conference committee of the two houses] that it is not the bill many of us desire, but that it embraced the most radical reductions which could be obtained in our body with any chance of its passage. We shall give them the option of assisting to secure its enactment into law, or of defeating any measure of tariff reform, because no material modifications of the bill as amended by the Senate can pass that body. The conference committee will be given the alternative of the Senate bill or no bill; of a measure of reasonable reduction or a measure of no reduction; of a partial carrying out of the Democratic platform or a positive refusal to do anything to fulfil the promises of 1892. I have no doubt what the result will be."

Very well! If the Senate's idea of a "reasonable reduction" is a gratuity of this kind to the Sugar Trust, better that the whole bill were killed, and the Democratic party along with it, and that a party of free trade were founded on its ruins. Then the Sugar Trust can bestow its campaign contributions on one party exclusively, instead of alternating between the two. The *Tribune* of Sunday, under the heading "Sugar and the Bill of Sale," calls attention to the fact that Senator Quay voted in the interest of the Sugar Trust when that schedule was before the Senate, and that Senator Aldrich dodged the vote on one of the most important amendments. Probably the *Tribune* knows more than it cares to tell about the bill of sale. It was rumored at the close of the Presidential campaign of 1888 that the sugar people contributed $100,000 to Mr. Quay's committee, and that this contribution was made at the instance of Senator Aldrich. If this were true, it would account satisfactorily for a good many things, including the favorable position which the refining interest received in the McKinley tariff. It may be true, also, that the sugar people, being men of much sagacity and worldly wisdom, came to the conclusion, near the end of the campaign of 1892, that the Democratic party was the winning side that year, and hence pitched their dollars in that direction. Or it is just possible that they contributed to both parties in both campaigns, in order to be on the safe side. The only thing that can be counted on with certainty is, that on whichever side they placed their money, it was a pretty large sum—an amount corresponding in some degree to their tariff bonus, perhaps one or two per cent. of it.

If the sugar people can carry their measures through the House as they have carried them through the Senate, there is no reason why the bill of sale should not be repeated indefinitely. The whole proceeding is an apt illustration of the workings of the protective tariff, and it must not be supposed that the sugar people are the only ones who are "in it." They are in it a little deeper than others because the importations of sugar are so enormous. It is this which makes them more conspicuous than any other tariff beneficiaries. We can recall a time when the copper-producing interest drew all eyes to itself for the same reason, and there was a time as far back as 1857 when speculators in wool caused such a scandal in connection with the tariff that a special investigation of it was ordered by the House. It may be put down as an axiom in political economy that whenever a valuable thing, be it a commodity or a franchise, is exposed to competition, there will be bidders for it, and that it will bring something near its value. If this thing is the right to tax the public under the guise of a duty on sugar, starch, lead, cordage, copper, or what not, it will bring its price in the shape of campaign contributions, if not in more reprehensible disbursements, and the bill of sale is just as plain and business-like in the one case as in the other. It delivers a political party (or so much of it as may be necessary to insure the carrying out of the trade), as goods sold, packed, labelled, and paid for. Delivering the party means delivering the American people as a great goose to be plucked for at least four years. The next bill of sale may be made out by the opposite party, but the effect is the same.

THE CONNECTING LINK.

"PEOPLE should not forget," said Dr. Parkhurst a few days ago, "that the Police Department is only the maw of Tammany—that part of Tammany in

which the whole system of blackmail and corruption is digested." That is the view we have always maintained, but of which it has been difficult to obtain positive proof. Mr. Goff succeeded on Thursday in getting proof in abundance from the mouth of a Tammany witness who was as well qualified as almost any member of the organization, except, perhaps, "Jimmy" Martin or "Paddy" Divver, to tell the whole story. Ex-Senator, now Judge, Roesch has been one of the most favored of Mr. Croker's young "counsellors" for many years. He was the favorite Tammany member of the Assembly for four years, and its favorite member of the Senate for a like period. Since 1891 he has been the Tammany leader of his district, and last November he was elected, as the Tammany candidate, civil justice in the Fourth District.

He confesses on the witness-stand that he has been in the habit of taking retainers from the keepers of disorderly houses to protect them and their inmates against the efforts of the police to enforce the laws; that he has given the keeper of at least one such house a slip of paper with his name written upon it to be used with the police whenever her house was "in trouble"; that though he took a fee of $100 as a retainer from one woman, he never drew a paper for her, or appeared in court for her, or performed a legal act for her. He admits that as the Tammany leader of his district he is president of a Tammany club, of which his brother is treasurer, and among whose members there are many liquor-dealers and at least one keeper of a disorderly house; that he has interfered constantly in the Police Department for the purpose of getting friends either put upon the force or promoted or transferred; that he has known of policemen being employed to go about among liquor-saloons selling tickets at five dollars each for the "chowder parties" of his Tammany club; that he has to distinguish constantly between his services as counsel and his services as Tammany leader, but that he never makes a mistake in confounding the two or in taking a retainer in the latter capacity; that he frequently appears as counsel before the Excise Board to obtain licenses for liquor-saloons, receiving fees as high as $150 for the service, and usually succeeding.

We do not believe there is a particle of doubt in the minds of the committee who heard this extraordinary confession, or in the mind of any reader of it in the newspaper reports, that Roesch has been using his position as a leader of Tammany Hall to levy tribute upon the liquor-saloons and criminal resorts of the district for the benefit of Tammany Hall. Whenever the pressure of the police upon "a madame" has become intolerable, she has retained Roesch as "counsel" to interfere in her behalf, and he has interfered. "Do you mean to tell the committee that you didn't take her [a madame's] money to protect her from the police who were troubling her?" asked Senator O'Connor. "Yes," replied Roesch; "I took a fee to look out for her whenever she or her girls were arrested or annoyed." That is a noble occupation for a counsellor, soon to be a civil justice, to be engaged in, yet it seems to have been a regular business with Roesch. Equally regular appear to have been his services to liquor-dealers, to men who wished to get upon the police force, or who desired favors of any kind. The flow of money into the Tammany treasury from all these and kindred sources seems to have been steady and large. There is no evidence to show that the system does not continue undiminished since Roesch became a civil justice; on the contrary, there is no reason to doubt that this addition to his functions of leader and counsellor has greatly increased his capacity as a Tammany collector for the district.

In speaking of the civil justices, in one of his special messages of 1888, Mayor Hewitt said: "The civil justices, with some honorable exceptions, seem to have regarded it their duty to protect the citizen against the complaints of the police." Roesch was engaged in this business before he went upon the bench, and it is reasonable to suppose that he has not discontinued the practice since. He is a fair sample of the Tammany members of the district-court bench, which has been used by Tammany in the same way the police-justice bench has been used, as a refuge and stronghold for the most disreputable of its district leaders. "Pete" Mitchell was for years a civil justice, and many a great Tammany rascal has, during some portion of his career, held a seat upon it. The evil of such possession is too obvious to be dwelt upon. Like the Tammany possession of the police-court bench, it poisons justice at the fountain-head, and makes the machinery of justice among the most helpless of the population a protection for crime and a source of revenue from crime.

It should be remembered of Roesch that, as chairman of the judiciary committee of the Senate, he sat in judgment upon the finding of the Bar Association against Judge Maynard, examined the eminent lawyers who framed that finding, and vindicated Maynard from their accusations. At the very time he was performing this service for Tammany and Hill, he seems to have been collecting revenue from disorderly houses as their "counsel" against the police. Here is a picture of the moral quality of the average Tammany statesman which we commend to the thoughtful consideration of all people who are afraid lest the condemnation of Tammany be too "sweeping and indiscriminate." What other Tammany magnate, from Croker down to "Mike" Daly, would fare any better were he to be put on the stand and his every-day proceedings brought to the light?

THE POOLING QUESTION.

THE Chamber of Commerce, in advocating the passage of a law permitting competing railways to divide their tonnage or earnings among themselves in some agreed proportion, is in line with public opinion at the East. The argument for pooling is quite simple. Fierce rivalry has reduced the rates actually charged to shippers to such low figures that, in connection with other causes, one-quarter of our railway mileage is now in the hands of receivers, and a large proportion of the remainder see insolvency staring them in the face. Not only is the capital invested in railways entitled to a return as a matter of economic right, but as a matter of economic law it must receive such profit if we are to have further industrial progress. The grave consequences to the United States which would ensue upon a universal failure of our transportation companies are clearly apparent to thinking men. The charges of our railways are on the average much lower than those of Europe, and cannot be raised extortionately even if the companies combined for that purpose, because our lake, river, and canal systems forbid it. Moreover, commercial conditions throughout the country are set to low freight rates, so that the carriers would lose their traffic if tariffs were much advanced. Fairness to the railways and prosperity to our industries demand that at least the carriers be allowed to collect their earnings according to their present published schedules without further secret reductions.

This, in brief, is the argument in favor of some form of railway pooling, and to those familiar with the business situation it appeals with great force. The Interstate Commission concedes the point, while Mr. Patterson of the House committee, in presenting its pooling bill, made an extended report which certainly put the necessity for some such measure in a strong light. Perhaps the most encouraging sign of all was the passage of a resolution, favoring railway pooling under safeguards, at the convention of State railroad commissioners held in Washington last month. This resolution was adopted by a vote of 15 to 8 after a strong paper by State Commissioner Dey of Iowa and a thoughtful address by Interstate-Commissioner Knapp, both in favor of the proposition.

Clearly enough, the claims of the railways to reasonable rates from their standpoint (the claims of the public to like reasonable tariffs being long ago admitted) are making headway throughout the Union. Yet, in spite of this growing feeling in favor of a repeal of the section

of the act to regulate commerce which forbids pooling, there is some doubt whether Congress will soon enact such a law. Some of our States are not influenced by economic arguments. For years they have reasoned that the railways which carried the produce of their citizens were owned in the East or in Europe, and hence any falling off in profits did not concern them. Their object was attained if farmers and traders could get transportation still cheaper either by legislative compulsion or through rate-cutting. If the carrying company was forced into bankruptcy, it was no concern of the Granger commonwealth. The prevalence of this reasoning is shown even now by the vote in the convention just spoken of, where the commissioners from Georgia, Mississippi, Virginia, Illinois, Minnesota, and Montana voted against pooling in any form.

It is questionable whether Congressmen from these and similar States will be willing to grant pooling just yet. The secretary of transportation for Nebraska, in the last *Independent*, admits the feeling of hostility to railroads in his State, though he explains its origin and hopes for its modification. Until the people of these States are led to change their opinions, partly through argument, but largely through the lessons of experience, it would not be wise to count upon the easy enactment of a pooling law. When the service is reduced in those States by the efforts of the carrying companies to save expenses; when the farmer's son is discharged by the railway; when the reduction in the amount of money paid out monthly in wages is such as to cripple the sales and the income of the grocer; then, after the first outburst of indignation, we may look for a revival of the maxim that the community cannot be permanently prosperous if the railway is not. But it is doubtful whether we may expect such a revulsion in Granger and Southern opinion until the object-lesson has been thoroughly put before them and its meaning thoroughly learned. The Rock Island Railway, in its reports, prints a statement of the exact sums paid yearly in salaries and wages. From this table it may be seen that payments to employees form 55 per cent. of all that company's expenditures of every description. If we deduct items of expenses for cost of coal, taxes, car mileage, injuries to persons, and losses to property, and the like which involve no wage payments directly, the pay-rolls comprise 75 per cent. of the road's working cost. The real proportion of labor is greater, as in locomotive fuel for example, where the miner's wages constitute much the larger part of the cost; so with rails, ties, and all supplies used by the company—payments to labor are the principal items of the cost.

The large sum paid directly as wages, amounting to over $8,000,000 on the Rock Island, is spent by the employees in the territory through which the road runs. How much the community is dependent upon these pay-rolls for trade support will not be realized until the flow of money is of necessity checked or stopped. When this argument to the pocket-book is considered at the West and South sufficiently to allow of a change in public sentiment, we may expect that Congress will pass some sort of pooling bill. But whether this public opinion is now developed enough to approve of such an act, is an open question. In time something of the kind will get upon our statute books, as in Europe, where pooling is not forbidden, for it is right as a matter of equity and as a matter of prosperity also to all concerned in our great industry, railway transportation.

PRESIDENT ELIOT.

President Eliot of Harvard completed a few days ago the twenty-fifth year of his administration of the college. The entire faculty united, on the anniversary, in a memorandum setting forth their keen appreciation of all that he had done and all that he had been, to the great institution on whose history he has made such an important impression. It is difficult for those who know Harvard only in its present condition to estimate the work he has done for it. One has to go back to 1869, when the college was looking about for a candidate to fill the vacancy left by President Hill's resignation, to get the full measure of his services. There were two traditions about the presidency which were still strong in Cambridge at that period: one was that the president of Harvard College should be either a clergyman or a man of a clerical turn of mind. The other was that he should be an elderly person. It was not without difficulty, and much searching of the heart, that these were both set aside in President Eliot's favor. Not only was he not a clergyman, but he was a man of the modern scientific school, and he was not yet forty years old.

He took his place, too, when the old régime in American colleges had clearly reached its last limits. The war was over, the wealth and the scientific and literary curiosity of the country, and especially of the youth of the country, had increased by leaps and bounds. It was becoming quite clear that a curriculum and methods of instruction designed in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, not only "to advance learning," but to guard the churches from an "illiterate ministry," was unfit for the latter half of the nineteenth; but who was to make the change? Who was to modernize and secularize the college—to convert it, in short, into a university? The instructors of established reputation were unequal to any such work. Was it possible to get it intrusted to a young and comparatively unknown man?

When Mr. Eliot took hold of it, he had nearly everything to change—the modes of instruction, the kind of instructors, the nature of the curriculum, besides greatly increasing the ground covered by his faculty; and to do all this he had to raise immense sums of money. He had to encounter, too, the bitter prejudices of a very conservative community, to whom the ancient ways were a sacred inheritance, and especially the prejudices of fathers who could not see that what was good enough for them was not good enough for their sons. And he was not a man of winning ways; he did not find it easy to put attractive drapery around his plans. In an unusual degree "his armor was his honest thought." Everything he conceived or proposed had to win on its merits, and to win under criticism of varying kinds and from different quarters, but win it did. In recalling the trials, struggles, and experiments of those early years, it is but just to a memory dear to Harvard, to say that he had in the late E. W. Gurney a much-trusted and most valuable counsellor, who might himself have done Mr. Eliot's work, had he been called to his place and had he possessed the splendid courage which has always been one of the president's most marked traits.

At all events, the work has been done. Harvard has been converted from a sort of high school devoted largely to preparing men for the ministry into a modern university in which almost everything teachable is taught, and in which the real student is allowed to pick and choose among the now so numerous sources of human knowledge. The proof of President Eliot's success is to be found in the fact that his example has been followed in other colleges—in some closely, in others at a greater distance. Yale, Columbia, and Princeton have all been reorganized in a greater or less degree on the lines he laid down at Harvard. The suggestion of the Johns Hopkins régime undoubtedly came, in part at least, from Harvard, and the great institution which is springing up in Chicago will owe its character and aims not a little to the success of the Cambridge experiment. In fact, no history of American university education will ever be written in which Mr. Eliot will not figure as its real founder, as the man to whom it owed its renaissance after two centuries of mediæval bondage.

That there have been faults and mistakes in this process, probably President Eliot himself would be the last to deny. In the work of university reform, as in other things, men must

have the defects of their qualities. A man who more distinctly represented scholarship or thought than President Eliot, could never have thrown open the doors of the college both to scholarship and to thought so widely as he. The value of his work to both one and the other will probably be better known when he is gone than now. For nothing is more certain than that the man who was to convert American colleges into great seats of learning in the higher sense of the term, would have to be a man of action rather than of thought, to shine as an administrator more than as a scholar. We venture to predict that the day is not far distant when these great establishments will have two heads instead of one; when the man who manages its business and watches over its discipline will not have to represent to the world its tastes, its faculties, or its ideas, and the one who stands for its intellectual range and characteristics, will not have to think of its ways and means. This division of labor will undoubtedly be the next great collegiate change. As yet the president has to occupy himself only too much with the adjustment of the machinery to the altered conditions of American life, and with the management of the great wealth which American liberality is pouring into his lap.

WILLIAM DWIGHT WHITNEY.

THE last half-century has witnessed thoroughgoing revolutions in politics, in religion, and in science; and in no department of science is the revolution more thorough than in philology. First among the names of Americans who have helped to bring about this result is William Dwight Whitney. He is fallen on sleep. How has he served his generation?

His marvellous scientific productivity extended over a period of forty-five years; it began with an essay 'On the grammatical structure of the Sanskrit,' translated and abridged from Von Bohlen, and published in the *Bibliotheca Sacra* for 1849. He was then but a little over twenty-two years old. Long and rich in achievement as this period is, his death is nevertheless untimely and premature, for his splendid intellect was still unimpaired by age. He was born in a place that has produced a remarkable number of distinguished men, in Northampton, Mass., on the 9th of February, 1827, the son of Josiah Dwight and Sarah (Williston) Whitney. In 1842 he entered the sophomore class of Williams College, and was graduated there in 1845. Doubtless the woods and hills of that picturesque region gave an additional charm to the practical studies in natural history—especially ornithology—to which he devoted much of his time while in college, and which were a valuable resource and delight to him for many years afterward. Of the four years succeeding his graduation, more than three were spent in the Northampton Bank; and in the summer of 1849, he went to Lake Superior as an assistant in the United States Geological Survey, the botany and ornithology and the keeping of the accounts being intrusted to him. On his return in the autumn, he went to Yale College for a year, to continue under Prof. Salisbury the study of Sanskrit which he had begun the year before.

In the autumn of 1850 he sailed for Germany, where he studied chiefly under Prof. Weber of Berlin and Prof. Roth of Tübingen. And now without delay he made the real beginning of a brilliant scientific career by copying and collating the European manuscripts of the 'Atharva-Veda,' one of the most important and ancient of the sacred books of India, and of which he and Prof. Roth were to be joint editors. In the summer of 1853 he returned home, having already, while still in Germany, accepted a call to the chair of Sanskrit at Yale. Its duties he did not assume until 1854; but within little more than two years his name and reputation as a scholar were established by the issue of the *editio princeps* of the 'Atharva-Veda.' And he still lacked some months of thirty!

Meantime, however, it became necessary for him to eke out the wholly inadequate salary of his professorship by giving instruction in modern languages. This necessity, much as it may be regretted by the friends of his chosen science, was not without resultant public benefit in that it was the occasion of his preparing a series of text-books, especially for the study of German, on a plan which renders them preëminently well suited for maturer minds. Such time-consuming labor might well have proved an all too serious handicap for smaller men, but not so for Whitney. In quick succession came now some of his most important works. His annotated translation of the 'Sūrya-siddhānta' appeared in 1860; and this, with his other astronomical papers, forms the most notable contribution of the century to Occidental knowledge of Hindu astronomy. The Prātiçākhya of the 'Atharva-Veda,' which he edited, with translation and elaborate notes, in 1862, is a phonetico-grammatical treatise upon the text of that Veda, and is of fundamental significance for the establishment of that text. The like is true of the Tāittirīya-Prātiçākhya, which he issued in a similar manner in 1871. We know not which to wonder at the more—whether at the marvellous knowledge of details of these learned and labored Hindus, or at the masterly way in which their Occidental expositor has grasped what they knew and has recast and presented it in a form most lucid and facile. In 1881 a complete Index Verborum to the 'Atharva-Veda' was issued, and an annotated translation of this Veda is now in manuscript, nearly ready for the press.

In 1879 came his 'Sanskrit grammar,' published in English and in German at Leipzig, to which, in 1885, was added a voluminous supplement entitled 'Roots, verb-forms, and primary derivatives of the Sanskrit language.' Of his strictly technical works, these are the crowning achievements; and for them—considering, or even not considering, the status of Sanskrit philology—it would be extremely hard to find a parallel. They are based not on the dicta of predecessors, but upon actual observation of the facts of the language, which then are subjected to masterly classification and rigorously scientific induction. The author was one of the strict Indianists rather than one of the professed comparative grammarians; but these two works have the merit of often setting the problems for the comparative grammarians and of putting into their hands a good part of the materials for solution.

While steadily carrying on the extensive technical investigations just noticed, Whitney found time to write frequent and valuable minor essays. These treat of Hindu astronomy, of phonetics, of comparative grammar and mythology, of Oriental religions and literatures, and of the origin and nature of language. His Smithsonian and Lowell lectures, rewritten and expanded, were published in 1867 under the title 'Language and the study of language.' This volume covers the ground of general linguistic science, and also treats the most difficult questions of linguistic speculation. Taking it by and large, it is still the best general work of its kind. Similar topics, but in more compendious form, are treated in his 'Life and growth of language,' which appeared in 1875 and was soon translated into German, French, Italian, Netherlandish, and Swedish. Of the miscellaneous papers scattered through the *North American Review*, the *Nation*, and elsewhere, a dozen or more were put forth in 1873 as 'Oriental and linguistic studies,' and a second series of them in the year following. Some of them are of permanent interest and value; and one of them, on 'The Vedic doctrine of a future life,' deserves to be ranked as a veritable classic.

But this was not all. In 1842 the American Oriental Society had been founded in Boston by John Pickering. On the death of its eminent founder its centre of gravity naturally shifted to the home of Salisbury, of Woolsey, and of Hadley at New Haven. Whitney was elected a member in May, 1850, less than eight years after the first meeting, and his name occurs in the Society's Journal for the first time in the roll of members at the end of the second volume. For eighteen years (1855–'73) he took the care of its library, and for twenty-seven years he served as its corresponding secretary—namely, from 1857 to 1884, when he was chosen its president—so that his record shows an aggregate of fifty-one years of official service. His first contribution is a Vedic article in the third volume. Of the ten volumes, iii.–xii., of its Journal proper, much more than one-third of the contents is from his hand; or, if we count only the seven volumes, vi.–xii., more than one-half; all this apart from his multifarious papers in its Proceedings. One of his Harvard friends once said: "It always seemed to me pathetic and [for us] discreditable, when Prof. Whitney came to Boston year after year, like a judge, to 'hold' the Oriental Society, and went home again after he had read what he brought in his own pocket, . . . [and had] said about everything that was worth saying." He lived to see all that changed, and to hear an account of the Society's recent New York meeting, at which sixty-five members were present and forty-odd papers were offered. He was the first president of the American Philological Association, formed in 1869, and one of the most frequent contributors to its Transactions and Proceedings.

To him, too, belongs the distinguished honor of being one of the four "faithful collaborators" who—next to the authors, Böhtlingk and Roth—contributed most to the great seven-volumed Sanskrit-German lexicon published (1852–'75) by the Imperial Academy of Russia. In view of the power thus fully proved and of the distinction thus fairly won, it was inevitable that he should be sought as editor-in-chief for what is—barring Murray's, whose purpose and plan are wholly different—the greatest lexicographical undertaking ever adventured by men of English speech, 'The Century Dictionary.' To settle the principles by which the staff of editorial assistants and contributors was to be guided was a work demanding great breadth of learning and largeness of view—as may indeed be inferred from the preface. And under his superintendence, accordingly, was

executed the work, destined, no doubt, to become a potent factor in popular enlightenment.

Such achievements, of course, secured the applause of the judicious. Not to mention honorary degrees, the Asiatic Society of Bengal, the Royal Asiatic of Great Britain and Ireland, the German Oriental, the Philological of London, and other societies made Whitney an honorary member; and, still among others, the Academy of Berlin, of St. Petersburg, and of Rome (the Lincei), and the Institute of France, their member or correspondent. His most conspicuous honor of this kind was his election as Foreign Knight of the Prussian Order "pour le mérite" for Science and Arts, to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Thomas Carlyle.

He was a living example of what genuine scholarship is. He had some of the most distinctive traits of the best German scholars—extreme thoroughness, minute accuracy, mastery of his material; but the trees never hindered him from seeing the wood, and for him the broader aspects of a question were never obscured by the details. Trained in the best schools of his day, he was no slavish imitator of any model, however good. And his originality showed itself not only in the plan and execution of his own works, but also in his pointing out to others—in Baconian fashion—the methods most likely to be fruitful of definitive results. The admirable qualities of his mind are seen perhaps nowhere to better advantage than in his 'Language and the study of language.' To repeat the fitting words of Georg Curtius, "this work is distinguished for its sobriety and rigorousness (*nüchterne Strenge*)." In striking contrast with the speculations of writers whose toes rarely seem to touch the ground of every-day fact and experience, Mr. Whitney's argumentations show the influence of an all-pervading common sense. And to this are added simplicity and directness, with strictness of logic and clearness of thought; sometimes also, perhaps, too great concision—but one must indeed think, to read him. Said a highly esteemed scholar recently: "I never saw him but once or twice, but I feel that he has been one of my best and greatest teachers." And what shall be said by those who came directly within his personal influence? They can tell of his encouragement of the young, his kindly helpfulness to the inexperienced, his patience with the slow, and of his endless painstaking with papers, perhaps crude and bristling with Teutonisms, of some raw or bumptious débutant just home from his triennium in Germany. And they can bear witness to his calm dignity as presiding officer, to his freedom from all self-seeking in his relations with his fellow-scholars, and to his genuine modesty of bearing, of speech, and of soul.

We have thus seen Prof. Whitney actively engaged in the three ways mentioned in these columns by the necrologist of Asa Gray, namely, in the elaboration of strictly technical works, in the preparation of educational treatises, and in the popular exposition of scientific questions. The last two methods of public service are direct and immediate, and to be gainsaid of none; yet even here the less immediate results are doubtless the ones by which he would have set most store. As for the first, some may incline to think the value of an edition of the Vedas or of a Sanskrit grammar—to say nothing of a Prātiçākhya—extremely remote; they certainly won for him neither money nor popular applause; and yet, again, such are the very works in which we cannot doubt he took the deepest satisfaction. He realized their fundamental character, knew that they were to play their part in unlocking the treasures of Indian antiquity, and knew that that antiquity has its great lessons for us moderns; further, that the history of the languages of India, as it has indeed already modified, is also yet to modify, and that profoundly, the whole teaching of classical and Germanic philology, both in method and in content, and that the history of the evolution of religions in India is destined to exert a powerful influence for good upon the development of religious thought and life among us and our children. He labored, and other men shall enter into his labors. But it is this "faith, the assurance of things hoped for," which is one of the most vital attributes of the true scholar.

Some eight or nine years ago, a most serious and alarming disorder of the heart manifested itself in Prof. Whitney. His undaunted courage in the face of death's grim messenger was fairly heroic—a fit pendant to the fearlessness of his always inexorable warfare against sham and pretence. Adhering strictly to the regimen prescribed by his medical advisers, he continued to labor on, heaping, as it were, the already brimming measure of his life-work. The end came on June 7 at New Haven. His life is a noble inspiration to his fellow-students, and the example that he set will not be forgotten as long as true scholarship exists in America. But his bereaved colleagues will say, as did he upon the death of James Hadley, "My master, my master, the chariot of Israel, and the horsemen thereof!"

THE PARIS SALONS.

PARIS, May 22, 1894.

IT is unfortunate, but inevitable, that in large exhibitions only work conspicuous for rare merit, or eccentricity, or pretension has a chance to be seen and studied. Each year this fact is more strongly emphasized by the visit to the Paris Salons. No doubt in each there are canvases likely to prove delightful in a smaller collection or hanging on one's own walls, which, in so motley a gathering, are completely overshadowed. It is usually the huge machine, painted down to the standard of juries and the gaping crowd, that carries the day; or else, the lurid tragedy and strident anecdote; or, it may be, the delirious striving after individuality of technique or novelty of sensation.

The evil is more apparent at the Champs-Élysées, where the big picture prevails. This spring, its manufacturers seem to have fallen lower than ever into the abyss of puerile or outrageous commonplace. Sentiment has betrayed M. Detaille into reporting in paint a Paris fire in order that he may, not suggest a dramatic harmony in the play of flames and light, but show a row of frock-coated gentlemen taking off their top hats to the "Victims of Duty"; mysticism has misled M. Rochegrosse into a *plein-air* problem, in which the meaning of his "Chevalier aux Fleurs" is less puzzling than his ignoring of all values. Lamartine sails comfortably heavenward on the substantial wings of a Muse of M. Édouard's devising; brutal sensuality claims for its own the overblown women and drunken rakes of M. Roybet's naturalistic fancy; while the whole Salon seems typified in M. Bonnat's ingenuous conception of "The Triumph of Art," trampling, as if on the field of battle, over the prostrate foe, and riding aloft upon its Pegasus into an expanse of indigo which the advertisements of Reckitt's blue would find it hard to excel in crudeness.

It is of pictures such as these, clamoring—and not in vain—for notoriety, that necessarily one carries away the strongest impressions. And yet, even on walls so disfigured, space has been found for good work, though in no great excess. Once more M. Pointelin, in his fine poetic landscapes, delights; once more M. Français and M. Harpignies, in their conventional composition and restraint, are not without charm; once more, M. Nozal, M. Clary, and M. Gosselin show themselves sincere students of nature, observant and careful. But again this year, as last, it is to the foreigner that the Champs-Élysées owes chief distinction. Not a portrait can compare, in elegance and individuality, with Mr. Orchardson's of Sir Walter Gilbey, already seen in London; not one of the colossal designs reveals in the painter so just a sense of decorative requirements as Mr. Frank Brangwyn's "Gold, Frankincense, and Myrrh"; not one of the many followers of Bastien has borrowed from him with so much intelligence as Mr. Clausen. It is Mr. Walter MacEwen, however, who has achieved the most notable success with his picture of "Une Madeleine": in the figure of the woman kneeling at evening in a dimly lighted church, there is the scholarly drawing to which he has accustomed us in his work; but in the rich harmony made of the trailing white draperies, the deep mysterious shadows, and the soft glare of lights before a distant altar, there is the true painter's poetry and a feeling for decoration, which hitherto have not been characteristic of his canvases. He has never done anything better. Among the other American exhibitors are Mr. Bisbing, his studies of cattle in the open air refined and well-observed; Mr. Walter Gay, cigarette-makers at work, this time giving him the motive for one of his quiet, low-toned interiors; Mr. Bridgman, whose large decorative arrangement does not tell in its present surroundings; Mr. Boggs; and Mr. Mosler and Mr. Ridgway Knight, who are tending unduly toward the commonplace in sentiment. Of the men considered leaders in the old Salons, of Bouguereau and Henner, Benjamin Constant and Lefevre, perhaps the less said the better. Of late years little has been expected of them, nor have they disappointed expectations.

At the Champ-de-Mars, of course, matters are mended, but not so much as might be hoped. Here it is disappointing to find a gradual falling away from the high standard which the new Society, in its secession, at first established. With M. Carolus-Duran, who seems to be growing indifferent with time, M. Frappa, who turns out the French equivalent to the English Christmas chromo, and M. Friant, well to the fore in the society itself, it is not surprising that by degrees contributions of no importance are accepted in greater numbers. This spring, bad or indifferent canvases are in a large majority. Besides, two or three of the masters for whom one looks with special interest, are now absent. M. Carrière and M. Raffaëlli send nothing but a few lithographs and etchings which were shown some months ago in one of the Grafton Gallery's exhibitions. M. Boldini sends even less, for he is entirely unrepresented. On the other hand, one can but wish that M. Besnard had exercised a like restraint, for, in a brilliant crimson horse and an equally impossible orange lady, he has overstepped the limits of artistic reticence and dignity. Nor is M. Puvís de Chavannes much more satisfactory, though he may offend less aggressively. His decorations for the great stairway at the Hôtel de Ville please no more now that they are carried out in color than they did in the cartoon exhibited last spring.

The blues and mauves of the scheme he has adopted are cold and unpleasant, ill calculated to redeem the commonplaceness of the composition, which I noted a twelvemonth since. It is doubly to be regretted that M. de Chavannes has failed where so often, hitherto, he has succeeded, for the Hôtel de Ville has need of many fine designs upon its walls to compensate for the one ceiling which is to be covered by M. Bonnat's "Triumph of Art." But, at least, M. de Chavannes fails from over-refinement, not from vulgar boisterousness.

I have pointed out the most prominent defects of the exhibition. Fortunately, it has many and delightful merits, as well. It has, to begin with, the portraits and marines of Mr. Whistler. Of the latter I wrote when, in the winter, they were hung at the Grafton Gallery in London. Seen a second time, they continue to impress by the knowledge they reveal, by their simplicity of rendering, by their mastery of the secret of fine color. But even more impressive is the portrait of "Comte Robert de Montesquiou-Fézensac," designed somewhat after the manner of the Sarasate, but far stronger in the expression of character, more lovely in the harmony of "Black and Silver." It is simplicity itself: the tall, slight figure stands facing you, one gloved hand resting on a cane, the opposite arm holding a gray-lined coat; but Mr. Whistler shows, as he has shown before in his Carlyle, that, for the artist, subject is nothing, treatment everything—the much-despised modern coat and trousers answering his purpose as excellently as all the treasures of Wardour Street. Mr. Alfred Stevens is another painter whose canvases are always distinguished. He also understands the folly of overloading his impressions of the sea with useless detail, and, therefore, his marines also charm by their breadth of handling and subtlety of color, while perhaps there is no modern who is so legitimately heir to the traditions of Terburg, as is proved beyond a doubt by a wonderful little interior serving as background to a lady in no less wonderful yellow satin gown falling in the rich folds Terburg loved. M. Aman-Jean is still another exhibitor who has not condescended to disappoint by undue eccentricity or desire to cater to a passing fad. His phase of Rosicrucianism, which first made him known, has not undermined his artistic sense, to which, and not to occult sympathies and influences, he owes his love of fine, stirring harmonies of color and stately decorative themes. It is in his portraits he now excels, and, of the five hung, there is not one that does not explain his desire to give not a mere painted photograph of his sitter, but a graceful and harmonious decoration. He may have a bias towards sentiment, as his rendering of M. Dampt, the sculptor, would suggest, but to it he never yet has sacrificed the more artistic qualities.

It is not only in the case of M. Aman-Jean that the decline of modern mysticism begins to be apparent. Rosicrucianism, as a fashion, has been exhausted, and its old supporters either, with him, have given it up altogether, or else have come to the end of their resources with M. Carlos Schwabe, who has rung the changes on the old passion flower and peacock feather, and resurrected Angélique and Félicien of the "Rêve" until they threaten to grow monotonous. Primitiveness, too, seems a game played out, though M. Point masquerades as Botticelli with results decidedly amusing. And the Scriptures have quite lost their fascination, though M. Béraud cannot refrain from adding a melodramatic Way of the Cross to his melodramatic Crucifixion, though M. Carolus-Duran is seeking on Calvary the sensation his portraits have long ceased to yield. Mysticism and its kindred fads may have marked the reaction from the naturalism of Bastien-Lepage and his school. But in their turn mystical excesses, apparently, are leading artists back to true sobriety of aims and simplicity of means. It is for this reason, probably, that the year's best work is found among the portraits. Mr. J. W. Alexander again scores a decided triumph in the several he contributes, even if one cannot help wishing that either he would not use such very coarse-grained canvas, or else that he would master its difficulties a little better; as it is, the paint sinks in fast and leaves too often a messed-up-looking surface, thin and dry in quality. However, while he is as graceful and elegant as ever in his portraits of women, he now shows in his M. Thaulow and M. Pranishnikoff that he can paint men of no great charm of personality every whit as successfully. If he will but see to his canvas, his future triumph will be still more complete. M. Gandara, exhibiting but one portrait, of a tall woman in white satin Empire gown, paints with too much character and grace to be overlooked. Mr. Sargent's daring, clever "Mrs. Hammersly" is here. Mr. Guthrie and Mr. Lavery make good the Glasgow School's artistic claims. And Mr. Rolshoven has taken no small step in advance in his three portraits of women, which may be lacking in refinement, perhaps, but have the strength of straightforwardness and sincerity.

For the rest, I should note the marines of Mr. Alexander Harrison and M. Lepère, the landscapes of M. Cazin (who, however, is not at his very best), M. Thaulow, and Mr. Conder, which are a pleasant relief after the dazzling emptiness of M. Montenard's canvases, the glare of M. Dauphin's, and the purple dot of M. Eliot's exaggerations. Mr. Melchers remains faithful to his old subjects, but paints them with more subtle observation and less obviousness, his figures having lost their stiffness, his color having gained in quality. I wish the same could be said of Mr. Dannat's studies of Spanish women, which, now they can no longer astonish by their eccentricity, irritate by their perverse perseverance in a foolish mannerism.

Of the sculpture in both Salons there is really little to say. The average maintained is fairly creditable, but there are few, if any, notable exceptions. The prints might with advantage be written of at greater length than my present space allows. Mr. Whistler, M. Carrière, M. Fantin-Latour, M. Dillon, and others too numerous to mention, are among the lithographers who exhibit; M. Helleu, M. Raffaëlli, and M. Lepère among the etchers; while M. Florian, Mr. Cole, and Mr. Wolf well represent the wood-engravers. For one reason or another, few illustrators contribute, and of these few the most noteworthy, M. Vierge, M. Guillaume, and Mr. Gibson, send to the Champ-de-Mars. Vigorous original drawings, however, not made for illustration, come from M. Gandara, M. Desboutins, and M. Valadon, from Mr. Studd and Mr. Cushing. N. N.

THE COUNT DE SÉGUR'S NAPOLEONIC MEMOIRS.

PARIS, May 23, 1894.

THE name of Ségur is not unknown to Americans who have studied in detail the history of the United States war of independence. Count de Ségur had a very eventful life; he was French Ambassador at the court of the great Catherine and became one of her favorites. There are many interesting details about his embassy in the second volume of Waliszewski's 'Autour d'un Trône: Catherine II. de Russie,' which has just appeared with the sub-title, "Ses collaborateurs, ses amis, ses favoris." Ségur's despatches about Catherine and her court are among the most interesting documents which relate to the history of Russia. He made the first treaty concluded between France and the great Oriental empire; he became afterwards one of the French combatants in the war of independence. At the beginning of the Revolution we find him among the confidential friends of Marie Antoinette, trying to reconcile the cause of the monarchy with the new ideas. After the catastrophe of the 10th of August and the massacres of September, he retired to the house of his brother-in-law, M. d'Aguesseau, at Fresnes, near Paris. We read in the Memoirs of his son, Gen. Count de Ségur, that a few weeks after this horrible massacre of priests, women, and inoffensive old men, he met Danton in the streets of Paris. "Danton stopped him and began to converse, when my father, speaking of the horrors of those two days, told him that he did not understand their motive, their object, or how he, Danton, minister of justice, could not prevent them or at least put a stop to them. They were walking side by side; Danton stopped, looked my father in the face, and, with his well-known cynicism, said to him: 'Sir, you forget whom you are talking to; you forget that we are *de la canaille*, that we came out of the gutter, that with your principles we should soon be in it again, and we can govern only by inspiring terror.'"

These memoirs of Gen. Count de Ségur, of which I have just spoken, appeared in eight volumes in 1873, and, strangely enough, they did not attract much attention at the time. Gen. de Ségur had been aide-de-camp to the great Napoleon, and had shared in all the campaigns of the First Empire; in 1873, just after Sedan, the fall of the Second Empire and the invasion of France, the name of Napoleon had lost its prestige. Now, by a strange phenomenon which it would take some time to analyze, there is a reaction and a Napoleonic revival. Nations as well as individuals live much in the imagination; Napoleonism is a thing of the past, it fills the popular mind with extraordinary visions of glory. Besides, we are tired of mediocrities, and, whatever may be said of Napoleon I., he cannot be called mediocre or commonplace. The publisher of the memoirs of Gen. de Ségur has seized his opportunity; only, as the present reading public does not easily absorb eight volumes at a time, he has issued a single volume of extracts from these memoirs, with this title, 'Un Aide-de-camp de Napoléon'—which, you will see, is sufficiently characteristic.

It was not necessary to give a subordinate place on the title-page to the name of Ségur; his memoirs speak sufficiently for themselves. The extracts have been well chosen. We find in them at first some pages on the Count de Ségur, the father of the General. After the Revolution, he became a councillor of state, grand master of ceremonies to Napoleon, a member of the Academy, and a peer of France. Philippe de Ségur was born in 1780; he was only thirteen years old during the dark days of the Terror. He received but an imperfect education; at the age of nineteen he enlisted in the army as simple hussar among the volunteers who bore the name of "Volunteers of Bonaparte." He was appointed sub-lieutenant

by Bonaparte on the 9th Floréal, an VIII. He had enlisted in the republican army without taking his family's advice; when he announced his resolution to his grandfather, Marshal de Ségur, the hero of Laufeld and of Clostercamp, who had been minister of war under Louis XVI. during the American war, the old Marshal said to him: "You have renounced all the traditions of your family; but, since it is done, since you have voluntarily enlisted in the republican army, you must serve with loyalty and courage."

The Volunteers of Bonaparte were a new formation, which was placed under the orders of Gen. Dumas, an officer of the time of Louis XVI. Ségur was first sent to Switzerland, where he stayed some time, and afterwards joined the army of the Rhine, under Moreau. He gives a good description of this army, which was still imbued with the pure republican spirit:

"There were still in it some *Spartans of the Rhine*, as they were called—volunteers of the first years of the Republic, martyrs of liberty and national independence, for which they had sacrificed themselves with a devotion free from any personal ambition, even from any ambition for glory. They had a hundred times refused all advancement, and, proud of their republican rigidity, they had been seen marching half-naked, hungry, suffering the most cruel privation, and, after their victories, remaining poor among all the goods which victory bestows. War for them was not a business: soldiers, officers, generals, warriors from patriotism, they thought, after having secured the salvation of their country, only of returning to their villages as private citizens."

There were few left already of these "Spartiates" when young Ségur joined the army of the Rhine. After Hohenlinden, he rejoined Macdonald in the Valtellina as his aide-de-camp, and took part in the campaign of the Grisons. He readily espoused among his new friends the principles and ideas of the Revolution. "In the midst of this plebeian army I appreciated the double folly of a royalist, and especially of an aristocratic, obstinacy." From this moment he always tried to reconcile old and modern France, and by this fusion to hinder a return to the policy of the Convention and the Directory. He found in the new army many men who belonged to the old nobility—Caulaincourt, D'Hautpoul, Grouchy, Rochambeau, Macdonald, etc. He lived for some time in Trent with Macdonald, and then accompanied him in his embassy to Denmark. On his return he was presented to the First Consul by Macdonald, and, though he much preferred military life to diplomacy, he was intrusted with a mission to the King of Spain. He had a letter, a mysterious letter, from Napoleon to give to Godoy, the Prince of Peace, but had some difficulty in delivering it, as General Gouvion Saint-Cyr, who was then French Ambassador at Madrid, was at drawn daggers with the favorite. On his return he was appointed *officier d'ordonnance* to Napoleon and charged with the command of the detachment of the Guard which was at the Tuileries. This post brought him into personal contact with the First Consul, with his family, and with the Beauharnais; he had a part to take in the amusements, the balls, the private theatricals of the Tuileries and Malmaison.

The execution of the Duc d'Enghien was a severe shock to Ségur; he enters into many details on the subject of the attempts made against the life of Napoleon, of the conspiracies of Georges Cadoudal, of Pichegru, and others; he renders full justice to the courage of the young prince. He heard at the same moment the news of the arrival of the Duc d'Enghien at Vincennes and of his execution, from the mouth of Col. Hulin. He announced this terrible news to his father, who was then a member of the newly established Council of State. They both, after several days of great agitation, tried to prove to themselves that Napoleon had felt remorse; that he had given orders which were not properly executed, or not in time, and that the execution was the result of a misunderstanding. But Napoleon never expressed any regret for his action, even at Saint Helena. On the Sunday which followed the execution at the Tuileries—

"Bonaparte passed through the silent crowd to go to the chapel. His countenance was unchanged. During the sacrament, while the prayer was going up to Heaven, I examined him with redoubled attention. There, before God, in presence of his victim, I expected that something like regret would appear in the author of such a cruel act; but, whatever may have been his inner feeling, nothing in him changed—he remained calm, and through the tears which filled my eyes I saw his face like that of a severe and impassible judge."

Ségur describes the camp at Boulogne and the preparations for the invasion of England. The Emperor (for the First Consul had been proclaimed Emperor), after Pichegru's conspiracy, learned on the 13th of August, at his headquarters at Port-de-Briques, at four o'clock in the morning, the news which rendered the invasion of England impossible. The French admiral, Villeneuve, had taken the fleet to Ferrol and left the Channel.

"Daru was called. He enters, looks at his chief, and is surprised. His air, he told me, was terrible; his hat was over his eyes; his look was terrific. As soon as he sees Daru he rushes at him: 'Do you know where this scoundrel of a Villeneuve is? He is at Ferrol—do you understand? At Ferrol. Ah! you don't understand? He has been beaten, he has gone to Ferrol to conceal himself. He will be blockaded there. What a navy! What an admiral! What useless sacrifices!' Then, with redoubled agitation, for more than an hour, he paces the room with great strides, giving vent to his just fury in a torrent of bitter reproaches and painful words. Then, suddenly stopping and showing a table covered with papers, 'Sit there,' he says to Daru, 'and write.' And then, without a transition, without any apparent meditation, with his brief and imperious accent, he dictates to him, without hesitation, the plan of the campaign of Ulm as far as Vienna! The army of the coast, fronting the ocean for more than two hundred leagues, was at the first signal to turn round and march on the Danube, in several columns! The order of the marches, their duration, points of concentration, of reunion of the columns, surprises, attacks, various movements, the enemy's mistakes—all was foreseen. . . . The battlefields, the victories, even the dates on which we were to enter Munich and Vienna—all was then written just as it happened, and this two months in advance, at this very hour of the 13th of August, and from this quarter-general on the coast. Daru, however accustomed to the inspirations of his chief, remained dumbfounded, and he was even more surprised when afterwards he saw these oracles realized."

This extract gives not a bad idea of the graphic manner of Ségur. It is impossible to read anything more interesting than his account of the battle of Austerlitz, which was the termination of the great campaign that had carried Napoleon from Boulogne to Ulm, from Ulm to Vienna. This famous battle, fought on the 2d of December, was planned by Napoleon, in every detail, just as he had planned the strategic movements of the army. In the early morning he sent for all his aides-de-camp to come to the small house where he had spent the night. "We had a slight repast, which, like himself, we ate standing; after which, putting on his sword, 'Now, gentlemen,' said he, 'let us go and begin a great day.' We all ran to our horses. A moment afterwards we saw, on the top of the hill which the soldiers called the Emperor's hill, arriving from the various points of our line, followed each by their aides-de-camp, all the chiefs of our army corps."

The memoirs, or rather the extracts of the memoirs, which are now given to us, though they are almost exclusively military, are all written in this graphic style. Ségur takes us to Italy before Gaeta, to Jena, to Berlin, to Spain. At the end of the volume are some curious chapters on Fouché and Bernadotte. The last chapter is the history of the relations of Bonaparte with Chateaubriand and the history of the reception of Chateaubriand into the French Academy. Napoleon asked for some changes in Chateaubriand's reception speech, which had first been read, as usual, in committee. Chateaubriand would not consent to make the changes, and in consequence he was never really received officially into the Academy before the Restoration.

Correspondence.

ELEAZAR WILLIAMS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I send a few facts (as addenda to your criticism of the work of Mrs. Evans, in your issue of May 31) which have been gathered during the quarter of a century I have been working on the Roxbury (Mass.) Williams family. As is probably well known to the writer of the article referred to, Eleazar Williams furnished the late Dr. Stephen W. Williams with a brief sketch of his Williams ancestry; but even that is inaccurate, as it brings in a fabulous ancestor to account for the fact that his family name was "Williams."

As early as 1810, Eleazar Williams called himself "Count de Lorraine" and wore a large tinsel star. My grandfather was acquainted with the man and fully impressed with his ignorance and pretence. The subsequent developments of his fiction brought him to the notice of the family, and it was with this knowledge that my father, Dr. Williams of the Baldwin Locomotive Works, happened to be in Caughnawaga when those of the tribe who knew of the childhood of Eleazar were questioned regarding his origin. Dr. Williams was then locating and laying the railroad through the Indian reservation, and was not only intimately acquainted with Oronhiatekha (De Lorimier), the head chief, with Taiaike (Jean Baptiste Rice, better known as "Grand Baptiste"), the pilot of the Lachine rapids, and other subordinate chiefs, but was adopted by the tribe, and is still remembered by the older members as "Raristeseres."

In the fall of 1851 two gentlemen came to Caughnawaga to investigate the story of Eleazar Williams. It was on a Sunday afternoon that De Lorimier summoned the mother of Eleazar, Mary Ann Rice (Kanontewanteta), and an old man and woman who were with the parents at the time of his birth, as well as others who could tell of his youth. It may be well to say here that Eleazar was in bad odor with the tribe. This fact has been made much of by the upholders of the French origin, and has been stated by them as due to the lapse of the man from the Romish faith, and an attempt to avenge on him the slighted creed. The real facts are that the Romish Church, if it had any feeling in the matter, rejoiced in getting rid of a black sheep, as Eleazar had made his tribe the victims of a favorite habit of his—the collection of money for a specific purpose, and its immediate conversion to his own use.

All the persons gathered on that Sunday afternoon knew of the character of the man, and that was all. They were then entirely ignorant of his pretensions, and spoke only Iroquois and a French *patois*. They were taken singly into the room where they were to be questioned, and a Scotchman named McNab, who was a notary and greatly trusted by the Indians, acted as interrogator and interpreter. The old woman first told how she was present at the birth of Eleazar, and that he was the son of Mary Ann (Rice) Williams, and that the birth took place at Lake George, N. Y., where the party had gone on a fishing excursion. It was immediately after the Revolution. The old man followed and said that the birth took place as stated, and he further told how Eleazar had fallen from high rocks when a boy and received injuries to his legs and knees that had left scars. The mother then told her story in corroboration of what had been told. After all the testimony had been taken, there was no one present but felt that Eleazar Williams was an Indian. Mr. McNab then translated to them the printed account of the pretended French origin of the man. It made the mother cry, and she said that she knew that Eleazar had done many bad things, but she did not think he would deny his own mother. The matter was talked over by the tribe, and they did not hesitate to call him a liar. The peculiar (?) Bourbon features of Eleazar were possessed by De Lorimier, Francis Mount—by all, in fact, who were descended from white captives.

Father Marcoux stated to my father that the early mission records were very incomplete, and, in general, those children born outside of the mission had no place on the record. This seems to cover the whole case.

EDWARD H. WILLIAMS, JR.

WENTWORTH, June 4, 1894.

DEFINITIONS OF COST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Being wholly destitute of the metaphysical gift, it strikes me as a bit too hard, especially on the metaphysicians, to find myself held up as the example of what a man may come to in economics by yielding to the metaphysical tendency. My aim in everything I have written has been to call attention to facts which others seemed to overlook; and that is my aim now. You single out my definition of cost of production as particularly metaphysical, and therefore particularly faulty. In place of it you offer one of your own. You say:

"Economically and humanly speaking, cost is what a man pays for a thing when he buys it. To the manufacturer of the finished article, the cost is what he has paid for his raw materials and the labor he has employed."

Here you seem to me to give, not one consistent definition of cost, but two inconsistent ones. The Macmillans pay two dollars for raw materials and labor in manufacturing a certain book. My bookseller buys it of them for three dollars, and I buy it of him for four dollars. You seem to say that, economically and humanly speaking, the cost of the book is either the three or the four dollars paid for it by the successive buyers. And yet you also seem to say that the cost with which economics ought to be concerned is the other, the cost to the Macmillans. If you will kindly make plain which of these views you would have us adopt, I will try to bring it to the test, not of metaphysics, but of plain fact. You will find economists very ready to learn if you have anything to suggest towards improving their treatment of cost.—Very sincerely yours,

S. M. MACVANE.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., June 9, 1894.

[We attempted no complete definition of cost; but we do say, in the name of common sense, that cost of a thing is what a man pays for it, or, in other words, its market price. We think economists ought, in the public interest, to occupy themselves solely or mainly with things which they can describe in terms of money. It is their attempts to speculate about *moral* cost, about emotions which do not affect price, and concerning which they cannot in the scientific sense *know* anything, that have brought Marx, and Bebel, and Guesde down on us.—ED. NATION.]

A MUSICAL CORRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Allow me to correct two statements that recently appeared in the *Nation*. In the article "The Delphian Hymn to Apollo" (No. 1506), it is stated that the rhythm of 5/8 time is equally unknown to modern verse and modern music. The rhythm of 5-4 time (practically the same as 5/8 time) is found in Liszt's Dante Symphony, Rubinstein's Tower of Babel, Tchaikovsky's last symphony, in works by Raff, Volkmann, Hiller, and Reinecke. Dr. Riemann, the great reformer of musical theory, rather favors rhythms of 5 and 7 beats.

In the review of C. Hubert H. Parry's 'The Art of Music' (No. 1507), we find, after a sweeping condemnation of Brahms's songs (which very few will endorse), "that a thorough study of the 257 songs of Franz," etc. I have all the songs of Franz, and find, on careful counting, their number to be 279.

Yours truly, C. E. R. MUELLER.

CHICAGO, June 1, 1894.

[Our remarks upon 5/8 time were somewhat contradictory, as in a paragraph succeeding the one criticised we spoke of it as "the unusual time." Saint-Saëns, in his last trio, and Chopin in one of his sonatas, employ this time. As for the number of Franz's songs, we followed Grove's Dictionary.—ED. NATION.]

THE OLDEST FOLK-LORE JOURNAL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I read in your issue of May 17, p. 375, col. ii., that the *Archivio per lo studio delle tradizioni popolari*, edited by Dr. Pitrè since its inception by him in 1882, is "the oldest folk-lore journal in existence." This is a great mistake, for the first number of the French folk-lore journal *Mélusine*, started by Mr. Eug. Rolland and myself, appeared on the 5th of January, 1877.

Yours faithfully, H. GAIDOZ.

22 RUE SERVANDONI, PARIS.

[Our constant enjoyment of *Mélusine* all these years ought to have served as a check on Pitrè's statement, which we followed with the implicit faith we are accustomed to repose in that scholar's accuracy. He says of the *Archivio*, "che fu il primo fortunato tentativo nel genere, e che rimane sempre il più vecchio periodico vivente di Folklore."—ED. NATION.]

TURGENEFF'S MOTHER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Any one who wishes more complete information in English than Mr. Boyesen furnishes in the current *Century* about Ivan Turgeneff's mother can find it in the *Atlantic Monthly* for March, 1885. Mrs. Martin, the writer of the article mentioned, unfortunately was in too great haste to await the second and last instalment of the story of Mme. Turgeneff's adopted daughter, in the *European Messenger* (*Vyestnik Yevropy*); she distorted names and mistook several passages. Nevertheless, a more satisfactory view of that incarnate imp Mme. Turgeneff in action can be obtained from the *Atlantic* than from Mr. Boyesen's summary of the belated French translation.—Yours truly,

ISABEL F. HAPGOOD.

NANTUCKET, MASS., June 9, 1894.

Notes.

MR. GLADSTONE'S metrical translations of the Odes of Horace are in the press of Charles Scribner's Sons, whose removal to No. 153 Fifth Avenue is now an accomplished fact.

Longmans, Green & Co. will publish, in the autumn, 'Studies on the Coast of Arran,' by George Milner.

Du Maurier's 'Trilby,' after having finished its course in the *Magazine*, will be published by the Harpers in August.

'The Claims of Christianity,' by W. S. Lilly, is to be published immediately by D. Appleton & Co.

Henry Holt & Co. promise a collection of 'Quaker Idyls,' by an author bearing a Quaker name, Mrs. S. M. H. Gardner.

'The Footprints of the Jesuits,' by R. W. Thompson, ex-Secretary of the Navy, and a 'History of the Christian Church,' in five volumes, by Henry C. Sheldon of Boston University, are soon to be issued by T. Y. Crowell & Co.

'Electrical Boats and Navigation' is the title of a work, by Thomas Commerford Martin, announced by C. C. Shelley, New York.

'Early Church History,' by J. V. Bartlet, and 'The Printed English Bible,' by Richard Lovett, are the opening volumes of the "Present Day Primers" which Fleming H. Revell Co. will publish.

Mr. John Fiske's new school History of the United States is about to be issued by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The following Chautauqua text-books are in preparation by Flood & Vincent, Meadville, Pa., for the next autumn and winter's reading: 'The Growth of the English Nation,' by Profs. Katharine Coman and Elizabeth Kendall of Wellesley College; 'Europe in the Nineteenth Century,' by Prof. H. P. Judson of the University of Chicago; 'Renaissance and Modern Art,' by Prof. William Goodyear of the Brooklyn Institute; 'From Chaucer to Tennyson,' by Prof. Henry A. Beers of Yale University; and 'Walks and Talks in the Geological Field,' by the late Prof. Alexander Winchell of the University of Michigan.

Mme. Octave Feuillet is about to publish, through the house of Calmann Lévy, a volume

entitled 'Quelques Ans de Ma Vie.' *Figaro* of May 20 printed, by way of *primeur*, several letters taken from it. Others still appeared in the *Revue de Paris* a couple of months ago. These letters were written by Octave Feuillet to his wife between the years 1862 and 1868, mostly from Compiègne or Fontainebleau. They are very smooth and pretty, being perhaps a little over-polished for familiar letters. Something may be learned from them of court life in the country under the Second Empire, but it is upon Feuillet himself that the most light is thrown. It is not a very pleasing light either. There is something rather painful in the spectacle of a literary man of mark and of a certain merit making such a disclosure of his own interior and essential snobbishness as Feuillet pours forth.

To an account of the Napoleonic revival the ninth volume of Paul Ginisty's 'L'Année Littéraire' (Paris: Charpentier) gives large room, in successive reviews. The novel has, as usual, the lion's share of titles, though by no means of space. There is a brief preface by Henry Houssaye, very appropriately, since half the volume is devoted to notices of historical works.

Charles Benoist's 'La Politique' is the first volume of a series to be brought out by Léon Chailley, Paris, under the general title "La Vie Nationale." The editors are M. Benoist and M. André Liesse. The object of the series is to enable the general public, usually ill-informed on important questions, to attain a sound knowledge of the political constitution of France, of its commerce, of its methods and establishments of education, and many more similar matters. The several works will, as a rule, be divided into two parts: the first, theoretical or historical; the second, practical. It is on this principle that 'La Politique' has been written, and it forms a very valuable hand-book for any one desirous of obtaining a clear and concise exposition of the French constitution and of its workings.

M. Jules Bois was well inspired when he bethought himself of giving an account of the various minor creeds which flourish, more or less, in Paris. The result, 'Les Petites Religions de Paris' (Paris: Léon Chailley), is, however, so slight and so evidently incomplete as to cause more regret than pleasure.

The Leipzig publishers Schmidt & Günther are now issuing an extremely attractive and instructive work entitled 'Das Mittelalter: Bilder aus dem Leben und Treiben aller Stände in Europa,' by Rudolf Kleinpaul. It will be completed in twenty-five numbers, which are sold at one mark each, and about half of which have already appeared, and will contain some five hundred illustrations consisting of reproductions of old engravings and colored plates. The text is based upon the voluminous works of Paul Lacroix ("Bibliophile Jacob") supplemented by more recent researches, and will describe mediæval life and civilization in all their phases, political, social, domestic, industrial, artistic, etc. The name of Herr Kleinpaul is a sufficient guarantee that it will be written in a lively vein.

Students of Middle High German will welcome Wolfgang Goltber's new and revised edition of Karl Bartsch's anthology, 'Deutsche Liederdichter des zwölften bis vierzehnten Jahrhunderts' (Stuttgart: Goeschen). Bartsch's selections are excellent, and remain the same as in the edition of 1878; the text has been in some cases slightly modified, the notes have been corrected and considerably enlarged, the glossary improved, and the literature of the subject brought up to date. As a text-book it is now as nearly perfect as it is possible for such a work to be.

The latest issue of the "Mermaid Series," the publication of which, after being for some years suspended, has now been resumed by T. Fisher Unwin, is 'The Complete Plays of Richard Steele.' The editor, Mr. G. A. Aitkin, is well known to students of eighteenth-century literature as the author of an exceedingly detailed and accurate biography of Steele. The present volume is the more welcome from the fact that there has really never been a complete and uniform edition of Steele's plays. It is to his less-known works, moreover, that we must look in order to correct such current ideas of his character and his genius as are derived mainly from the reading of his papers in the *Tatler* and the *Spectator*—essays delicate and charming enough, no doubt, but decidedly less free and virile in tone and scope than his letters, some of his pamphlets, and his dramatic works. Steele's plays, indeed, are almost as well worth reading as those of his more famous contemporaries, Congreve and Vanbrugh. Though weak in plot, like much of the best work of the period, they have a genuine spice of wit, as well as a cleanliness of tone and purpose and a fondness for noble and charming characters not then common, and eminently characteristic of Steele. The editor's notes are largely biographical and topographical.

A rather conspicuous little book comes dancing along in the wake of the Columbian fervor, in Dr. M. Kayserling's 'Columbus, and the Participation of the Jews in the Spanish and Portuguese Discoveries,' done into English from the author's manuscript by Dr. Gross of Harvard and published by the Longmans. It has an appendix of Latin and Spanish documents, setting forth the doings of the Santangels—shown to be Jews—and disclosing the help of Jews in equipping the second expedition of Columbus. The career of the Genoan is scantily followed, and the stress of the book, as well as its distinctive merit, is in making known the manifold ways in which Jewish learning and activity were interwoven in the events which floated Columbus along to his honors and his shame.

The works of the "Austrian school" of economists have been so generally read that it is unnecessary to do more than call attention to the excellence of the edition of Von Wieser's 'Natural Value' by Mr. W. Smart, published by Macmillan. The translation was made by Mr. Christian A. Malloch under Mr. Smart's supervision, and is admirably clear, although elegance may have been in some cases sacrificed to fidelity. The most convenient feature of the work is the preface and analysis furnished by Mr. Smart, who may be said to have mastered the theory of value maintained by the Austrian school. This "natural value" he regards as substantially completing the development of the system at which Menger, Boehm-Bawerk, and Wieser have labored, as it "catches up many loose ends in previous expositions, and carries the whole theory, with its applications, to a higher level of completeness."

Mr. Andrew Lang has an apologetic rôle in his introductions to both 'Peveril of the Peak' and 'The Fortunes of Nigel' in volumes 26–30 of the International Limited Edition (Boston: Estes & Lauriat; New York: Bryan, Taylor & Co). The illustrations, besides the Tower of London and a few portraits, are imaginative, of the academic sort, but are on the whole as good as those accompanying the better Waverley novels. In the cheaper Dryburgh Edition (Edinburgh: Black; New York: Macmillan), the series is continued with 'The Fair Maid of Perth,' forming volume 22.

We lately noticed the final instalment of Mr. Robert Bowes's 'Catalogue of Books Printed at or Relating to the University, Town, and County of Cambridge from 1521 to 1893, with bibliographical and biographical notes' (Macmillan). The work as now issued bound is an extremely handsome volume of more than 500 pages and 3,000 items, each with its price affixed; for though something more than the spirit of gain has prompted this laborious and elegant performance, a bookseller describes his actual stock in hand and invites dealings. Charles Astor Bristed, with his 'American Hospitality and English Repudiation' and 'Five Years in an English University,' and William Everett, with his 'On the Cam,' are the sole Americans we have recognized in this list.

A fifth edition, revised and enlarged, of 'The Records of Living Officers of the U. S. Navy and Marine Corps' (Philadelphia: L. R. Hamersly & Co.) fulfils the pious motive of the author-publisher to supply "the recording journalist" with materials for proper obituary notice of members of the naval branch of the service. Its utility has long since been proved.

Emerson's verse to Lowell on the younger bard's fortieth birthday opens the volume of the *Century* now completed and bound (new series, xxv.), and there is none that follows which can approach it. Lowell's prose aftermath is among the more excellent contents of the rest of the volume, along with memorials of Edwin Booth and a contribution to the prevailing Napoleonic recrudescence. The musical papers give excuse for some fine portraits of Berlioz, Schumann, and Grieg; those on Lincoln (of which one, by Mr. Nicolay, gives the variant readings of the Gettysburg address) are adorned with a new likeness of him also; and very pathetic is the view of Grant heroically composing his Life in his last illness. Mr. Cole supplies many admirable renderings of the Dutch masters. Finally, Mark Twain begins his "Pudd'nhead Wilson."

An article on "The Future of the West Indies and the Nicaragua Canal," by Major Otto von Wachs, in the May number of the *Deutsche Rundschau*, has also been reprinted in pamphlet form. Starting with the assumption that the Panama Canal will never be completed while the Nicaragua Canal will, the writer predicts a conflict of influence—and hardly a peaceful one—between Great Britain and the United States for the control of the new waterway and its approaches. He accordingly takes up and discusses the neighboring coasts and islands from the point of view of the strategical importance they will have, but leaves us in distressing uncertainty as to how soon we may expect the struggle to break out or what will be its probable issue.

Petermann's Mitteilungen for May opens with a brief sketch of the latest Italian explorations in eastern Africa, accompanied by a somewhat confused map showing what has been determined in regard to the courses of the main rivers of Galla and Somali-land. The expedition led by Count Ruspoli, whose objective point was Lake Rudolf, has been obliged to return to the coast; its leader, a young man of brilliant promise as a successful explorer, having been killed in an elephant hunt on December 4, 1893. There is also a rather dull and technical account of the expedition of the Imperial Russian Geographical Society, under the command of Capt. Roborovski, which is now exploring a part of eastern Turkestan not far from the district of

Kuldja. It is not improbably one of those expeditions, half geographical, half political in their aim, which generally precede the extension of Russian territory to the south.

The latest number of the *National Geographic Magazine* is an essay by Messrs. Hayes and Campbell on the geomorphology of the Southern Appalachians—that is, on the origin of the physical features of the region. Following methods employed by McGee and Davis, the authors greatly extend the results previously acquired, both in area and in definiteness. Indeed, it is not too much to say that no essay of recent years has given so much precision to our understanding of the development of Appalachian topography. Geological students in this part of the country see so little of Tertiary deposits that they unconsciously come to regard Tertiary time as of relatively small value; and they will therefore look with surprise at the large share of altitude that is here shown to have been given to our Appalachian ridges at even a late stage of the Tertiary. The recognition of areas and axes of maximum uplift, and the effects of these movements as well as of geological structure on the shifts of river courses, are admirably brought out. The development of the course of the Tennessee River in particular is deciphered with much skill; and if the reader perhaps hesitates to accept all the details of this remarkable piece of river history, he will still find that the account of it will whet his appetite for more discussions of this kind. That so much of novelty comes from a study of the eastern part of the country, long known to geological surveyors, proves how great a harvest may be expected when modern methods of investigation are applied elsewhere.

The quarter-century of President Eliot's headship of Harvard College forms the natural leading theme of the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for June, and is strikingly reviewed from different standpoints by Prof. Dunbar and the editor, Mr. Wm. R. Thayer. Two profile portraits of the President are given, one by Kruell, the other a reproduction of the class portrait of 1853, seemingly from a daguerreotype—at all events reversed, and hence impairing the comparison with what is the same aspect in the frontispiece. The new constitution of Radcliffe College is to have the effect of causing this morganatic branch of the University to be reported regularly in the *Magazine*.

When periodicals of the bulk and value of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* and the *Revue de Paris* are pouring out their abundance every fortnight, it is not too easy to keep the run of them, and quite hopeless to attempt to notice a tithe of what is noteworthy. But, however late, some mention is due to a most interesting and tenderly affectionate article on the lamented Prévost-Paradol, by his friend M. Eugène Dufeuille, which appeared in the *Revue de Paris* of March 15. This throws some new light on one of the most moving tragedies of our time. There never was a more pitiable and needless waste than Prévost's self-sought death. The memory of his incomplete life will last at any rate as long as his generation does, as this article witnesses, as well as other tributes, like the recent one of M. Gaston Deschamps in the *Temps*.

We learn from Dr. Murray, who is passing the letter D of the New English Dictionary through the press, that American readers can render a great assistance by noting early instances of *all* the terms of American politics, since this research is very difficult if undertaken in England. Examples of the use of such terms, duly authenticated by chapter and verse (author, edition, volume, page), with date, should be forwarded to "Dr. Murray, Oxford, England," no other address being necessary.

—The third volume of the writings of Jefferson, which the Messrs. Putnam are publishing, testifies to Mr. Paul Leicester Ford's editorial capacity and diligence. It embraces the 'Notes on Virginia,' of which the genesis, publication, and additions are very fully set forth, and the appendices incorporated in their proper places as notes. Jefferson's map is reproduced, there is a facsimile of his title-page, and the variant readings of the several issues of 1784, 1787, and 1853 are given, so that, as Mr. Ford justly claims, all that is germane and valuable in each has been collected here. In the letters to Madison, which in the original are mixed up with cipher, Mr. Ford has been at the pains to read and translate, as far as possible, and his success has been worth the pains. The volume opens at 1781, when Jefferson was on the point of retiring from the Governorship of Virginia, and was looking forward to a life of contemplative and scholarly retirement, with (as he avowed) every spark of political ambition thoroughly eradicated. In this mood he discusses the natural limitation of a man's duty to serve the state, and concludes against the state's right to command the service of any of its members in perpetuity —a doctrine half revived in our day in an anti-Jeffersonian quarter, viz., by Mr. C. F. Adams, in his study of the government of the city of Quincy, Mass. The death of his wife in childbed made a return to public life a diversion for Jefferson, and the volume closes with his departure from Boston on July 5, 1784, as Minister to France, carrying in manuscript his 'Notes on Virginia.' He had just studied, also, the New England States of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island by journeying among them, in order to fit himself for his post; and it is to be regretted that he forebore, in his farewell to Madison, "to enter into a detail, which would be lengthy, as to the country and people I have visited." Mr. Ford prints Jefferson's two reports on the Northwest Territory, of March 1 and 22, 1784, had either of which been adopted without amendment, slavery would in terms have been abolished in all the Western territory after 1800. It was the South that killed this anti-slavery provision, by one vote. Mr. Ford shows that Jefferson, when the spark of his political ambition had become a healthy flame, remembered to forget this his highest title to statesmanship, and suffered the framers of the Ordinance of 1787 to steal his thunder without rebuke.

—All students of British history have read, in some form or other, the story of Theobald Wolfe Tone's life and death. Most of those who have collected historical libraries would desire to see his autobiography upon their shelves. The only complete edition that has appeared is scarce and is to be had but occasionally at sales. We gladly welcome Mr. Unwin's new publication (Charles Scribner's Sons), edited by Mr. Barry O'Brien. The first memoir of Tone, "the complete edition" to which we refer, appeared at Washington in 1826 in two octavo volumes. The two volumes published in London the same year consisted of excerpts from the American. The various popular editions which each subsequent wave of Irish disaffection called forth were little better than chap-books and necessarily abridgments of the original work—we refer, of course, to the London edition of 1827, the Dublin of a few years later, and the Glasgow of 1876. We are now given the whole of the memoirs and all that is of permanent value in Tone's writings, preceded by a luminous introduction of twenty-three pages from Mr. O'Brien's pen, and a sparkling preface of seven pages by Mr. Augustine Birrell. The portraits are old friends to students of Irish history, none the less valuable on that account to those who do not possess them in other volumes. The facsimile of Tone's touching last letter to his father is for the first time published. An index adds to the value of the work. The editor has done his part well. We must, however, be allowed to enter our protest against the unnecessary thickness of the paper, size of the type, and width of the lines and margins. Economy of space has to be considered nowadays on our book-shelves. These two volumes, with considerably less matter, bulk nearly twice the size of the original edition of 1826, that which we have hitherto been accustomed to use, and which is also in two volumes, but in every way pleasant to read and handle.

—Those attached to the memory of Shelley—and few in England and America would range themselves among his ill-wishers—have watched with interest the centring at Oxford of various Shelley records. University College, which thrust him from its doors for what would now be regarded as a more or less harmless and youthful effervescence of thought, has recognized his greatness by accepting and giving a place of special honor to Onslow Ford's beautiful statue of him. Bodley's librarian has recently expressed the gratitude so universally felt for Lady Shelley's gift of portraits of the poet and of books and MSS. belonging to him. Lady Shelley has within a few weeks further enriched the Bodleian by a gift of various Shelley relics. These include a portrait, painted after death, of Mary Wollstonecraft Shelley, a watch and chain, with seals attached, which belonged to her and the poet, and a case containing locks of her hair and of the poet's. The portrait in question is, of course, very valuable and a most acceptable gift; but as to the watch and seals and as to the locks of hair, many will feel that just such peculiarly intimate mementoes as personal friends and members of the immediate family most prize have little or no value in any public institution. Even if it were agreed that such things might, in exceptional cases, figure appropriately in small museums, the notion of exhibiting them in a place like the Bodleian Library at Oxford will not commend itself to many. Indeed, there will not be lacking people who may see in the acceptance of such gifts by such an institution in England a symptom of that minute and ultra-sentimental hero-worship which provokes derision and drags prosaic personal gossip into literary history. This sentimentalism has hitherto been supposed to connect itself with the German Goethe worship, and is reproached with giving undue prominence to that great man's washing bills. It is to be hoped that no further relics of so intimate a character will be added to the Oxford mementoes of Shelley.

—M. Reinach's publication of Hamdi Bey's Sidon Sarcophagi being still delayed, Prof. Percy Gardner has just given a most timely public lecture upon them at Oxford. After a sketch of the discovery of the royal tomb at Sidon and of Hamdi's ultimate extrication of the famous colored bas-reliefs now exhibited under glass in the Constantinople Museum, Prof. Gardner summarized his views upon the use of color in Greek sculpture, laying some

stress upon the fact that the marble of these sarcophagi was stained and not simply covered with an opaque and evanescent surface-color. Early Greek sculpture, whether forming part of an architectural whole or fashioned in the round, was always colored. As rough stone gave way to more delicate marbles for sculptures in the round, a practice akin to "tinting" arose, but the colors used in architecture always required the more brilliant scale of color for reliefs shown upon temples and for sarcophagi such as these. Accepting for convenience the usual names of these four tombs, the lecturer examined them with the help of M. Reinach's heliogravure plates (by Dujardin) and determined their chronological order. The earliest is the "Lycian tomb." Its representation of a lion-hunt in chariots is Oriental, while the boar-hunt on horseback is more after the Greek fashion. Its centaurs, riders and sphinxes, as well as the whole manner of its sculpture, suggest the Parthenon reliefs. No historical clue to show whose tomb it was could be found, and the same was true of the second, the "Tomb of the mourning women." Here was an artistic triumph—eighteen mourners all expressing, but individually, one restrained mode of grief. The manner was that of the second Attic school, and the nearest analogy to be found in the nine Muses of that school or in certain Athenian sepulchral reliefs. About the third, "Tomb of the Satrap," it was at least evident that a father of some note and power and his son were involved. The style was less purely Greek than that of the other three sarcophagi, and the nearest parallel was the so-called Nereid monument of Xanthus. Last chronologically, but first in all other respects, was the tomb miscalled "Alexander's tomb." It certainly belonged to the time of Alexander; so much was evident from the style and the incidents represented. There was a very marked contrast between these compositions and those of the Mausoleum. The art here exemplified was something new under the sun, and showed great perfections of balance, composition, and proportion. One of the horsemen might well be Alexander, since there was a close resemblance to a group in the Pompeian mosaic of the battle of Issus, where Alexander appears. Hephæstion might also be plausibly identified, and the tomb could be supposed to be that of the Sidonian King set up at Alexander's command by Hephæstion.

—In an address delivered before the Société de Géographie in Paris on May 4, the African explorer Dybowski referred to Mr. Garner's recent sojourn in the jungles of the Congo for the purpose of learning the language of the gorillas from their own lips. Dybowski stated that he passed two days at the mission of Fernand Vaz, situated on the shore of the lake bearing the same name. The superior, Father Bichet, informed him that Mr. Garner had spent three months there, not in the deep forest, but at the mission itself, evidently preferring the society of the monks to that of the monkeys. Mr. Garner brought his famous cage with him and set it up at a place which he called Fort Gorillas, on the edge of the forest just twenty-eight minutes' walk from the mission and within hearing of the church-bells. Dybowski expresses a doubt whether "the apes, however strong their instincts of civilization, ever came so near the convent to perform their religious devotions." The negro boy Rozoungé, a youth about thirteen or fourteen years of age, who speaks French very well and accompanied Mr. Garner on his excursions, confirmed the statements of Father Bichet, and added that Mr. Garner had slept three nights in the cage, where he awaited in vain the visits of the chimpanzees and gorillas. The boy thinks they heard them one evening, and that is the extent of Mr. Garner's intercourse with these great anthropoid apes in their wild state. He succeeded, however, in buying a young chimpanzee, which he named Moses, but which soon died. He then expended sixteen dollars in the purchase of a young gorilla, which survived only a few days. He then left the mission, where he had paid five francs a day for board and lodging, and set out with Father Buléon of the Congregation of the Holy Ghost on a tour to the Eshiras, a tribe of the interior. After two days' travel he was taken with a severe pain in his legs, and had to be carried in a hammock to the Tomlinson factory, where he remained two months. On recovery he embarked for Europe, taking with him his cage and the elements of his dictionary of the simian tongue. Dybowski says that the phonograph which was to catch the sounds uttered by the apes, and to record them on a cylinder, never arrived, so that Mr. Garner had to carry on his investigations without the aid of this instrument. *Figaro*, which reports Dybowski's remarks, characterizes Mr. Garner as an amateur in comparative linguistics, who has succeeded in having himself taken seriously, but who proves to be "un simple fumiste."

—M. A. Gazier, Maître de Conférences of the Paris Faculty of Letters, was beyond doubt happily inspired when he undertook the work of seeking for fresh light on one of the obscurer periods in the history of education in France by going through the voluminous correspondence of Grégoire, the well-known Bishop of Blois, who was also President of the Convention. The state of education during the Revolution is a difficult subject at the best, and it has been made indefinitely harder and more tangled by overmuch disputing among the erudite. It has been discussed with passion. Optimists and pessimists have seen it all black, or all white, after their usual fashion, and they do not seem likely to come to any agreement. In this confusion of opposing documents, the patient student is fain to ask for something more, and something more impartial. This, it appears, he is likely to get from the correspondence of Grégoire. Grégoire's position made him to a considerable extent a natural confidant of several parties or groups. A confirmed, and even passionate, Republican, he never lost the sense of being also an ecclesiastic and a bishop, though his churchmanship was of a distinctly Erastian type. He refused to join with the Archbishop of Paris in the cultus of the goddess Reason. He wished to "Christianize the Revolution." This attitude of his caused him to be sought as an adviser by many of those into whose hands, up to that time, French education had been for the most part committed. Priests and curés, republicans in their politics, wrote to him from all parts of the country, and questions of education naturally mingled in their letters with questions of religion. The evidence they afford is all the more trustworthy because the letters are of the character of a casual correspondence, quite unconcerted, giving news of passing events, and showing no more "tendency" than can be easily corrected from a knowledge of the personal equation of the writers. Grégoire's correspondence embraces the whole of France, and extends from the ninth Thermidor to the signing of the Concordat. M. Gazier has extracted from it whatever bears upon questions of education, and offers the documents to his readers without note or comment, like the exhibits in a law case. They are arranged in a rigorously chronological order, but divided and under the three heads of primary, secondary, and the higher teaching. The first instalment of them appeared in the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* of May 15. In a brief introduction to this, M. Gazier points out that a good deal of information about schools in France in the year 1790 may be found in the "Lettres à Grégoire sur les patois de France," published many years ago.

—We have before us the French version of a recent pamphlet issued by the League for the Intellectual Culture of the Rumanians. Besides texts of laws, protests, etc., its chief contents is the memorandum of grievances addressed to the sovereign of Austria-Hungary in 1892. Those concerned in drawing it up have just been condemned to terms of imprisonment varying from eight months to five years. There can be little doubt, however, of the truth of its statements, and of the fact that the Rumanians, Germans, and Slavs in Hungary have much to complain of. The process of Magyarization is being ruthlessly carried out, and the exasperation of the weaker nationalities is very great. At Pesth it is apparently believed to be necessary for the future welfare and tranquillity of the country that the growth of the dominant race should be favored in every way. This may be sound policy in the end, though neither generous nor just, but it bears hard on minorities attached to their own languages and historical rights, now at the tender mercy of the Magyars. One circumstance that has particularly angered the latter is the fact that the document in question was addressed to Francis Joseph, not merely as King of Hungary, but also as Emperor, thereby implying that the petitioners do not accept the present arrangement or regard themselves as only Hungarian citizens with no wishes beyond. To understand the importance of this we must remember how tremendously sensitive the Magyars are, and also that the Rumanians of Transylvania (the great majority of the population, although almost without political rights) protested against reunion to Hungary in 1868. The trial that has just taken place not only will embitter still further the race question within the kingdom, but cannot fail to excite the angriest feelings at Bucharest, where the brethren beyond the mountains are by no means forgotten, and it will put a strain on the sympathies of Rumania for the Triple Alliance.

THE NATIVES OF CENTRAL BRAZIL.

Unter den Naturvölkern Zentral-Brasiliens: Reiseschilderung und Ergebnisse der zweiten Schingú-Expedition, 1887-1888. Von Karl von den Steinen, Prof. Dr. Berlin: Dietrich Reimer. 1894. 8vo, pp. xvi, 570.

THIS important work by the well-known traveller Von den Steinen possesses unusual interest, not only from the novelty of its contents, but also because of the author's lively style, the striking psychological cogency of his observations, his power of imagination, which is always held within due limits, and the sound scientific spirit pervading the book even to the smallest detail. Three years after the two cousins Von den Steinen, accompanied by Dr. O. Clauss, had visited, in 1884, the province of Matto Grosso, and navigated the entire Xingú River from its headwaters northward to its confluence with the Amazon River,

they, together with Dr. Paul Ehrenreich and Dr. Peter Vogel, started out afresh with the intention of exploring and surveying anthropologically and linguistically an affluent of the Xingú, the Kulisehu. This second expedition was equipped with funds furnished through the "Humboldtstiftung" of the Royal Prussian Academy of Sciences and the "Karl-Ritterstiftung" of the Berlin Gesellschaft für Erdkunde. Many delays were experienced and a host of difficulties encountered in the collecting of valuable ethnographic specimens for the Royal Museum of Ethnography at Berlin, but, nothing daunted, these fearless and well-disciplined travellers accomplished their purpose, though the expedition was prolonged into the following year. Besides eight Bakaïri settlements, they found on the grassy and timbered shores of the river seven tribes heretofore entirely unknown to the whites, even by name, but which subsequently proved to belong to four different families. Twenty-five tribes, dwelling in as many towns or settlements, were examined: on the San Lourenço River the last of them, the highly interesting hunter tribe of the Bororó, being studied with especial care. This inoffensive people is settled upon a military reservation, and their language appears to be *sui generis*.

The aborigines of the Xingú basin apply the most varied body-paints to their skins, but they never paint themselves white. They likewise prefer red or blue beads to white ones, and make no use of white clay. Chiefly for the purpose of screening their bodies from mosquitoes and flies, they mix their paints with oil, which keeps the skin moist and also serves as a garment of the kind of which they are most in need, for they go stark naked. A man will ornament himself in front with a broad black stripe from the nose down to the abdomen, with stripes on either side extending to the shoulders. Large dots may be found upon his chest and arms, wavy lines upon the thighs, and half circles of many colors upon his back. Sometimes animals or plants figure in these decorations. Those who are able to obtain cotton ribbons delight in wearing them around their legs and arms.

Linguistic researches had to be made by gestures and signs, for none of the natives were acquainted with Portuguese. The Indians' replies were, of course, indefinite, and generally gave more than was asked for. The showing of pictures of domesticated animals proved helpful. The Bakaïri called a mirror shown them "water," a pair of scissors *piranya* (=teeth); a compass was to them "the sun," a watch "the moon." A want of generic terms was perceptible in that they had, for instance, no equivalent for our *palm* and *parrot*. The pantomimic language, in which all the tribes are proficient, renders the acquisition of neighboring languages comparatively unnecessary. Gesture language affords an excellent means of satirizing peculiar habits and customs. The Suyá are made fun of for their lip-plug, or *botoco*. The Bakaïri, who use stone axes, are ridiculed by such Caribs as have advanced far enough to adopt steel axes: witness the graphic story told by one of the latter on p. 71.

Dr. Karl von den Steinen having previously published an extensive work upon the Bakaïri language (Leipzig, 1892), has refrained from enlarging upon it in his present work, except as to numerals. The art of counting is exceedingly simple, and very much resembles that of Australians, who do not go beyond two. But the Tamanaco, kinsmen of the Bakaïri, on the Orinoco, go beyond that, for they possess a numeral for five, another for twenty, and hence have adopted the quinary system. Counting by fingers suits savages better than by numerals; the right hand is the counter and "feeler" of the Bakaïri, the left hand their calculator. Prolonged inquiry has convinced the author that the number two originated in these tribes from the occurrence of organs and members (eyes, arms, wings), in *pairs*. In Tupi two is *mokoi*, "forms pairs." None of the Kulisehu tribes possess the higher numerals, for they have absolutely no use for them.

From his field-notes the author reproduces a large array of drawings, made at his request by various Indians, old and young. They were drawn either on the bark of trees or in the sand, or were pencilled on paper; they are highly amusing. Persons are all represented full-face, none in profile. For heads and beards more interest was shown than for the rest of the body, and animals were drawn with more accuracy than men, perhaps because they had to sketch them in profile. Masks of all descriptions were extensively collected by the expedition; the volume contains drawings of more than thirty, with flowing hair and all sorts of toggery covering the entire person. Masks are made either of wood, wax, or of various tissues; rhomboids and squares with geometric lines form the principal ornamentation. The numerous dances in which all these Indians gayly indulge every year involve the production of an immense number of new masks, dance clubs, head-dresses, feather ornaments, and "whirring blades." This remarkable implement is often carved in the form of a fish, and, on account of the weird and unearthly sound it produces when swung on a string, also serves in the celebration of their religious mysteries. Among the Bororó the whirring stick is used only at funerals; hence that tribe speaks of it with genuine terror, women are not permitted to look at it, and, as the old saying is, "they die at the sight of it."

The fundamental shapes of the Kulisehu pottery cups are the half-oval and the half-globe, which are all made by the women of the Maipure tribes. In general they are coarse reproductions of animal forms. Bats are more frequently represented than owls, pigeons, hawks, armadillos, martens, sloths, toads, lizards, turtles, fish, and certain fruits. The ingenuity of the Indian women is shown to better advantage in the manufacture of spinning-whirls, gourd-cups and other vessels, wax and wooden figures, shells, combs; dolls made of clay, straw, and rags, and other pretty objects. Small figures of straw or maize-husks are sent as invitations to a dance, and when a young woman of any tribe receives one of these neat little articles, representing the human figure, we may be sure she cannot refuse giving her consent to join a dance the next evening. We remark, by the way, that when, the daughter of a chief having furnished the leader of the expedition a heavy load of grain and Indian corn, he presented her with a large German doll with ruddy cheeks and long flowing blonde hair, the joy of the girl and her companions was indescribable.

The theory of medicine among these primitive people is on a level with their therapeutics. The conjurers or medicine-men are compelled to undergo a severe siege of fasts and initiation sufficient to crush all physical desires in them. One of their chief "arts" is the skilful use of poisons; hence they are greatly feared by the people, who are perfectly convinced of the fact that a conjurer kills himself with poison in order to be changed into another being. The poison is prepared from the stings of wasps, of the tocandyra ant, and of other similar insects, and mixed in a gourd with resin and vegetable oils. Human hair is also used as an ingredient to produce headache. Every disease is believed to be caused by sorcery, and the sorcerers causing them are not supposed to be in the same place with the patient, but are the medicine-men of other villages working at a distance. To become proficient in the art of shooting fish, Indians have to live an entire month solely on starch-mush. Sore eyes are treated in the most barbarous manner: the most violent inflammations are supposed to be cured by blowing tobacco smoke on them. The Indians also believe that the eyesight may be greatly improved by pulling out the eyelashes one by one.

The Brazilian Indians of the Kulisehu are great dancers. The dances, which resemble each other very much throughout the region, consist in running round in a circle, and a specially accented song accompanies each of them, the emphasis being marked by stamping of the feet. The principal dances are always performed in masks, after the bringing in of the crops, and often last all night. They take place in a special structure called the flute-house, so called on account of flutes seen hanging from the walls of the enclosure. It is a centre for all merry-makings in the villages, though for men only, as women are not allowed to enter it. Dancing is so closely identified with singing that the Bakaïri tribe use the same word for both acts (*okitavo*).

In bodily appearance the Indians do not differ much among themselves. Men and women, living constantly in the fresh, pure air of their prairies, having plenty of physical exercise, are naturally robust, stout, and healthy, though the annual heavy showers are apt to make them temporarily ill. Dr. Ehrenreich had charge of the anthropometrical department, and found an average of 161.9 centimetres for the height of 68 males measured, and 151.7 centimetres for 31 women. The Mehinakú furnished men of the most powerful stature; the Auetö all appeared to be thick-headed to a great degree. A look at the photographs will teach the general reader more than all the figures in the book combined. The men weed out their beards as effectually as possible, and also the hair on the eyelids and the pubis. They have combs, but seldom use them. Body-painting is their great delight, and a red oil made of the uruku-plant is put on the hair as well as on the body. Shaving the head is common with many tribes of South America, and was practised by them long before the tonsured European priests or monks came among them. The Coroado and Motilone derive their name from this custom, and many individuals upon the Kulisehu also indulge in it.

The women of the tribes visited are not overtaxed with work, although they carry more burdens than the men; neither are they spoiled by expressions of love and flattery, for the system of polygamy alone, if not other causes, would prevent this. Among the Bororó, conjugal relations are of a peculiar description. Family men of a settled age inhabit cabins with their families, but there is an institution called the "men's house," comprising all the unmarried men of the tribe, who separate into clubs or bands for the purpose of capturing young girls. These they bring to the "bachelors' bower," consider them common property, and live with them; but they must be careful to abduct only women who belong to their own tribe. On the Kulisehu River lawful marriages may be consummated between individuals of any tribes, for endogamy does not

exist there. The sons of a mother belong to her tribe, not to that of the father, and the authority of the mother's eldest brother is at least equal to that of the father. The *couvade* exists in the strictest form. At birth the father severs the umbilical cord with a sharp stone. He cares for the new-born infant and fasts resolutely, depriving himself chiefly of the use of fruits, meat, and fish. While the mother has resumed her daily work, he is bound to stay with the child and to fast until the severed umbilical cord has dried and fallen off. Up to this time the father is considered identical with his child.

The multitude of new facts brought to light in the present volume is no doubt very great, but most important of all is the clear and undeniable proof that Tupi, Aruak (or Maipure) and Carib are stocks distinct in race and language. The various vocabularies now obtained of these three families render it certain that they all sprang from locally different sources. It now appears that the Carib race originated far south in Brazil, and spread northward until it reached the coast north of Orinoco River. The Tupi is supposed to have sprung up in southern Brazil also, but its spread was more along the mighty rivers of the interior and along the east coast, while the Maipure or Aruak (the Nu-Aruak of Karl von den Steinen) now extends from Bolivia all the way to the Orinoco, the coast of the Caribbean Sea, the Gulf of Mexico, and was once spoken in the West India Islands. In the drainage basin of the Xingú, nine towns of the Nahuqua and eight of the Bakaïri were found to belong to the Carib stock; to the Tupi, the Kamayurá and the Auetö'; to the Maipure belong the Mehinakú, the Waurá, the Kustenaú, the Yaulapití, and the Paressí, with one town each. The languages of the Trumaí and of the Bororó stand by themselves and have not been classified. At the end of the volume will be found eleven vocabularies with German definitions, which are intended to substantiate the linguistic divisions adopted. Another chapter deals with the superstitions observed among the white residents of Cuyabá, province of Matto Grosso.

Among the more than two hundred illustrations are thirty full-page plates, in heliotype, phototype, autotype, and lithography, besides 160 illustrations in the text made from the original photographs taken by Wilhelm von den Steinen and Dr. Ehrenreich, and from drawings by Johannes Gehrts. The map (on a scale of 1:500,000) is the work of Dr. Peter Vogel.

SEX PREDOMINANCE IN HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT.

The Evolution of Woman: An Inquiry into the Dogma of her Inferiority to Man. By Eliza Burt Gamble. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1894. Pp. 356.

WHOEVER enjoys an admirable piece of argument, set forth in an admirably lucid and convincing manner, will take pleasure in Mrs. Gamble's book, even though he should remain in the end sceptical of some of the various interesting positions which she defends. Her main thesis, that the change from the coördinate, if not superior, power possessed by females in the animal kingdom, and in the early stages of savagery and barbarism, to the subjection of the sex which was introduced with the change from the matriarchal to the patriarchal form of descent, was a change for the worse, is well made out. It is possible that she exaggerates the feeling for justice and humanity possessed by women in the earlier ages of the world, and the consequent gain in progress that would have resulted if the egotism of the males had been held more in check. With reference to the latter point, however—the early divergence of the female from the common type in an altruistic direction—the facts of primitive sex-differentiation are certainly very significant. In addition to strictly sexual differences, the male acquires organs of sense or of locomotion of which the female is wholly destitute, or else he has them more highly developed, in order that he may find or reach her; or he has special organs of prehension for holding her securely. The female, on the other hand, has organs for the protection or nourishment of her young; and she is frequently provided, in addition, with organs for the good of the community. Thus the females of most bees have a special apparatus for collecting and carrying pollen, and their ovipositor is modified into a sting for the defence of the larvæ and of the community; and many similar cases could be given. While both species of differentiation act for the good of the race in the end, the modifications of the male do so by way of quick gratification of his selfish love of pleasure, those of the female by an unselfish devotion to the welfare of others. The mental accompaniments of these two forms of modification are necessarily extremely different, nor has this primitive difference changed its character with the progress of civilization.

In describing the status of women in the different periods of savagery and barbarism, and in early historic times, Mrs. Gamble makes use, for the most part, of facts which are well known, but she marshals them in a fresh order, and she has been able to throw much light upon many questions of social development which have long been subjects for discussion. Chief among these are the cause of the change from the matriarchal to the patriarchal form of descent, and the origin of wife-capture and of other later forms of marriage. The theories of other writers on these subjects Mrs. Gamble shows to have been largely vitiated by their having found it difficult to recognize the great power which necessarily accrued to the women of a tribe through the custom of recognizing descent only through the mother. And yet it is easy to find very graphic pictures of the state of things which that custom necessarily entails, in the writings of those who have lived among savages in very recent times. Thus, Ashur Wright, for many years missionary to the Senecas, wrote, in 1873:

"It is probable that some one clan predominated, the women taking in husbands, however, from the other clans. Usually the female portion ruled the house, . . . and woe to the luckless husband or lover who was too shiftless to do his share of the providing. No matter how many children or whatever goods he might have in the house, he might at any time be ordered to pick up his blanket and budge, . . . and, unless saved by the intercession of some aunt or grandmother, he must retreat to his own clan, or, as was often done, go and start a new matrimonial alliance in some other. The women were the great power among the clans, as everywhere else. They did not hesitate, when occasion required, 'to knock off the horns,' as it was technically called, from the head of a chief, and send him back to the ranks of the warriors. The original nomination of the chiefs also always rested with them."

But in spite of plenty of evidence of this kind to the truth of a state of things which would have been a reasonably safe deduction without evidence, most writers who have dealt with the subject of the early conditions of mankind have failed to observe the form of society which must have accompanied a system where kinship and all the rights of succession were traced through women. Women were the recognized heads of families or groups; paternity, though known, was disregarded; and men were dependent upon women, not only for their social privileges and tribal honors, but even for their homes. Whenever descent is in the female line, women constitute the head of the house; and in the management of the group, although the direction of affairs is delegated to the chiefs, female influence is supreme.

It was the first taste of the pleasure of having wives who were slaves that caused the spread of the custom of wife-capture, and *pari passu* with that custom proceeded the gradual institution of rights of private property in general. It is true that among some races which are far removed from the institution of the gens, women maintain their independence; but in all such cases (among the Tuaregs, for instance, in northern Africa, as we have lately pointed out in these columns) it is only where women freely inherit property that they are able to resist the masculine love of domination.

Prior to the decline of female influence, women taken prisoners in war were not regarded as the legitimate property of their captors. They were adopted into the gens and invested with the same status of personal independence enjoyed by the original members of the group. Military chieftains were in time allowed to retain their female captives as their special booty, and the gradual spread of this custom marked the decline of woman's power. As within their own tribe women exercised unqualified control over their own persons, the absolute ownership of one woman who was without influence was an object much to be desired, and one for which a warrior would not hesitate to brave the dangers of a hostile camp. In process of time, wars for wives became general, and with that came the downfall of woman's independence.

There are countries in which the three historic forms of marriage have all been in force at the same time. Arabia, at the time of Mohammed, when the numerous clans were in various stages of advancement from the second period of barbarism to civilization, presents a good field for observing the growth of the institution of marriage. In addition to marriage by capture and marriage by sale or contract (in which the woman did not forfeit, as in Rome, the claim to the protection of her kindred, and hence was able to maintain a high social position), there existed also a more ancient form of marriage known as the *sadîca*, which was a remnant of the matriarchal system. In this form of marriage, the man went to live with the wife in her tent, and any children that were born as the result of this union belonged to the mother, and became members of her *hayy*. Here we have proof of a well-established custom of that kind of marriage which naturally goes with female kinship so late as the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. (Among the Bedouins it is still a rare thing for a woman at marriage to leave her home and kindred.) But the other forms of marriage gradually prevailed, in which the husband bore the name of "lord" or "owner." Wherever this name for husband is found, we may be sure that marriage is of the second type, with male kinship, and the wife bound to the husband and following him to his home. For long ages after *ba'al* marriages had been established in Arabia, so degrading was the office of wife that women of rank were considered too great to

marry. An Arab, in later times, gives this advice to his son: "Do not marry in your own *hayy*, for that leads to ugly family quarrels." It was better to have a wife who had no claims of kin, and no brethren near her to take her part.

In Sumatra, also, there formerly existed three forms of marriage, side by side, that in which the man purchased the woman, that in which the woman purchased the man, and that in which the man and woman united by mutual consent. In Japan, among the higher classes, eldest daughters retain their own name, which their husbands are obliged to assume. An eldest son of one family cannot marry an eldest daughter of another. As regards the younger children, if the husband's family provides the house, the wife takes his name; while if the bride's family furnishes the home, the bridegroom assumes the name of the wife.

We have no space to show how much light this guiding principle, that the matriarchal form of descent involved the supremacy of the female sex, throws upon countless mysterious customs that have prevailed among various savage tribes—some of which, like *la couvade* and the hostile relations of the mother-in-law and the son-in-law, have been of extraordinarily wide distribution, and also exceedingly difficult of explanation. Mrs. Gamble's book cannot fail to produce a marked effect upon opinion concerning many important questions of primitive society. It will also be found extremely interesting by the general reader.

LUMMIS'S SPANISH PIONEERS.

The Spanish Pioneers. By Charles F. Lummis. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1893. 8vo, pp. 292.

We have here a series of sketches in which the part played by Spain in the discovery, occupation, and civilization of the New World is painted in somewhat vivid colors. Much of what is said will be new to our readers, for, humiliating as the confession may be, there are, relatively speaking, but few of us who have an adequate conception of the heroism of the conquerors, the self-devotion of the missionaries, and the wisdom of the regulations of the Spanish authorities for the protection of the Indian and his elevation in the scale of humanity. The truth is that the makers of our text-books, and, to some extent, the authors of our histories, have been so busy covering up our delinquencies and otherwise magnifying the share we have had in the mental, moral, and material development of the continent, that they have not had the time, or, perhaps, as our author intimates, they lacked the inclination, to do justice to a rival nation. To supply this deficiency, thereby enabling "a Saxon boy to learn the truth in regard to the Spanish Pioneers," these sketches are said to have been written.

Without going into details, and confining ourselves to the record made by the Spaniards in North America alone, it will be sufficient to notice briefly a few of their acts and achievements by way of giving an idea of the amount and character of the work they performed. Thus, for example, we are told, pp. 20, 24, 77, 83, 161, etc., etc., that, in the century preceding the settlements of the English at Jamestown and Plymouth Rock, they had taken possession of a good portion of the continent, and founded a number of towns and cities, among which St. Augustine and Santa Fé are within the limits of what is now the United States. Naturally enough, the conquest of all this region was attended with more or less bloodshed; but when once the question of supremacy was settled, the men of "sword and cape," as Bandelier styles them, gradually gave way to farmers and mechanics, and the Spanish Government entered upon that course of legislation which, so far as the Indian is concerned, has resulted in elevating him to the highest position he has yet attained in the scale of progress.

To enumerate a tithe of the rules and regulations that were promulgated for his benefit, were an idle task; and we content ourselves with calling attention to the ordinance which, in 1543, endowed him with all the duties and privileges of a vassal of the crown, and to those enactments which secured to him, for all time, the possession of his lands. Measures like these were not intended for effect, as has sometimes been the case with us, but they were meant to be enforced; and woe to the Spanish official who had failed to carry them out when he was called to answer before the dreaded "Residencia." Indeed, it is owing to laws made by Spain some hundreds of years ago that the Pueblo Indians of New Mexico and Arizona (p. 149) have never been disturbed, and are to-day in the full enjoyment of their homes, when almost all the other tribes within our domain, especially those that "never came fully under Spanish dominion, have been, time after time, ousted from lands our Government had solemnly given to them."

Creditable as is this showing, it is but a part of the picture, for, if we shift the canvas, we shall find that in everything that related to the moral and intellectual welfare of the natives the Spanish authorities were equally solicitous. To this end, churches were established wherever they effected a settlement, or, rather, wherever there was room for a mission, and by 1617, three years before the landing of the Pilgrims, there were eleven of them in existence in New Mexico, and, if we may credit Shea ('Catholic Missions,' p. 80), they could already count their converts by the thousand. An Indian school was started in Mexico in 1524, and as "thereafter every church and convent had one attached," it will not surprise us to learn that there were Indians among the Pueblos who could read and write, and had acquired a fair amount of mechanical training before the English colonists had reached our shores. Nor was this all that was done in the cause of education, for, taking the whole of Spanish America—north and south—into consideration, we are told (p. 24) that "three universities were nearly rounding out a century" of life when Harvard college was founded. To supply the demand for works of a suitable character, a printing-press was brought to Mexico in A. D. 1536; and in 1575, some ninety years before Eliot's Indian Bible made its appearance, a number of books in twelve different Indian languages had been published.

But it is unnecessary to pursue this subject further. Facts like these speak volumes for the "Indian system" of our neighbors; and though there have been times when the execution of their laws was far from satisfactory, yet, on the whole, the Spanish method of dealing with this question has been justified by its results. That this is so is shown by the increase of the Indian population in the past 300 years ('Archæological Tour in Mexico,' p. 12); by the school of native writers which Mexico has produced; and if further evidence on the point be required, it will be found in the fact that Juarez, a full-blooded Indian, filled acceptably the highest office in the gift of the people of Mexico in our day and generation. To appreciate the full significance of this class of facts, we have only to imagine Sitting Bull occupying the Presidential chair in Washington, and Hole-in-the-Day writing history.

In all this portion of his work, and in the greater part of that which relates to the conquest of Peru, our author may be read with pleasure and profit; but when we are asked to approve of Pizarro's share in the execution of Atahualpa, we respectfully decline—not that we think his conduct is in need of special justification, but for the reason that our author, upon his own showing, fails to make out his case. To justify a verdict such as he asks for and upon the grounds upon which he asks for it, he must first show that there was a conspiracy of the Indians to attack the Spaniards, and that Atahualpa was a party to it. It will not do to say that such a thing (pp. 265, 267) was "probable," but he must prove it. Neither will it avail him to assert that Pizarro "believed" in the rumor of an uprising, for then it will be incumbent upon him to explain why De Soto was sent out to see whether there was any foundation for the rumor; and, secondly, having been sent out, why the trial and execution were not postponed until his return. As a matter of fact, De Soto (Stevens's translation of Herrera, vol. iv., p. 277) "found only peaceful Indians," and his evidence would have cleared the Inca chieftain of the charge of conspiracy, but he did not get back until a day or two after the judgment of the court had been carried into effect. That a large majority of the Spaniards were satisfied of Atahualpa's guilt and clamored for his execution, is no doubt true; but to assert that Pizarro could not withstand this clamor, and "had to yield to the demands of his army," is to tax our credulity entirely too far. The man who remained for seven months upon an island, off the South American coast, when deserted by all but thirteen of his followers, was not likely to yield to demands of any sort, or from any quarter, unless it suited him to do so. Bearing this in mind, and judging from the evidence thus far produced, it seems probable that Pizarro had determined upon Atahualpa's death before he despatched De Soto on that bootless errand. It was, under all the circumstances, the wisest thing for him to do, and, admitting that the conquest of all that region was an important step in the progress of the world, the act may be held to have been justifiable.

In this connection it is of interest to note that in June, 1891, 350 years after his assassination, the grave of Pizarro was opened, and his body, or what was said to be his, submitted to a critical examination. It was found to be dried up, or desiccated, as is the case with the so-called Peruvian mummies, and showed what were thought to be the marks of wounds upon the arms and in the throat, the latter of which caused his death. There was also indisputable evidence of the shameful mutilation to which the body had been subjected. Among the different measurements recorded, we find that the body was 1.673 metres in height, which is somewhat "above the medium." The skull was megacephalic, or large, with a capacity of 1,715 cubic centimetres, and had an index of 83.1, which brings it among the brachycephali, or short heads. The eyes were large, the nose rather flat, and the lower jaw decidedly prognathous. The superciliary ridges and glabella were developed to a remarkable degree, and the medio occipital fossa of Lombroso was distinctly marked. From these and other indications not necessary to mention, Mr. W. J. McGee (*American Anthropologist* for January, 1894, p. 3) concludes that this head, viewed in

the light of recent researches in Italy and elsewhere, is "that of the typical criminal of to-day." This may prove to be the case, but until anthropologists are agreed as to the existence of any such typical form, a positive statement is premature. It is proper, however, to add that although the "conquest of Peru was bloody, and some of the leading acts, . . . as seen through the mists of years," are said to have been both treacherous and atrocious, yet Mr. McGee also tells us that "Pizarro may well be judged as the representative of a class necessary and good in its age, but not adjusted to the higher humanities of the present day"—a sentiment with which we should, no doubt, agree if we only knew what "these humanities" required, and could find some way to enforce their demands.

Having finished the examination and convinced themselves that the remains were all that was left of the greatest of Spanish conquerors, the body was again buried, and it now rests in the Cathedral of Lima—the city of the Kings—which was founded by Pizarro and where he was murdered.

Famous Composers and Their Works. Edited by J. K. Paine, Theodore Thomas, and Karl Klauser. Boston: J. B. Millet Co.

THE scope and object of this work can be best explained by comparing it with two other standard publications — Grove's 'Dictionary of Music and Musicians,' and Champlin and Apthorp's 'Cyclopædia of Music and Musicians.' Grove includes, in alphabetic order, articles on every musician of eminence, as well as on musical instruments, forms, schools, etc. Champlin and Apthorp do not give technical and general articles on sonata, symphony, etc., but instead of that they have provided, besides brief biographies, a special dictionary of works; operas, symphonies, songs, etc., being discussed under their own names, in separate articles. In 'Famous Composers' the plan has been followed of devoting separate articles only to the sixty-five composers most eminent in their art, the minor composers and performers being more briefly discussed in special long articles, the Netherland Masters, Music in Italy, France, Germany, Russia, Hungary, and England.

It is obvious from this arrangement that while 'Famous Composers' can, with the aid of its index, be used for reference, it is also intended for consecutive reading. It is far more liberally supplied with illustrations than any other work on music; and there is another special feature which all others lack, namely, an appendix containing as many as 472 pages of instrumental and vocal music, selected by Mr. Thomas from the works of the eminent composers described in the 960 pages of the text, and intended to illustrate the different schools and the evolution of the art. It need hardly be added that Mr. Thomas has made these selections with admirable taste and keen judgment.

The list of contributors includes twenty-one American, three English, three French, and two German writers, most of them well-known names in the musical world. Some surprise may be felt at seeing the name of Mr. John Fiske in the list, but Mr. Fiske's knowledge of music is as extensive as his love of it is ardent, and his article on Schubert is one of the most readable and suggestive in these volumes. The editor was lucky in securing the coöperation of the late Philip Spitta, whose articles on Bach, Handel, and Cherubini are models of miniature biography and criticism. Prof. Paine himself contributes two of the best articles, those on Beethoven and "Music in Germany," in which, at the risk of some repetition, he properly included, not only composers born in Germany, but such foreigners as belong to the German school. His mention of the admirable Beethoven biography by Mr. A. W. Thayer suggests the pertinent query: When will an American or English publisher have the courage to print in its original language this monumental work of an American scholar, which heretofore, strange to say, has existed only in a German translation, although the first volume appeared as long ago as 1866? The circumstance seems the stranger when we reflect that Thayer's work is quite equal to Spitta's 'Bach' and Jahn's 'Mozart,' of which translations have been printed, while Thayer's original copy is ignored, although Beethoven is much more popular to-day than Mozart or Bach.

The article on Beethoven (the biographic part of which is by Mr. Philip Hale) contains no fewer than eight portraits of the master. In the article on Mozart, there is a great abundance of pictures illustrating his childhood. Prof. Paine's opinions of Brahms, Liszt, and Wagner, "the Napoleon of Music" (598, 599) will interest all readers. Although he considers the symphonic poem invented by Liszt inferior to the symphonic form, he admits that it is "a welcome addition to modern music." Of Brahms he says:

> "Brahms has no living peer in the art of developing themes; here he shows wonderful ingenuity and infinite skill. In general, however, his themes do not captivate us like the heaven-born melodies of Schubert and Schumann. Strength, purity, nobility, and profundity of thought, rather than sensuous beauty, grace, lightness, naturalness, and spontaneousness, are his leading characteristics as a composer. A certain heaviness of spirit and gloom, nay, asceticism, prevail in his music."

Prof. Paine believes that Germany will continue to lead in the musical world. He has wisely followed the plan of assigning each composer to a writer especially in sympathy with his subject, evidently in the belief that occasional indiscriminate praise is preferable to unjust censure and deliberate suppression of merits. In a few instances, however, this principle has led to rather unfortunate results, as in the article on Meyerbeer, who is now almost universally considered one-third genius and two-thirds charlatan, whereas M. Pougin leads the reader to suppose that he was all genius, and his ideal, art for its own sake instead of the applause of the multitude. M. Pougin is equally unfortunate in some of his remarks on Rossini, of whose thirty-nine operas all but three have been hopelessly shelved, while M. Pougin nevertheless says that his music is "as young and fresh as when it first appeared, eighty years ago." But the height of absurdity is reached in the statement that "it is Rossini to whom we owe the richness and the splendors of the modern dramatic orchestra"! Here the editorial blue pencil would not have been out of place, and the same must be said of the conclusion of the late John S. Dwight's article on Mendelssohn, where he draws up a list of the eight greatest composers of all time—Bach, Handel, Mozart, and Beethoven for the first four; Schubert and Schumann for the next two; and for the last two the choice between Haydn, Gluck, Weber, *Cherubini*, and *Rossini*, leaving two of the four greatest of all composers—Wagner and Chopin—out in the cold! This was Mr. Dwight's parting shot at a stupid world which stubbornly refused to believe with him that music came to an end with Schumann.

Another place where the editorial blue pencil was called for is in the article on Saint-Saëns, in which the writer, without any explanation and in a misleading way, quotes a foolish youthful opinion of Wagner on Bellini, diametrically opposed to the convictions of his manhood. The special article on Wagner is unfortunately one of the least satisfactory in the whole collection. It had been assigned to Dr. Langhans of Berlin, who, however, was already suffering from his fatal illness and did not do himself justice. It was then given to Mr. Henderson, who has succeeded in the seemingly impossible task of making the romantic life of Wagner tiresome reading. The information is all at second and third hand, and, incredible as it may seem in an article of fifty-six columns, only twenty-eight lines are devoted to the Nibelung Festival at Bayreuth, and no mention at all is made of the unique Bayreuth theatre and its epoch-making innovations, which would have interested readers a thousand times more than the long disquisitions on the origin of the drama and other pedantic matter. It is gratifying, however, to see (from pp. 562, 565) that Mr. Henderson has at last discovered that there is nothing obscure in the meaning of leading motives, since they are always explained by the poem, and that harsh emotions call for harsh music.

Of the general articles the driest is that on France by M. Pougin, and the most difficult one that on music in America, by Mr. H. E. Krehbiel. In the article on music in Russia, Poland, Scandinavia, and Hungary, the opinion is advanced that, besides Wagnerism, the most pervasive influence in the music of to-day comes from those border-lands of Europe. In enumerating the famous musicians of Hungary the writer of this article made one serious omission—the name of the famous pianist Stephen Heller.

History of the Philosophy of History: Historical Philosophy in France, and French Belgium and Switzerland. By Robert Flint. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1894.

IN 1874 Prof. Flint published in one volume a history of the philosophy of history in France and Germany, promising later a similar account of the historical philosophy of England and Italy, presumably also to be in one volume. Pressure of work in other directions prevented the fulfilment of that promise, and now the plan has been taken up afresh from the beginning. The present volume is a new edition of that part of the first which related to France, and it is to be followed by two others, completing the original purpose. The general plan of the work and the order of treatment, with some slight exceptions, remain the same in this volume, but the enlargement is very great and affects all parts of the book. The first edition devoted 330 pages to France; the present volume contains 706 slightly larger pages. The original introduction, one of the most interesting and instructive portions of the book, filled 62 pages; it has now grown to 172. Bossuet received 12 pages, and now has 19. Saint-Simon and Fourier had 16, and now have 28, with 30 pages added on other writers of the socialistic school. Comte and his disciples had 26 pages, and now have 87. A number of writers passed over in the first edition are here considered in greater or less fulness, the most important and interesting of these additions being the criticism of the historical philosophy of M. Renouvier.

The introduction is followed by a rapid

sketch of classical, early Christian, and mediæval theories regarding history. Bodin, who died in 1596, is the earliest French thinker to be criticised in detail. It is only in the eighteenth century, however, that there comes to be a great body of historical philosophy, and among the writers of that century the author discusses at length the theories of Montesquieu, Turgot, Voltaire, Rousseau, Condillac, and Condorcet. More than one-half the volume is devoted to the nineteenth century, and its writers are grouped in schools—the socialistic school of Saint-Simon and his followers; the spiritualistic school of Cousin and Jouffroy; the democratic school of Guizot and Quinet; the positivist, and finally the critical school, whose most eminent example Prof. Flint considers to be Renouvier. A brief sketch of historical philosophy in Belgium and Switzerland is added.

There is no attempt in this book to set forth the author's own theory of the philosophy of history, except in so far as it may be indicated in his criticism of the theories of others. The work is rather in the nature of a preliminary study, a careful examination and criticism of all the chief theories which have been advanced in the past, as a basis for the formation of a new theory which shall profit by their excellences and avoid their defects.

One of the most interesting and fundamental questions considered in the introduction is the difference between the terms philosophy and science as applied to history—in other words, the question of the existence of a philosophy of history at all. The author believes such a distinction to exist, but confesses (p. 21) that the only one which seems to him admissible is so little a distinction of nature that it is of no importance which term is used; and throughout the book he makes no real distinction. See, for example, his treatment of Aristotle, Bossuet, and Comte. What he is discussing all the time is properly the science of history, whatever term he may use. The distinction which he seems inclined to make is either that between the science in itself and the science in its relation to other sciences, or that made by John Stuart Mill between the science itself and the science of its methods of investigation. But neither of these is a real distinction of kind. It is at most only the distinction between a higher and a lower kind of science. The material and the processes, the character of the evidence, and the nature of the problems are alike in both. One is just as truly science as the other, and the use of the word philosophy for the higher form of science is merely a disappearing survival.

The only distinction between philosophy and science which is based upon the historical use of the words as distinguished from their use by particular writers indicates a difference of method, and limits philosophy to those fields of knowledge where, at any given time, metaphysical and speculative methods are the only means of investigation. It is a consciousness of this distinction which has led to a gradual dropping of "philosophy" and to the substitution for it of "science" in many departments of knowledge, as it has become evident that strictly inductive methods may be employed in the field in question, and that its phenomena are the expression of ascertainable laws. This is a process of substitution which has gone on very rapidly in the last half-century, and familiar examples of the old terms, now no longer employed, like natural philosophy, mental philosophy, or political philosophy, will readily occur to any one in middle life. Some libraries, in their system of book classification, still make economics a subdivision of philosophy. That men's conceptions of history and their methods of studying it are changing in the same way is beyond question, and no better proof of it could be given than is to be found in this volume. It is not clear, indeed, why the word philosophy should not be now entirely abandoned as a name for the sort of investigation of history which Prof. Flint has in mind.

There remains, however, the question whether there are not problems of a different kind; problems which, in the very nature of the case, no amount of scientific progress can ever subject to the methods of strict inductive investigation, and yet in regard to which such a degree of knowledge, acquired by other means, will be possible as to lead to common agreement about them, although our ignorance regarding preliminary problems may have made such an agreement impossible in the past. If so, there will be seen to be in the end a distinction between philosophy and science which is one of kind and not of degree merely; and if so, the philosophy of history as distinguished from the science of history will be a most important and fruitful subject of inquiry. As much work has been done in the philosophy of this sort by the great seers of the past as in the other by the great analyzers, though it is as yet apparently less productive and less completely systematized into a single body of truth. The real work of Hegel is no more of the same sort as John Stuart Mill's—though necessarily traversing some of the same ground—than the work of Beethoven is of the same kind as a scientific treatise on harmony; and it is, for the present at least, as impossible for an exclusively scientific mind to understand a philosophy of this sort as it would be for a Zulu really to appreciate the Third Symphony. The final philosophy of history, if there is to be one as distinct from the science, will no doubt be produced by a mind of this order; but it must be admitted that, for the present, philosophizing of this sort about history can lead to no profitable results.

It is evident that Prof. Flint's mind is distinctly scientific. It is critical, analytic, logical. He has a comprehensive and firm grasp of a complicated system of ideas—clear intellectual insight—but he lacks that peculiar sympathetic and imaginative insight which characterizes the great constructive thinker. Even as a critic his standpoint is wholly external, the standpoint of the dissecting-table. This character of mind is not only evident in his discussion of the individual systems, but is largely responsible for the adoption of such a method as this in preparation of his own philosophy of history, and also for his own confessed inability to follow the more organic method of tracing the development of historical philosophy as a whole instead of nation by nation. The statement that the more general method would result in "an incessant and intolerable leaping from one country to another" reveals the mind which analyzes. This is, however, on the whole, a most beneficial limitation for work of this sort. There is certainly no case in the present volume where it leads to such conspicuous failure to grasp the real significance of a system as is to be found in some cases in the German portion of the earlier work. It is a peculiar fact that, while the French historians have so often yielded to the temptation to philosophize, no Frenchman has produced a philosophy of history of the higher sort. Comte's system is that which has had the greatest influence upon the world at large, and that is wholly a system of the scientific school. It is, consequently, in this volume that Prof. Flint is at his best; he has made an exceedingly valuable book for all who are interested in its subject. It is to be hoped that there will be no delay in the publication of the later volumes, and especially none in the publication of his own philosophy of history.

A History of the United States Navy from 1775 to 1893. By Edgar Stanton Maclay, A.M. Vol. I. D. Appleton & Co. 1894.

THIS work supplies the need long existing for a consecutive history of the navy from the beginning of the war of the Revolution to the close of the war of the Rebellion. Fenimore Cooper's History not only has been for a long time out of print, but has become both meagre and unsatisfactory. Mr. Maclay has had the advantage, which he has partly used, of the revival in American historical research, and he has had opportunities afforded him of personal investigation in the library of the British Museum and also in the archives of the French Ministry of Marine in Paris. Besides this he has gathered information bearing upon the war of 1812 from private sources in Great Britain. The result is a narrative much more full and interesting than Cooper, as well as more accurate. This is especially the case in the account given of the quasi-French war, as may be supposed, and also the wars with the Barbary States.

The present volume extends from the beginning of our Revolution to the end of the cruise of the *Essex* in Valparaiso harbor in the second war with Great Britain, though a brief mention of naval operations in colonial times is given in the first chapter, which is partly devoted to the discussion of the aptitude of the American people for the sea from the earliest days. This aptitude is claimed as our inheritance from our Spanish, Portuguese, French, Dutch, and English ancestors; but it was, of course, fostered by the circumstances and location of our settled region, which bordered so closely the western waters of the North Atlantic and its navigable estuaries. It is to be hoped that it will reassert itself with an extending commerce and the settlement of our Pacific Coast territory. There is no doubt, however, that our internal development, the decline of our shipping in consequence of the war of the Rebellion and the high-tariff policy, and the introduction of steam have caused a great diminution in the number of native-born Americans following the sea. It is a notable fact that a very large proportion of men now in our navy, in our mercantile marine, and even on board of our fishing and yachting craft, are foreign-born. The New England fishing fleet is to a great extent manned from the maritime provinces of Canada, while the north-countrymen of Europe, who largely man our yachts, still generally hold allegiance to their native countries. The apprentice system is but an insignificant factor in the supply of Americans to the general naval service, and other methods are under discussion for Americanizing both our naval and mercantile marine.

The author does well in calling attention to the great services rendered by the navy during the Revolution. This service, though not brilliant, was none the less effective, and was appreciated by Washington, who depended greatly, in the early days of the war, upon the military and other supplies brought in by the State and Congressional cruisers. Much damage was done to the commerce of Great Britain by these craft and also by privateers.

Service in the latter being more lucrative, the Congressional vessels before long suffered from want of seamen. The scarcity was increased by the policy adopted by the British Government of refusing to exchange the American seamen who became prisoners, and hence the famous Jersey prison ship, with its tenders, became overcrowded with unfortunate seamen. The cruises of Biddle, Wickes, Conyngham, and Paul Jones were among those especially effective in commerce-destroying. No vital result, however, ensued from this kind of warfare: British commerce was not annihilated, the author to the contrary notwithstanding, and the command of the sea along our coasts, insisted upon by Washington as an indispensable necessity, was secured only when the superior fleets of the French gave us the sea power that led to the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown. The remarkable sea-fight between the *Bon Homme Richard* and the *Serapis* is well described by the author in graphic but moderate language. It was not only the great sea action of the Revolution, but one of the most brilliant in modern history. Alike creditable in the courage and endurance shown by victor and vanquished, it was extraordinary also in the almost exact equality of the great loss incurred in killed and wounded on board the two ships.

What is known as the French war, covering the years 1798 to 1800, found us with something of a regular naval force, especially with respect to frigates, and as a result, during these hostilities, the frigate actions were well fought and successful. This war afloat forms a remarkable case of hostilities extending over a long period without any previous or formal declaration of war. In this part of the narrative we get fresh information from French sources that adds much to its interest.

More brilliant pages in American naval history soon followed in the war in the Mediterranean against the Barbary States. No more distinguished individual action has taken place in the naval service than those of Somers and Decatur; and as for the small squadron of operations, we can do no better than to quote Nelson's remarks in regard to Capt. Dale's squadron, when he said that "there is in the handling of those transatlantic ships a nucleus of trouble for the navy of Great Britain." It is a pity that the names of Somers, Decatur, and Dale should not have been revived in the nomenclature given to our modern vessels of the navy.

The war with Great Britain was declared with but seventeen vessels in the United States Navy capable of taking the sea. The story of the part that this small force bore in this war is one most gratifying to Americans. The author tells it, as far as it is contained in this volume, in a full, perhaps too full, manner. There is somewhat of a lack of perspective here, but the interest is sustained throughout. The brilliancy of the frigate and single-ship actions upon the sea has always overshadowed the powerful effect of the great naval supremacy of Great Britain as shown in the coast blockade and outside patrol. The only historian who has seemed to appreciate the effect of this blockade has been Mr. Henry Adams. The Treasury of the United States became bankrupt not only from the loss of customs duties, but also from the inability of people to pay taxes, owing to the loss of foreign markets. Jefferson writes at this time: "How can a people who cannot get fifty cents a bushel for their wheat, while they pay twelve dollars for their salt, pay five times the amount of taxes they ever paid before?"

The present volume ends, as we have said, with the cruise of the *Essex* and her capture in the bay of Valparaiso. Porter's mistake as a commerce-destroyer was his return to Valparaiso at a time when he was likely to find a strong force in pursuit. Had he continued his cruise to the East Indies and around the world, his injuries to the commerce of the enemy would have been much greater and his own safety less endangered.

Landscape Gardening in Japan. By Josiah Conder, F.R.S., B A. And a Supplement to the same. Tokio. 1893. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

THE preface to this quarto volume of one hundred and sixty pages recites that "the present work is an exposition of the rules and theories of the Art of Landscape Gardening in Japan (as followed from ancient to modern times), so far as they can be gathered from a study of native authorities, added to personal observation of the best remaining examples." The book is divided into twelve chapters, treating of the history and design of Japanese gardens, and such special topics as enclosures, lakes, bridges, lanterns, and the all-important garden stones. The work is illustrated by twelve inartistic but highly instructive full-page lithographic plates, and by about one hundred woodcuts from drawings by a skilful native draughtsman. A supplementary volume of the same size as the original book contains forty admirable collotype reproductions from beautiful photographs of Japanese scenery and gardens, with appropriate descriptive notes. The two volumes taken together present the most complete and just account of Japanese gardening which has yet appeared.

In different lands and climates mankind naturally develops differing ideas concerning pleasantness and beauty in the surroundings of dwellings. The Italians of the Renaissance, much as they may have enjoyed the beauty of natural scenery, strove after architectural beauty in the near neighborhood of their country palaces, and created those hedged, terraced, and richly adorned gardens which Mr. C. A. Platt has recently pictured so charmingly. The ideals and achievements of the Japanese in this field have apparently been just the opposite of the Italian. The Japanese have long been ardent worshippers of the beauty of wild nature. Many carefully preserved scenes of natural loveliness or grandeur are found throughout the land. Every cultivated person is supposed to be acquainted with them, and with the legends and associations which attach to them. When Japanese gentlemen have desired to make pleasure grounds about their houses, they have accordingly been led to attempt to remind themselves of these famous natural landscapes. With a childlikeness which is strange to us, they have surrounded their dwellings with miniature imitations or models of the scenery of renowned lakes, rivers, mountains, and even sea-shores. One garden suggests the river scenery at Tatsuta, while another pictures the charms of the islands of the Inland Sea. In the one stands the Hall of the Lovely Springtime, in the other the House of the Sound of the Sea. To the initiated a Japanese garden is a poem as well as a picture. Shapes of hills, hollows, lakes, islands, and chosen stones hint of scenes, legends, associations, and national memories innumerable. The "stone of worship" forms a station from which the best view is obtained. "It is a broad, flat stone upon which one stands in a posture of veneration." The lore of the stones is endless. On the slopes of the tiny mountains are seen the base stones, the path stones, and the summit stones, as well as the mist-enveloped stone and the propitious-cloud stone. By the waterside may be found "the beach of the view of the moonrise," and on the shores of the sand islands lie the sea-gull resting stones, the mandarin-duck stones, the wild-wave stones, and hosts of others of varying significance.

It is evident that the imitation of nature is by no means strictly realistic. It is imitation subject to convention and selection. The model of the native scenery is followed with exaggeration of the characteristic. On the other hand these pleasure grounds are seldom disfigured by hybrid or incongruous elements. The common tendency to make the garden a mere display of wealth by overcrowding it with collections of rare plants and costly stones is denounced by Japanese writers. Beds of flowers for cutting, collections of chrysanthemums and peonies, and groves of plums and cherries, of all of which the Japanese are very fond, are faithfully set apart from the poetic or landscape garden, which is always regarded as a retreat for secluded ease and meditation. Many of the pictures of these retreats in Mr. Conder's second volume are very lovely. Quiet and falling water, boulders and tangled shrubbery here compose delightful scenes. With much which to us must seem childish, quaint, or unintelligible, there is mingled so much real beauty that no lover of the arts and of landscape can afford to omit an inspection of these volumes.

The Englishman at Home. By Edward Porritt. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 1894.

AN unnecessarily ambitious title is here given to an excellent little book on English government and administration. Its author has had a wide journalistic experience on both sides of the Atlantic, as London editor of a provincial daily paper and as "special correspondent" in America; he knows just what the American who takes an intelligent interest in English politics ought to be told; and he tells it simply and clearly without unnecessary verbiage. A merit of the book is that it begins with chapters on "Municipal Government," "The Poor Law and its Administration," and "National Elementary Education," before describing the Central Executive and Parliament. We know of no work which gives so interesting and plain an account of vestries, boards of guardians, and school-boards. One of the most striking results of the democratic movement towards social reform that has been going on of late in England is the new life that has flowed into these modest administrative bodies; and Mr. Porritt has been able to treat them as now forming conscious parts of the greater whole which includes Parliament in a way that would have been impossible a few years ago. The book is also useful for the account it gives of the changes of the last few years, since the publication of the "English Citizen Series." Among the most significant of these are the attempts now being made by the Treasury Department at Whitehall, by the London County Council, by the London School Board, and by most of the large municipalities both to regulate sub-contracting so as to diminish the evils of sweating, and to secure the payment of standard wages to those indirectly employed by them.

We have found little to criticise except the very occasional use of a term capable of being misunderstood, as, *e. g.*, on p. 179, where the

author speaks in the same breath of the "office" of First Lord of the Treasury and of the "office" of leader of the House—where "office" is used in two very different senses. We could have wished, also, that Mr. Porritt had explained that, "in unions where out-door relief is not granted" and where we are given to understand that the case of "old people of good character" is "peculiarly hard" (p. 49), the place of public relief is usually taken by private charity systematized by the Charity Organization committee. The whole economic theory of the C. O. S. is indeed open to criticism; but it is only fair to say that many poor-law reformers would never have advocated the abolition of out-door relief had they not expected that the deserving poor would be assisted, in what they deemed a better way, by the C. O. S. And although the C. O. S. is theoretically a private society, there is in many places, such as Whitechapel and Oxford, a degree of coöperation between the local committee and the Board of Guardians which makes organized charity a recognized part of the national system of poor relief.

Pictures in Prose. By Aubyn Trevor-Battye. Longmans, Green & Co. 1894.

In this volume, which deals with "nature, wild sport, and humble life," Mr. Battye has collected some papers which have appeared in *Longmans' Magazine* and the *Saturday Review*. His title is to some extent misleading, for he is easily moved to verse, and not a few of his pictures are presented in metrical form. This is to be regretted, because the reader is led to expect prose, and may properly object to the introduction of very mediocre verse without due notice. Moreover, Mr. Battye exhibits remarkable skill and the most delicate word-painting in his prose, and his aptitude in this direction increases the disappointing effect of his poetry. His keen enjoyment of nature can hardly fail to arouse sympathetic enthusiasm, his knowledge of the habits of animals is minute and varied, and he has the happy faculty of reproducing scenery with photographic vividness. But the loving study of nature is not enough to justify versification in the absence of that rhythmic power which is the essential attribute of the poet; and of the possession of this power Mr. Battye gives no indication.

The first, and perhaps the best, of his pictures shows the busy life of a trapper and lumberman in a Scandinavian forest, and tells with much pathos how a favorite daughter lost her way and was found by her frantic father killed by one of his own dead-fall traps. Then the scene shifts to England, to the strange little island of Canvey, which, though only thirty miles from London, is but little known to Londoners, and is remarkable for the curiously Dutch appearance of its houses and people. Thence we are taken to Manitoba, and enjoy a stirring account of a moose hunt, together with some sensible reflections on the Indian problem from the Canadian point of view. And, finally, we return to England to spend pleasant summer days on the upper river at Oxford, and to watch the strange ways of sand-martins, and water-rats, and many other birds and beasts. About all these things Mr. Battye writes well, for he writes with accurate knowledge and an overflowing heart; and the city-bred reader who cannot reach the fountain-head, may yet slake his thirst for natural beauty in the clear stream of his description.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, S. B. A Moral Blot. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Boyesen, Prof. H. H. Literary and Social Silhouettes. Harpers. $1.
Castlemon, Harry. Oscar in Africa. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Douglas, R. K. Society in China. London: A. D. Innes & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $4.50.
Ebers, Georg. Cleopatra: A Romance. 2 vols. Appletons. $1.50.
Fraser, Prof. A. C. Locke's Essay on the Understanding. 2 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Gale, Norman. Cricket Songs. London: Methuen & Co.
Howells, W. D. The Mouse-Trap: A Farce. Harpers. 50 cents.
James, Henry. Theatricals: Two Comedies. Harpers. $1.75.
Johnston, W. P. My Garden Walk. New Orleans: F. F. Hansel & Co.
Maeterlinck, Maurice. Trois Petits Drames pour Marionettes. Brussels: Edmond Deman; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.
McCarthy, Justin. Red Diamonds. Appletons.
Nototovitch, N. The Unknown Life of Jesus Christ. Rand, McNally & Co.
Outing. Vol. XVIII. The Outing Co.
Patterson, Capt. Howard. The Navigator's Pocket-Book. Scribners. $2.
Quental, Anthero de. Sixty-four Sonnets. London: David Nutt.
Ross, Albert. Love at Seventy. G. W. Dillingham.
Scott, Sir W. The Fair Maid of Perth. [Dryburgh Edition.] Edinburgh: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Smith, Prof. C. F. Thucydides. Book III. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.75.
Tillier, Claude. Belle-Plante and Cornelius. The Merriam Co. $1.25.
Trail, Florence. Under the Second Renaissance. Buffalo: C. W. Moulton. $1.
Wright, Mabel O. The Friendship of Nature. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Yriarte, Charles. Livre de Souvenirs de Maso di Bartolommeo. Paris: J. Rothschild.

By the late Prof. McLaughlin of Yale:

MARLOWE, Edward II., and Selections from Tamburlaine and the Poems. With Intro. and Notes, clo., 75c. Bds. 50c.

LITERARY CRITICISM. Selections from Sidney to Pater. With Intro. and Notes. $1.25.

Other English Readings:

COLERIDGE, Prose Selections, ed. by Prof. Beers of Yale, 40c.

DE QUINCY, Joan of Arc, The English Mail Coach, ed. by Prof. Hart of Cornell. 40c.

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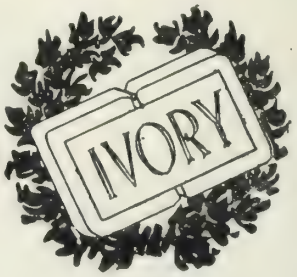

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 21, 1894.

The Week.

THE Senate Democrats, with all their shortcomings, with all their backing and filling, have found their last ditch in the free-wool paragraph. Wool is to go on the free list if the tariff bill passes at all. To recede from this position would bring the whole measure into boundless contempt. The effect would be worse if possible than the surrender to the Sugar Trust, because the party has been denouncing the wool duties for fifteen years and vowing to repeal them whenever it should have the power to do so. To compromise now, or to come short of repeal, would be self-stultification so open, so disgraceful, so indefensible, that the party would not have a rag of defence left. It is part of the Democratic creed that duties on wool are a damage to the wool-grower himself, and that is the truth, as the statistics of the industry show. It is free wool, therefore, or no bill. The country will have a chance for about four years to see which policy is the better one for grower and manufacturer, and when the result is before us we shall all be wiser.

It has been left for a Populist in the United States Senate to enunciate true Democratic doctrine on the tariff. The speech delivered by Mr. Kyle of South Dakota last week was in the main a most sensible deliverance, and his position is in very refreshing contrast with that of the protectionists who have been masquerading as tariff-reformers until the matter finally came to an issue. Mr. Kyle represents a sheep-raising State, but he declared that he was not afraid of free wool, and he insisted that South Dakota could produce wool as cheaply as Australia or South America. Senator Hawley of Connecticut tried one of the familiar protectionist dodges by asking if it made no difference to Mr. Kyle whether the woollen goods used by his constituents were made in this country or in Europe. But the South Dakota Senator answered this very neatly by reminding his Connecticut colleague that the manufacturers of New England felt so little interest in the question of nationalities that they had practically driven out the American operatives in their mills and filled their places with imported foreigners, so that a visitor to a New England manufacturing town could walk for a dozen blocks there without hearing the English language spoken. One feels like forgiving a good deal of folly to a Populist when he can talk such good sense as this on a vital issue.

The following gem from Mr. Havemeyer's testimony before the Senate committee which is examining the Sugar Trust, we take from the *Tribune*:

"In fact," said Senator Allen, "the very purpose of the formation of the Trust, as I understand you, was to advance the price of sugar to the American consumer?"

"Yes, sir," was the frank response.

"And the American consumer is to-day paying three-eighths of a cent a pound on refined sugars more than he would be compelled to pay under a system of free (or separate) refineries?"

"Yes, sir."

It was practically conceded in the McKinley bill that as regards sugar the tariff is a tax, and that the consumer pays it. As to all or most other things, such as wool, tin plate, pearl buttons, lumber, steel rails, etc., the opposite rule prevails; that is, the tariff is not a tax, or, if it is, the foreigner pays it. The reason why a different rule prevails as to sugar, it is not easy to show, following the principles of Aristotle's logic, and for this reason it has been only half accepted by the Republican party. But Mr. Havemeyer has really shattered their doll baby. He has knocked out the sawdust so completely that they can never believe in it again. Some of them may even ask themselves whether the same reasoning does not apply to wool as to sugar.

The anti-option bill has come around again. It proceeds on the assumption that a great many sales of wheat, cotton, etc., are made without any corresponding purchases, and that the excess of sales over purchases causes a decline in the market prices of these articles. A similar idea took possession of Congress once during the war. It was conceived that sales of greenbacks for future delivery, or purchases of gold (which were the same thing), caused the decline in the value of greenbacks. So a bill was passed prohibiting all trading in gold and greenbacks unless it were accompanied by the immediate manual delivery of the things, and unless it were done at the private offices of traders—there must be no trading at an exchange or common meeting-place. The result of this sapient law was that the gold quotation, which had hitherto risen only by small degrees, now began to advance by leaps and bounds. Within a few days Congress became so alarmed at the consequences that it repealed this anti-option bill without debate. Then gold went back to its former price, or something near it. There were no more anti-option bills during the war. The fate of the pending bill may be safely predicted.

The statement transmitted to Congress by the director of the mint deserves the careful attention of those silverites who have been claiming that the production of gold could not keep pace with the demand for the metal. Mr. Preston estimates the yield of gold mines in the United States during 1893 at $35,955,000, as compared with $33,014,981 in 1892. This country still holds the first place in the list of gold-producing nations, but the output in the rest of the world last year was the largest in history. The total production in 1893 was about one-sixth larger than the annual average of the period of the greatest productiveness of the California and Australian mines, and the value of the gold available for monetary purposes last year was greater than the total value of both gold and silver available for such purposes in the period just preceding the depreciation of silver. The director of the mint expects an increase of the gold output this year over the record for 1893, and his opinion is sustained by the multiplying reports in the Western press of the opening of new gold mines, and larger production from old ones. The theory that there is not going to be gold enough to "go around" for the world's business seems to be effectually disposed of.

There has been so little for civil-service-reformers to rejoice over of late that an unexpected sign of progress in the Treasury Department will be the more warmly welcomed. Secretary Carlisle has just taken from collectors of customs, who are purely political officials, the authority to nominate persons for appointment as keepers and assistant keepers of lighthouses, and given it to the inspectors of the several lighthouse districts, who are naval officers. This action, according to Capt. Evans, naval secretary of the Lighthouse Board, "absolutely takes the lighthouse service out of politics," as the inspectors will recommend only fit and proper persons for keepers and assistant keepers, regardless of political pressure. The lighthouse service will thus take its place alongside of the life-saving service, which has always been kept out of politics. In other words, it is now accepted as settled that civil-service reform is good for people who have been wrecked or are in danger of that fate. Some day it may be considered reasonable to allow people who stay on land the same assurance of efficient service.

Looking back over the six weeks' soft-coal strike in Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, now practically ended, one truth stands out conspicuously—the disastrous effects of bad leadership. Laboring men are proving the economists to be correct in magnifying the import-

ance of the manager in all large enterprises. A man who can win success for a corporation is worthy of a large share in the common rewards. It is rare to find among the trades-union leaders that executive ability which takes particular note of general trade conditions as well as of local requirements. The conspicuous lack in the labor combinations from a business point of view is good leadership. Workingmen could better afford to pay some real leader—who need not be a laboring man—a large salary than go on strike for six weeks and face starvation, only to find defeat inevitable at the end.

The strike has revived the feeling in favor of further restrictions upon immigration. Nine-tenths of the trouble has come from men of foreign birth, and usually of the lowest European races. There was a noteworthy case in Illinois where fire broke out in a mine after the strike, and a vote was taken among the strikers as to whether they would allow efforts to stop its progress. The American-born miners favored saving the property, while the foreign-born forbade it and carried their point, being in a large majority. There seems to be a considerable sentiment in favor of restrictive legislation among the more intelligent men of alien birth in this country, especially as the diminished immigration which we now receive comes very largely from the most ignorant and debased regions of Europe. But the politicians are very shy of the subject. A proposition to put a restrictive plank in the platform of the Kansas Republican State convention was brought before the committee for discussion, and received some support, but the majority feared that it might offend the "foreign vote," and decided against its insertion.

We hope the public, in view of the revelations going on before the Lexow committee, will not overlook the extent to which guilty knowledge of this state of things must have prevailed. Take Gilroy's case, for example. He professes great horror and astonishment over the corruption of the police which has been laid bare; but does any rational man suppose that, considering he was living in the closest intimacy with "Barney" Martin, who was indicted for bribery just before he appointed him a deputy commissioner of public works, Gilroy knew nothing of what "Jimmy" was up to on the Police Board? The commissioners had for years been selling everything they could lay their hands on; and everybody connected, either nearly or remotely, with politics must have known of it in a general way, but Gilroy undoubtedly knew the details. The poison ran through nearly the whole community. Take the press for example. The police advertising, which is reported to be worth $20,000 a year, has been used always as an instrument of corruption. Elliott Shepard undoubtedly had reason for believing that the commissioners were purchasable when he suggested to his agent to get the advertising from them at a discount of $5,000. In fact, he pronounced them "weak," and said they would "yield easily." We do not wish to make too much of the *Tribune's* present of wine to Commissioner McClave. It is not unnatural that a newspaper should make a present of wine to a good advertiser. But the trouble here was that the advertising was not McClave's to give; and when wine was sent him every Christmas, it was undoubtedly in the belief that it would affect his discharge of a public duty. In truth, the greatest curse of having Tammany in all the public offices has been that it has compelled everybody who wanted anything, however rightful or harmless, from the government of the city to pay for it in cash or its equivalent. The government in fact became a huge market, in which the officers might well have sat at little tables and sold their wares openly. Two years ago there was a widespread belief that this state of things would go on indefinitely. Apologists for Tammany began to appear in every direction, and if Croker had not chosen to make such an open display of his wealth, it would probably have lasted a few years longer.

Now that the Wiman trial is over, it is difficult to see why the accused made any defence. In fact, there was no defence to make. The only plausible explanation of his course is that he forgot the letters of confession he had written to Mr. Dun, or thought they had been destroyed. It would have been far wiser if he had acknowledged technical guilt, pleaded extenuating circumstances, of which there are some, and thrown himself on the mercy of the court and the prosecutors. The result of attempting to meet such a charge and such proof in the way it was met, was to drive Mr. Wiman's counsel into subterfuges and equivocations and fallacies which we feel quite sure they will in calmer moments regret. General Tracy's objection to the production by Mr. Dun of Mr. Wiman's letter of confession as a violation of confidence, which Judge Ingraham so hastily and properly brushed aside, can hardly have been seriously meant. And was it wise for a gentleman of Mr. Tracy's standing to dwell on the "slender thread" by which many eminent citizens have been saved from the State prison, as a reason why an eminent citizen should not be convicted on the clearest proof? Is it not certain that the lesson the young business men of the country will draw from this is that the main thing is not so much to be honest as not to be found out, and that if a man gets "involved," whatever he does to escape is excusable? And what on earth had the Beecher letters to do with the Wiman letters? Beecher never confessed guilt. He wrote letters on which his enemies put an unfavorable construction, but he never said, "I committed the offence; I am very sorry, and I beg your pardon." And what is to be said of the suggestion that the result of the trial might be that Mr. Dun, like Tilton, would become an exile, despised of men and a wanderer in foreign lands? Surely this is advocacy gone mad.

Without attempting to weigh too nicely the utterances of counsel pleading for a man's fortune and honor, it seems to us it is going a little too far to say, when the offence cannot be denied, that it is no great offence, after all. At this point the public has rights which cannot be overlooked. Counsel may say a man did not forge, or that he forged under stress of circumstances and deserves pity, but he ought not to tell us that forgery is not much of a crime if the man is hard pushed, and that many of our prominent men when in "a tight place" have felt it necessary to resort to it. What Mr. Dun is to blame for is for not paying more attention to his affairs after he found out that Mr. Wiman was loose in money matters and needed to be put under restrictions. He allowed him to enforce his own restrictions, and left the business generally in such a condition that Wiman, who was already under suspicion, was able to carry overdrafts of more than $100,000 for over a year without having it known.

The country has incurred a serious loss in the death of William Walter Phelps. The most notable feature of his career was the deep and laborious interest which he, a man of great wealth, always took in public affairs. Inheriting his estate, it would have been nothing unusual had he devoted his money to selfish purposes and his time to his own pleasure. It seemed to come natural, however, to Mr. Phelps to interest himself in all matters which concerned the public welfare. The thousands of dollars which he spent on the roads and parks in his private grounds were really a gift to the public, since all these roads and grounds are as free as those of Central Park. He regarded all the offices which he held as places of trust, and was as assiduous in studying the questions which came up in Congress when he was a member as is any student in preparing himself for a college examination. He always felt, too, that it was the duty of every good citizen to accept an office which he was capable of filling if it was offered to him. This was the secret of his acceptance last year of a judgeship in the Court

of Errors in New Jersey. Gov. Werts, wishing to rid that court of the incubus of laymen which his predecessors had put upon it, asked Mr. Phelps to accept an appointment, because in doing so he would assist the Governor in emphasizing the propriety of selecting judges both without regard to partisanship and with regard to legal ability. It was this consideration, and not any mere desire to add a judgeship to his other titles, that induced Mr. Phelps to accept the appointment. In a national campaign in which his sympathies were thoroughly enlisted, he was a partisan of partisans, but so thoroughly had he won the friendship of the people of his county that he was always certain of a majority of their votes when himself a candidate.

It seems likely that Massachusetts will make a trial of the Norwegian liquor system. A bill allowing the experiment to be made was passed by the House some weeks ago, and the Senate concurred on Friday, while the Governor is understood to favor the policy. As amended, the measure simply gives permission to apply the system in such cities and towns as have voted to license the sale of liquor two successive years, so that only about thirty places in the State come within its scope, and a special vote must be taken on the question before it can be introduced in one of these. The extreme prohibitionists and the liquor-dealers will doubtless continue their present opposition in such local contests; but public sentiment is so strongly in favor of seeing how it will work that it is sure of a trial in more than one municipality. The results will be watched with no less interest outside of the State than by Massachusetts people.

The late Sultan of Morocco made, probably in deference to European ideas, the greatest mistake of his life in not killing his brothers according to the time-honored Oriental practice. The Sultan's crown under the Mussulman law descends to the eldest male of the family, who, on the death of the reigning sovereign, would naturally be one of his brothers, if he had any; his son would thus be shut out. To prevent this *contretemps*, it was in old times, and, in fact, down to comparatively recent times, the custom either to kill the brothers or to put out their eyes. Muley Hassan, the late Sultan, neglected this wholesome custom, and left the crown to his son, with regents to assist him during the first five years of his reign. But the brother Muley Ismail has claimed it, and has taken the field in assertion of his claim, and, as he has been long prominent in Moroccan affairs, he will probably have a strong following and give Muley Abdul Aziz a great deal of trouble unless the European powers interfere. The European residents are, however, very anxious that there should be no interference until they can get away, as it would probably lead to the massacre and plunder of foreigners if the Mohammedans got excited against the infidels.

The world is so well used to disputes between England and France, in which much ink is shed and defiances exchanged, but which end peacefully enough, that it is hard to take such quarrels very seriously. Still, though the present one will probably terminate, like so many others, in a compromise and a treaty, there are several reasons which make it more than commonly dangerous. The prize at stake is larger than usual; and though it is perfectly possible to divide on paper the immense regions between Lake Chad and the Nile, it will be very difficult to reconcile France's ambition to reach the Nile from the west and England's to stretch to Lake Chad from the east. More important, however, is the fact that this cause of contention is but one of several, while some of those settled in the past have left behind them seeds of ill will. The various partition treaties in Africa have not given, and could not give, complete satisfaction to either party; the problem of the Newfoundland fisheries is no nearer solution than ever; the dangerous Egyptian question, which has made bad blood for many years, is mixed up withthe present dispute; and only a few months ago the French treatment of Siam excited much anger on both sides of the Chan nel, and expressions of dislike not yet forgotten. We may have more Siamese trouble at any moment, and now the death of the Sultan of Morocco opens up new possibilities of a conflict of rival ambitions.

Still another disquieting element is the situation of the two countries to-day. France is in a better position for a quarrel with Great Britain than she has been since 1870. Not only is she in fine military condition, but almost for the first time since the Franco-Prussian war she can feel free to turn her attention elsewhere without the certainty of Continental complications as soon as she has begun. Italy, though involved in the African dispute, is not strong enough to take active part without Ger man assistance, which she is unlikely to have. The Germans do not love England, who has steadily refused to commit herself to the Triple Alliance; they are in a bad temper about the covetousness of New Zealand for Samoa; they are not pleased with the Anglo-Belgian treaty which has caused the present trouble, and above all they are not going to run terrible risks for the sake of others, if the Czar gives them to understand that meddling on their part would mean a general conflagration, as there is plenty of reason for thinking that in case of need he would. As for the British Government, though apt to be peaceably inclined in its dealings with great powers, it is less to be trusted than usual. Altogether, while it would be too hasty to jump to the conclusion that the peace of the world is seriously imperilled, there is good ground for watching anxiously the developments of the latest international falling out.

The cable annouucement that the Hungarian upper house may reject the civil-marriage bill once more is not likely to prove correct, as it is now within the power of Dr. Wekerle to break the spirit of the Opposition by the creation of as many new life peers as may be necessary in order to secure a majority for the bill. The timid protest of Count Zichy against the coercion of the House of Magnates will avail as little as the defiant interpellations of Herr Ugron, the leader of the Ultramontanes in the lower house. The magnitude of Dr. Wekerle's triumph is perhaps without a parallel in the annals of any European country, for in every constitutional monarchy the right of the sovereign to object to the retention of a minister obnoxious to him on personal grounds has hitherto always been respected. And yet the Hungarian premier insisted upon the retention of Herr Szilágyi, the minister of justice, after Francis Joseph had declared to the president of the House of Deputies, Baron Banffy, that he would under no circumstances allow Herr Szilágyi to become a member of the new cabinet.

Many influential members of the Hungarian Liberal party, as well as the leading organs of the Liberals of Cisleithania, whose sympathies were altogether with the Hungarian ministry, advised Dr. Wekerle to drop Herr Szilágyi, but he remained inflexible. Szilágyi, more than any other man, had been the creator of the civil-marriage bill, had defended it with matchless eloquence in the parliamentary debates, and had been designated by the premier to carry to their logical conclusion the ecclesiastical reforms upon which he has set his heart. He had somewhat unjustly incurred the suspicion of radicalism, owing to some unguarded expressions, in the heat of debate, during the national demonstrations over Kossuth's obsequies. The King has now endeared himself more than ever to the Hungarians by his loyalty to the constitution, especially since, as a faithful son of the Church, it went hard with him to disregard the express wishes of the Pope on the subject of the civil-marriage bill.

SUGAR IN POLITICS.

THE testimony of Mr. H. O. Havemeyer before the Senate committee touching his relations and those of the Sugar Trust to politics resembles that of the late Jay Gould on a similar occasion. Mr. Gould was asked on what principles he made his contributions to political parties in the State of New York. He replied that in a Republican county he was a Republican, in a Democratic county he was a Democrat, and in a doubtful county he was doubtful, but he was always an Erie Railroad man. Mr. Havemeyer acknowledged that he had contributed to both the Democratic and the Republican State campaign funds. He did not acknowledge any contributions to national-committee funds, nor did he deny such contributions. He said it was customary to make such contributions—it had been customary before the Trust was formed and since. When asked why it was customary, he said:

"We have large interests in this State, police protection and fire protection. We need everything that the city furnishes and gives, and we have to support these things. Every individual and corporation, and firm, Trust or whatever you call it, does these things, and we do them."

This statement was followed by another question and answer, viz.:

"Senator Allen—And you contribute to both parties with the expectation that, whichever party succeeds, your interests are well guarded?

"Mr. Havemeyer—We have a good deal of protection for our contributions. Contributions were also given to the Republican party in Massachusetts. It is my impression that wherever there is a dominant party, wherever the majority is very large, that is the party that gets the contribution, because that is the party which controls the local matters."

It will be gratifying news to the politicians of both parties to know that they can rely on contributions from "every individual and corporation and firm, Trust or whatever you call it," whether belonging to their own party or not. It would have been the greatest possible boon to the late John J. O'Brien if he had been at liberty to call on Democrats as well as Republicans for contributions of this kind, on the ground that police protection and fire protection were furnished by the two parties in their separate character as political organizations, and not in their joint capacity as members of a common government. The question will naturally arise what becomes of those individuals, firms, corporations, Trusts, etc., that restrict their contributions to only one party, and especially of those who contribute to no party—for we believe, in spite of Mr. Havemeyer's superior knowledge, that some of them absolutely refuse to make any contributions whatever. Do these stand in greater danger from burglary and conflagration than others? If they do, the subject is one which calls for the early attention of the Constitutional Convention.

It is evident that Mr. Havemeyer meant that such campaign contributions are made by persons or corporations which depend more or less upon legislation for their profits, not that they are made by everybody who has a warehouse or shop exposed to burglary or fire. At all events, we know, and the public knows, that all business men and concerns, except the smallest fraction, contribute nothing to campaign funds except to the party to which they are attached and whose principles they desire to promote. The idea of contributing to both parties never occurs to them unless they expect to get something besides police and fire protection. If they expect tariff protection also, they may in a few rare instances contribute to both, but generally they will contribute only to the party that believes in tariff protection and makes it a part of its creed. In a case like that of the Sugar Trust, where the amount at stake is very large, we might expect to see an anchor thrown to windward in the form of a contribution to the Democratic party. This is on the principle of speaking the devil fair because you don't know into whose hands you may fall.

Messrs. Havemeyer and Searles refuse to make a full exhibit of their campaign contributions. They restrict themselves to saying that they contribute to both parties, and that they contribute only to State campaigns, not national ones. This does not mean that they refuse to contribute in years when national elections are held, but that they pay their money to the State committees instead of the national committees. In New York, for example, they would pay to Tammany Hall or to Chairman Hackett, but would never furnish a dollar to the national committees of either party. They would confidently rely on the State committees to see that no part of the money aided in the election of Congressmen or President, although the election for State officers took place the same day and on the same ticket. If this is really what is meant by the discrimination they make between national and local politics, they betray a simplicity in worldly things which must have charmed the Tammany committee on organization two years ago, and Quay and Wanamaker at an earlier period.

Another point brought out by Senator Allen is worth the whole cost of the investigation. It is embraced in the following brief colloquy:

"Mr. Havemeyer—The American Sugar Refining Company has no politics of any kind.

"Senator Allen—Only the politics of business?

"Mr. Havemeyer—Only the politics of business."

This means that the company would as soon buy one party as the other, and the context shows that it is in the habit of doing so. The *Tribune*, we observe, does not relish this kind of testimony. It wants Mr. Havemeyer to say that he buys the Democrats (locally) oftener than he does the Republicans, or that he pays more for them. For this reason the *Tribune* regrets that Mr. Havemeyer does not show his books. "We wish," says this candid paper, "that the committee might have insisted upon having the books produced and the facts disclosed in detail. If this had been done, it would have appeared that there was a large balance of Trust money, we are confident, to be charged against the Democratic party, independently of the private subscriptions made by the refiners towards Mr. Cleveland's reëlection." Then it quotes Mr. Chauncey Depew, whose face has always been set against the corrupt use of money in politics, as saying boldly that the Republican party would meet the Democrats more than half way in any legislation which would stop abuses in the raising and distribution of money by campaign committees. We should be pleased to see Mr. Depew and Gov. Flower measuring the distance between themselves, so that neither one should gain any moral advantage by going more than half way.

The remedy proposed by the *Tribune* for all these evils, however, does not go far enough. "If it could be shown," it says, "that both political parties have been equally at fault in receiving financial aid from a powerful Trust which is dependent to a large degree upon tariff legislation, the strongest possible argument would be supplied for a radical reform of methods in conducting national and congressional campaigns. That would be a movement in the right direction, and it would have the *Tribune's* heartiest approval." Would it not be better to cut off the source of the contributions instead of trying vainly to control the disbursements? The payment of money by the Trust, or any other protected interest, to either or both parties, is simply corrupting the people with their own money. We fix a tariff to enable certain persons to pocket $20,000,000 in three years on a capital of $50,000,000 (largely water), and when they pay about 1 per cent. of this sum to politicians for a continuance of the favor, we say that really the laws ought to be changed so as to prevent the wicked politicians from taking the money. Would it not be wiser to take away from the other people all motive for paying it?

WHAT IT HAS ALL COME TO.

WE should like to ask any sincere and well-intentioned tariff man whether he could hope, in the existing condition of human nature, for a more complete experiment in protection than we have had in this country. We have had thirty years of rule by a protectionist party, which made such alterations in the tariff, twenty-five in all, as it thought

proper, and ended in the highest as well as most carefully studied tariff ever invented by civilized man. Could the system be tried under more favorable conditions than these? Is it likely that it ever will be tried under conditions half so favorable in any civilized country? It must be remembered, too, that in order to be really successful in the highest sense of the term, a tariff must produce such plain and unquestionable prosperity as to make the great bulk of the people love it and cling to it. It must not depend on what the newspapers or the lecturers or stump orators say, for its utility. It must commend itself to the public beyond peradventure as the greatest cause of industrial activity and success. People must not only say, "How happy we are," but "How happy our tariff has made us."

Now let us see where our thirty years of tariff have left us. In that time, so far from the whole community being won over to protection, a large and powerful party has risen up against it, and succeeded twice in electing a low-tariff or free-trade President and Congress, both pledged to getting rid of the protective system, and has filled the land with denunciations of this system, both in principle and practice.

But if it has not succeeded in winning over the people to its support, perhaps it has done something to purify political life and bring the most intelligent men of the country to the work of administering the government. On the contrary, it has supplied us with a Senate which does not contain a single really eminent man, which is largely composed of millionaires revelling in fortunes of dubious origin, who have had within a fortnight to submit to the immense humiliation of an individual examination as to whether they have not been speculating in the Stock Exchange on their own legislation. In fact, were we to judge of the tariff by the condition of Congress, we should say it had driven most really distinguished men out of public life.

But perhaps if it has not purified politics, it has improved the condition of the laborer by increasing his wages and attaching him to the industrial system which the tariff fosters. By no means. It has, on the contrary, filled the mines and factories with hundreds of thousands of half-civilized foreigners drawn from the lowest races of Europe, who live in a state of savage and chronic discontent, are not only bitterly hostile to their employers but to the social organization which shelters them, and fill the land, month by month, with strikes, riots, murders, arsons, boycotts, train robberies, obstruction of highways, and defiance of the constituted authorities.

Well, if it has not contented the laboring class, perhaps it has reconciled the farmers, who are, after all, the bone and sinew of the country, to the protective system, by showing them the factory beside the farm, and the operative consuming greedily at high prices their garden-truck and hogs and hominy and wheat. Nothing of the sort, again. The farmers throughout the West and South not only are full of exasperation against the people who lend them money and build railroads for them, but have abandoned the American theory of government wholly, and taken up the modern European or paternal one, which expects the Government to find a market for the producer, in which prices will be high for those who sell and low for those who buy, and to provide them with cheap money of high purchasing power—in other words, money which will be easy to get and yet hard to spend.

In short, we do not recall in human history an experiment more completely tried, and of which the results are plainer, than our protective experiment, except that of absolute monarchy in France, and the one has produced almost as great moral chaos as the other. The country is full of the anti-social, anarchical, and crazy ideas of the power of Government which preceded the French Revolution, and they have grown out of the thirty years of protection as plainly as the French ones grew out of fifty years of licentious despotism. Not the least diverting part of the prevailing folly is the high-tariff attempt to fasten the responsibility of it all on the free-traders, as if it was not the function of a tariff to silence and rout free-traders by the display of its own beneficence. The number of theories which in practice would make the world happy if the wicked would only cease from troubling, is immense. But how to muzzle the wicked is a chief part of the problem of reform.

"THE SCRAMBLE FOR GOLD."

OUR friends the bimetallists have been for now fully fifteen years predicting a "scramble for gold," and, as a result of the scramble, a terrible financial convulsion, which some of them went so far as to say would break up the framework of society and imperil our civilization itself. As the years roll by and this convulsion does not take place, and the world goes on much in the old way, their position naturally becomes more and more embarrassing. It is for this reason, Mr. Mulhall says in the last *Contemporary Review*, that they hold a convention or conference nearly every year to keep people in mind of their existence and let them know that the scramble is still coming. They are very like the Fifth Monarchy men and the Second Adventists in the difficulty they have in waking up a perishing world. It is in vain that they are reminded that the actual use of gold, except to settle international balances, has almost ceased, and that the world's supply is rapidly increasing, and that there is no more sign of competition for it than there was twenty years ago. They still continue to wail and warn, to form associations and clubs, and to denounce the "dishonor" of silver.

Mr. Raffalovitch, the Russian economist, a member of the Brussels Conference and one of the highest financial authorities of the day, has undertaken to cheer them up in the last number of the *Économiste Français*. He says to them in substance that in the middle of May the Bank of France had $352,000,000 of gold, the Bank of England had $165,000,000; that is to say, France had $10,000,000 more than at the same time last year and England $47,000,000 more, while New York had sent over nearly $6,000,000—voluntarily, be it remembered; no clubbing, or fighting, or use of the army or navy. New York just shipped it peaceably, because it did not want it itself.

But how about the supply from the mines? Mr. Soetbeer says that while the average annual production from 1881 to 1889 was 160,000 kilos, the production from 1889 to 1892 was 183,000 kilos. M. Raffalovitch calculates that after the arts have taken their share of this there remain 60,000 to 70,000 kilos for monetary purposes, which he considers amply sufficient. One of the strange delusions of the bimetallists is that the governments of the world have to supply people with metallic money. The fact is that the people supply themselves with metallic money just as they supply themselves with trousers or boots. That is to say, when there is such a demand for gold money that something is to be made by having gold coined, they carry it to the mint and get it coined, and thus the gold currency is increased to the extent demanded. They do not go to the mint and say: "I see the scarcity of gold is increasing, and I fear a terrible crisis is at hand if our Government does not step in and restore silver to its old place of honor; therefore, I have brought you a little gold I happen to have on hand, to have it coined so as to postpone, if possible, the impending catastrophe. It is not much, but [weeping] it is my little all." They simply deposit it and ask to have the value in coin, and find they make a little profit by the transaction, and over this, instead of weeping, they grin.

May be, however, there are signs of the scramble in India, where silver has been so much depreciated. Not at all. On the contrary, hoarded gold has begun to appear in the bazaars as an article of merchandise. India produces from 2,000 to 3,000 kilos annually, and she is now keeping the whole of it. Russia produces about 30,000 kilos annually. She used to export two-thirds of this; she now

keeps it all. Australia is exporting more than usual. She is keeping only 15 to 20 per cent. of her annual production of 40,000 kilos. Nowhere is there any sign of a scramble. The nations of the world which produce gold are simply turning more of it than formerly into coin.

When any nation, or—as this is a deceptive phrase—when the money-dealers of any nation find there is a demand for gold, and that they can make a trifle by importing it, the first thing they do is to look around for the stock which it will cost least to transport. For instance, when Rumania wants gold, she goes to Germany for it; when Germany wants it, she goes to London, and sometimes directly to New York. London is a great gold market, because dealers who find they cannot employ their bullion profitably turn it into the Bank of England in exchange for bank notes, so that the bank is almost always ready to supply purchasers. The great movements of gold through the world are regulated, as the movements of currency are here, by the local demand. For instance, gold may have to go to Egypt during the cotton season, to Brazil during the coffee season, to Argentina during the wheat season, and so on. But the sum which goes to any of them is small. They take their pay mostly in other products, and gold is used only to square the accounts, if there be a balance on either side.

No European nation appears as yet to have discovered bad moral qualities in gold. It goes wherever it is sent without a murmur or sign of resistance, and displays, so far as is known, no partiality for any nation in particular, or for any class of society. It has never displayed the slightest unworthy jealousy of silver, nor objected to being used as a mere settler of balances, instead of a full currency, which it might very well have done. One thing, however, it does resent, and that is being talked of as a rich man's money which is of no use to a poor man. It has more than once asked indignantly when did a poor man get less for a five-dollar gold piece or a sovereign than a rich man? There is, we need hardly say, no such case on record. And it objects more and more to its association with heartlessness and greed, because it has been so much used in literature as a synonym for all money, and for the robber's and the miser's motive.

NATURAL FRUITS.

THE proof that the usual price of admission to the police force in this city has for years been $300 is now overwhelming. It has been a matter of common knowledge for nearly twenty years, but for the first time proof in abundance has been adduced. That this amount went to police headquarters has also been shown very clearly, various witnesses testifying before the Senate committee that an extra charge of from $10 to $50 is made for persons acting as intermediaries between the commissioners and the applicants. On the first day of his testimony McClave said that during the ten years that he had been a commissioner he had appointed about 1,000 policemen. Here is a gross income from that source alone of $300,000, or $30,000 a year. It is well known that the appointments are divided up equally among the commissioners, each having his proportion of the vacancies to be filled. This is so open a practice that the commissioners speak without reserve of the habit which prevails among them of "borrowing an appointment" from one another from time to time. When McClave takes the stand again he should be given an opportunity to explain what portion of this $300,000 he was able to retain for himself—whether he kept it all or with whom he shared it. The other commissioners should be given similar opportunities when they take the stand.

A new phase of police iniquity was revealed on Friday. There are in this city between thirty-five and forty Bohemian saloons, it seems, which do a small business and are not able to pay the regular police tariff of $5 a month for the privilege of selling on Sunday. At the suggestion of a "ward man" they formed an association, and paid tribute of $100 a month in a body. When the membership increased, the ward man raised the sum to $125. This monthly tribute went through the ward man to the police captain, who figured on the minutes of the association's meetings as the "Great Pantata," or Father of Law. In the minds of the Bohemians, who were slowly and painfully acquiring a knowledge of American institutions, the Great Pantata stood for the dispenser of Sunday law in the first city of the New World. What their name for the police justice is was not revealed, but it would be curious and instructive to know what place in American government they assign to him.

It has further been shown, with great plausibility, and with a fulness of detail which was itself convincing, that, in addition to collecting revenues from liquor, vice, and crime, the police have also been collecting a fixed revenue from swindling. A "green-goods" operator of many years' standing, who has been a professional criminal from childhood, gave a minute and apparently frank account of the way in which that extreme form of swindling is carried on, saying that although his picture is in the Rogues' Gallery, and although he is in consequence well known to the police and detectives, he has never been interfered with while pursuing his calling as a "steerer," though he has often passed them with a victim or "guy" in tow, they sometimes nodding to him as he went along. He gave also the names of the principal "green goods" operators and their places of business, saying that he had been warned by the police to keep out of the precinct of the chief of them, McNally, who has been in the business since 1886, and has accumulated between $75,000 and $100,000 from it. He declared that New York is the only city in the country in which there is such a thing as police protection for the green-goods business. Everywhere else the green-goods men work in fear of the police. "Here the 'steerer' or the 'turner' is all right if he has the proper backer." The cost of this "protection" he understood to be 5 per cent. of the profits. All he knew was that 5 per cent. was held back, avowedly for the police, and that he got protection. He was arrested several times for picking pockets, but never molested while openly prosecuting the green-goods business.

This revelation has naturally caused a profound sensation, for of all forms of swindling this of the green-goods trick has long been considered the most infamous. Yet the step from collecting revenue on liquor-selling, gambling, and vice to collecting revenue on swindling is not such a long one. A police official who will accept from the hand of a prostitute a share in the profits of her shame, cannot be expected to be squeamish about receiving a dividend from the hand of a swindler. Why should the blackmailer who has once entered upon the practice stop short of any possible application of it? Why should we be surprised at any development of depravity in a police force which is itself founded in blackmail?

It is maintained by the partisan Republicans of the "straight ticket" variety that all these revelations are due to Tammany depravity, or Democratic depravity, and that a straight Republican municipal administration is the only kind that can give us reform. This is not true. The present condition of the Police Department is the natural fruit of a quarter of a century of bi-partisan administration. Ten years ago, when the Police Board was composed of two Republicans and two Democrats, with one of the Republicans, "Steve" French, president of the board, the Roosevelt investigating committee opened its report on the department with a declaration: "At the outset the committee found a fatal defect in the present system, namely, the fact that the commission is four-headed. There should be but one commissioner, who should either be appointed to hold during good behavior, or else should take and leave office with the mayor appointing him. There is absolutely not a single advantage in having four heads, while the disadvantages are innumerable." The report went on to hint at the blackmailing which is now revealed,

and to put the responsibility upon the four-headed commission. Ten years have passed since then, and every effort to get rid of the four-headed system has been defeated by the Republicans. Last January, when the Legislature came together, Dr. Parkhurst and President Smith of the Chamber of Commerce took the lead in a demand for a single-headed system, but the Republican majority, under the dictation of Boss Platt and the *Tribune*, refused to allow the change to be made, and devoted all their energies to the permanent establishment of the bi-partisan, four-headed system. Because of that Republican policy no change was made.

THE FALISCAN MUSEUM AT ROME.—I.

ROME, April, 1894.

THROUGH all the financial difficulties and deficits with which the Italian Government has had to struggle during the past few years, there has always been a place reserved, an appropriation admitted, for the prosecution of those studies into antiquity the results of which are so important a part of the moral capital of Italy, as well as so large a contribution to the attractions to students of the great winter resort of Europe. During the stringent and almost paralyzing economies of the past two years, means have been found to arrange, and in fact create, two of the most interesting museums in the peninsula, of which one is perhaps the most interesting, from the archæological point of view, that exists in Europe. This, the Faliscan Museum at the old villa of Pope Julius III., was indeed the last important effort of Italian archæology before the regrettable necessity became evident of suppressing all expenditure which had not an imperious economic demand or an inexorable constituency to insist on its retention; and its definite organization was the last work of the scholar and historian who held the post of minister of public instruction in the late Italian ministry, Prof. Villari, the biographer of Machiavelli and Savonarola, who, as a student of history, recognized the value of the discoveries on the site of Faleria, as revealing one chapter of Italian prehistory so unexpected, in the light it has thrown on that history, that it compels us to rewrite it almost entirely.

For a number of years past the department of antiquities of the ministry has been engaged in drawing up an archæological map of the peninsula, by which the results of research could be better collated and the direction of it better determined. It is an immense work, hardly to be completed in a generation, and now suspended, but it has already given indication of work for generations of students. The number of sites to be explored, and the archæological wealth thus far indicated in them, are almost incredible. The fortunate choice of Faleria, as an example of the way in which this exploration ought to be carried on, was decided by the observation of the convergence of several ancient roads on the site, and the acute conclusion on the part of the archæological surveyor, Count Cozzi, and the efficient head of the department of antiquities, Prof. Bernabei, that this great convergence indicated a special importance in the city, or shrine, to which they led. The identification of the site as that of Faleria, destroyed by the Romans B. C. 241, was long ago made, and the city, being one of the so-called Etruscan league, has naturally been considered Etruscan, though the traditions were opposed to such an attribution.

As has often happened before, the testimony of archæology has come to the confirmation of the primitive tradition, and the excavations at Faleria have the value not only of being a model of the manner in which such investigations should be carried on, but of showing that our former notions of the Etruscan state were entirely mistaken, so far as the supposed league was concerned, and that we must admit into the history of Italian civilization an element which has hitherto been regarded as a poetic legend. The itineraries made it easy to identify this site, with its mural remains and evident importance, so near to the later Falerii, as that of which the ancient authors wrote as the seat of the great shrine of Juno, built by a colony of Argives in imitation of the Heræum at Argos, before the Trojan war. But it was only in 1886 that systematic excavations were commenced, in consequence of workmen, in search of building-stone, having unearthed a quantity of blocks of antique cutting in one of the gorges which constituted the natural defence of the city; for in these remains the authorities recognized the ruins of a temple. The work then initiated has resulted in the formation of the Faliscan Museum, in which the finds have been arranged as a model for the collections, which it is hoped in time to form, of other localities of historical and archæological interest, firstly in local groups, and in each group according to the chronological sequence of the tombs; each locality in the system having a suite of rooms devoted to, or destined for, it. This arrangement enables the student at the beginning of his studies to follow that part of the record which belongs to Faleria and its kindred towns, so far as explored, from the earliest period to the Roman conquest. The report, drawn up by Prof. Barnabei, and to be published by the Academy of the Lincei, will contain the legitimate conclusions from the discoveries, of which I anticipate a part.

The excavations began with the clearing away of the ruins I have referred to, and which had been with great probability identified with those of the Argive temple, by Gammurini (*Notizie delle Scavi*, March, 1887). The classical allusions are sufficiently full and clear to put this point beyond serious question, but what is of peculiar interest is the interpretation we must give to the relation between those remains of the common early Italic civilization and the evidences of the presence on this spot of a Greek population, where universal belief in our own day had determined the presence of an Etruscan. The general and dominant character of the Italic finds everywhere is the presence of the hut-urn and well-tombs; and the occurrence of these over the entire extent of the central and southern part of the peninsula, being wholly distinct from the form of burial shown in the Sicanian graves of western Sicily, and the still more widely different Siculian tombs found in the known range of the Siculi in eastern Sicily and southern Italy, is a proof presumptive of the chronological precedence of the race to which they belonged over the Siculi, of whose existence, range, and character we have historical evidence coming down to the Greek colonization of Sicily, and of their having been expelled by a composite stock from the continent. But the hut-urn, symbol of this phase of the Italian development (which, following the Italian archæologists, I have designated as Italic) is not, at Faleria, found in its primitive form, but rather in a derived, conventional form, the well-tomb being retained, with a survival of the hut in the roof stone.

This induced Cozza to conclude that the site was not the original one of the Italic population, and to search in the neighborhood for another of earlier date. He found at a point above Faleria the ruins of a city, unknown to tradition, which he concluded to have been abandoned about two centuries before the destruction of Faleria. This was Narce, a strong hill-site higher up the valley, but still far from the head of it, and, like Faleria, showing conventionalized and late Italic remains from the first, so that the evidence was still to seek of a purely Italic and primitive civilization. This was found finally in the traces of what must have been an important seat of the Italic power, which was abandoned during the continuance of the primitive phase. It is at Monte S. Angelo, at the head of the valley, where the necropolis is of the pure Villanova type, undisturbed by the foreign invasions of Faleria and Narce. It may be imagined that the town on Monte S. Angelo had been subjugated by an invading race, which afterwards moved down to and occupied Narce and Faleria at nearly contemporary dates, and in the latter place completed its development of the problem of civilization, as far, at least, as it had been carried at the date of the Roman conquest. The find at Narce is richer in the intermediate objective, but has no other distinctive testimony to bear of what that was, so that it may be classed entirely with Faleria.

What this Italic race, or amalgamation of races, may have been, it is not necessary to conjecture here, and the period at which it flourished can only be conjectured here or elsewhere—there is no datum on which chronology can seize. What is of moment to us is the certain evidence that there was a colonization of some Greek stock which dominated the Faliscan country at so early a date that the Etruscans never obtained a footing there. And if we consider that the Trojan was a Greek race, there may thus be given a solid basis for the tradition which Virgil preserves of the colonization of the Tiber valley by the refugees from Troy. Without attempting, like Martelli, to interpret the legends with historical precision, we are now able to show that, except for possible partial and late local invasions, such as that of Porsena, there has never been any establishment of Etruscan authority or peculiar civilization south of the Ciminian range, and that in all probability Veii and Tarquinia were, if ever Etruscan, only so during the later period of the independence of Etruria before the Roman conquest.

W. J. STILLMAN.

A FRENCH PROVINCIAL CITY.

MONTPELLIER, May 8, 1894.

WHY should foreigners ever come to Montpellier? All our neighbors have more to offer them: at Agde they find Greek types, in the descendants of the ancient colonists; at Arles and Nîmes are the great Roman remains; Algues-Mortes has a prison tower, Avignon has walls, Lunel shows bull fights. We are surprised when any stranger passes by these famous places and descends at our quiet station; and perhaps we do not too much encourage him. He must make up his mind to leave the main lines of travel, to get his Paris newspapers twenty-four hours late, and never to see a *Times*. Our banks make short work of his suspicious attempts to draw money upon that mysterious document which he calls a "letter of credit"; our hotels hold out no delusive

promises of "English comfort." Indeed, English is a language so remote that in this city of 80,000 people he will not find three persons who can converse in it. The Bulgarians and our friends the Russians send their children freely to our schools and universities, but it is forty years since the English deserted us for Cannes and Nice.

Perhaps, however, the infrequent visitors like a city which is as French as Orléans and much further removed from the influence of the capital; perhaps they are interested in Languedoc, which preserved its Estates down to 1789, or in the neighboring Cévennes, stronghold of French Protestantism; perhaps they admire the habile and generous people of the Midi; perhaps they find here an agreeable climate, a pleasant countryside, a refined and hospitable university circle, and an abiding-place in a warm-hearted French family, among lively French-chattering young people. Possibly even people who have been in Monte Carlo and might be in Paris, prefer Montpellier. Or is it simply the reputation of our Peyrou which attracts them? The Peyrou, our municipal promenade and park, is, at any rate, our chief pride, and every right-minded Montpellieraine considers it superior to the similar "Fontaine" at Nîmes, and in his own thoughts compares it with Versailles; though, of course, Versailles has no view of the Mediterranean and Cévennes. The Peyrou occupies a plateau of half-a-dozen acres in the highest part of the city, and no one is allowed to put up buildings high enough to cut off the view. From it the eye ranges across the green flats of the vineyards, which are our wealth, towards the sea, and on the other side one follows the splendid arcade of the aqueduct inland over pleasant hills to the more distant rounded masses of white and naked rock, which are characteristic of the Cévennes, and which roll up to the huge dolomitic Pic St. Loup.

Around the Peyrou sweeps the city, which boasts of little except its situation and its prosperity. We are but a modern place, founded only eleven centuries ago, and we have destroyed most of the monuments of our own history. Of our walls but a single gate and tower are left. Still, we are proud of our cathedral, with its famous vaulted portico, and of our Jardin des Plantes, founded by Henry IV. Our Rue Nationale, leading from the Peyrou through the triumphal arch of Louis XIV., might almost be mistaken for the unfashionable end of the Boulevard St. Germain, and our boulevards much resemble the exterior circle in Paris. On the Place de la Comédie, the centre of civic life, stands our new municipal theatre; it is of course inferior to the temples of the dramatic art which the opulent municipalities of New York and Chicago have doubtless erected for the instruction and delight of their citizens; but strangers consider it a superb building, a monument of the French sense of architectural form and power of decoration. Within the circle of handsome new streets is a labyrinth of narrow and ill-smelling lanes, where are still a few vestiges of the mediæval town. But we Montpellieraines avoid the old quarter, and look with some disfavor on the projected tramway system which threatens our favorite boulevards.

It would ill become us to describe our own peculiarities as a people, the more so because we have no very marked outward characteristics. The only picturesque elements of street life are an occasional lady in Arlesian coif, a peasant woman in lace cap, a carter in the southern blue cap resembling a Scotch bonnet, cracking his whip over the three horses, in enormous pointed collars, which so honestly draw the heavily laden wine-cart. Even the blouse is not very common, and our students have nearly left off wearing the distinctive velvet "berrette." We have no desire to appear different from other civilized people; we have Paris fashions for our women and London styles for our young men.

As to our character, you must be warned against taking that humorous Monsieur Daudet's books as describing us. Possibly to the calm observer we seem to use a prodigious quantity of gesture and to talk with express-train rapidity. Of course French is our tongue, and the foreign ear detects no significant difference in the accent of Montpellieraines and Parisians; but we do not forget that Languedoc is also a language. The various time-honored dialects (some people call them patois) are still alive in the villages. We have "joyaux" and a "consistoire félibréen," and flatter ourselves that we are restoring the Provençal and its kindred forms to literary use. But when, last Sunday night, we held a "félibrige Montpellieraine," and recited "poésies" and rendered a play translated from Molière into the speech of "Mont Pelié," nobody came to hear, and many among us think it all child's play. We are not Languedocians, we are essentially Frenchmen, fair types of Frenchmen throughout the Republic.

Nevertheless we are in no sense Parisians: we are simple rural Frenchmen, having neither commerce nor manufactures. The town rests upon the shopkeepers, very numerous, who live upon their sales to the peasants, and the peasants are nearly all vine-growers—hence the phylloxera did us immense harm. Now that, after an expenditure equal to the value of the land, the American stocks are producing again, the price of wine has fallen to such a point that some proprietors cannot get two sous a litre for their year's product. At least our own libations are not expensive, and the proverbial thrift of our race keeps up our prosperity, even in these hard times.

We may fairly claim also to be an intelligent and well-educated people. Our Department of the Hérault has had only one illiterate born in the department out of the whole levy of conscripts for a year. Besides the private schools, chiefly Catholic or Protestant, we have a system of public instruction which takes the infant in his cradle into the public day nursery, and carries him through the public kindergarten up to the Écoles Primaires Supérieures (not on any account to be confused with the Écoles Primaires Élémentaires Supérieures), and at nineteen sends him forth a well-trained youth. Or he may early diverge into the fee-receiving lycées, and thus advance to the public university. Perhaps a stranger might think that the methods are too effective, that the work is all cut out for the pupils, and that they are not trained to think for themselves; perhaps also the formal lessons in ethics defeat their own object by substituting a set of phrases—"justice," "self-respect," and the like—for a healthy following of good examples. As for the lycées, nothing is easier than to make a study of them which might be useful for an American. All that is necessary is to apply to the Rector of the University, titular head of the system, who will good-naturedly decline to afford the necessary facilities; then to appeal to the Minister of Public Instruction in Paris, who in due time will refer to your Ambassador; if he vouches for you, the Minister will request the Rector to instruct the Directors of the lycées to direct the teachers to assist you. If the correspondence takes less than a month, you may reach your unreasonable end of visiting the classes in function. The University speaks for itself, and makes no difficulty about letting its excellent light shine.

Montpellier is one of the few French cities in which there is a noticeable Protestant element. Once entirely Protestant, the faith almost disappeared under Louis XIV.; but the hardy mountaineers of the Cevennes preserved it, and their descendants form a numerous and vigorous body in the city. Having entire freedom of worship, the Protestants as a body do not enter warmly into the bickerings between the Catholics and the Radicals. It must be difficult for a foreigner to understand the sensitiveness which looks upon a quiet religious procession in the street as "of a nature to awaken the susceptibilities of that public which takes no part in it"; or which sees in a mass at a fête of Jeanne d'Arc "a manifestation likely to produce an element of division." Apropos of this fête, our Free Thinkers' Club proposes to hold a "punch of protestation," and to represent in tableaux the burning of Jeanne d'Arc, with the attendant clergy in canonicals. Without going to such excesses, we moderate republicans have a deep distrust, not of our Catholic neighbors, but of the political influence of the clergy. Our common phrase, "Réactionnaire," is used to sum up this feeling, much as the word "Copperhead" was used during your civil war.

At this moment, owing to the censure inflicted by the Government on the Archbishop of Lyons for advising non compliance with a law of the republic, the religious differences nearly coincide with political divergences. Aside from the recriminations of the press, our political struggles take place chiefly in the Municipal Council. Our Conseil-Général for the Department of Hérault can go little further than to request the prefect to urge the Government to put a pressure on the engineers to hasten the preparation of the plans for establishing the shore line of our lagoons; and the administration of the department is, of course, subject to the directions which emanate from Paris. Our Municipal Council, however, has important functions of finance and police, and meets when it likes, unless the prefect forbids. These sessions are the opportunity to see and hear our men of the South at their happiest; the air resounds with Provençal cries of "Mais autrement!" and "Jamaï de la vido." We do not trouble ourselves with those severe and complex rules of parliamentary law which appear to enchain Anglo-Saxon legislative bodies; when a member has anything to say, he says it, without much regard to what somebody else is saying at the same time. Our mayor, elected by the Council, and at the same time dean of the faculty of letters in the University, knows how to bring the debate to a point. Nobody better understands how to restore good humor by letting fall a witticism not too refined on a delicate question of morals. Nobody could more adroitly fence with, without enraging, our socialist members—to restrain them is beyond human power. If the physicist seeks an illustration of the expansive force of a confined gas, let him observe our socialist members. Seated in a compact body, they scent every manœuvre of the "vieux réactionnaires," and secure little appropriations for all sorts of workmen's enterprises. To them an appropriation of 500 francs for a fête of Jeanne d'Arc is open support of clericalism: is it not better to celebrate some of the glorious events

of the Revolution? On the other hand, they have secured in the concession for tramways the insertion of a clause by which the wages of the employees are to be fixed by a trades-union. They are an example of the wave which is unceasingly beating against the cliff of social order. Will they undermine it at last?

Doubtless part of this political effervescence is due to our love of noise and excitement, a habit equally visible in our amusements. Besides our brilliant balls, we have intellectual treats, concerts in the beautiful hall in the theatre building, public courses of lectures on Greek art and sociology, and musical ethics at the University. We keep up permanent opera, very good, and a permanent theatre which does not err on the side of seriousness. Nobody could go any further in indelicate suggestiveness than our *jeune premier* in his great flannel-undershirt scene in "Par un Fil à la Patte." All these diversions are chiefly for the *haut monde;* our semi-annual fair gives a month's delight to everybody. One street of the booths in the Esplanade is given up to the sale of goods, mostly knick-knacks and small wares; but if you like things peculiar to our countryside, you may find our laces or may discover the remarkable Terres d'Uzès, the work of a local Palissy. The other row is given up to noisy pleasures. In many of these performances there is a fourteenth-century strain of broad indecency, which we appear to enjoy with the rest; for we French, even little children, have strong stomachs. Exception might also be taken to the abundant roulette tables, where you may win poor cigars and are nearly certain to lose sous. On the whole, however, we have reason to think our fair a good-humored, honest kind of amusement.

We do not let such popular pleasures take the place of more refined festivities, such as the recent fête of Jeanne d'Arc. Even the radicals enjoyed the good time. Perhaps the competition of the brass bands and the bicycle-racing was a little dull, but not so the Battle of Flowers on Monday. Our marketwomen and washerwomen prepared magnificent floats —Jeanne d'Arc as a shepherdess, Jeanne d'Arc as a warrior, Jeanne d'Arc as a saint; but we liked better the big ox of the Agricultural School, and the landaus full of students and laughing people. Flowers were less common than the inexpensive bits of colored paper which we showered from the balconies, under the mistaken name of "confetti," and the "serpentins," the colored paper ribbons shot across and among horses, carriages, and people, or streaming out in the wind. This cheap and innocent sport might seem tame in a country where the young men of the first universities celebrate their fêtes by scrambling up each other's backs and tearing off each other's jerseys, but it gave a long afternoon of uproarious delight to many thousands, and harmed not one. To a foreigner one of the pleasantest remembrances of Montpellier would be the good temper and delight of the thousands who thronged the streets on that afternoon. Whatever the reason for coming, there can be no doubt that the visitor is very loath to depart.

ALBERT BUSHNELL HART.

IN THE MOUNTAINS OF KABYLIA.

FORT NATIONAL, May 10, 1894.

LOOKING eastward from Algiers across the bay and the plain of the Metidja, one sees, on a clear day, a succession of snowy peaks rising above the blue line of mountains which on this side bounds the whole horizon. As seen from Algiers these snow-clad mountains, which are the highest summits of the range of the Djurdjuras, form a sort of finishing-touch to the tropical landscape. In reality, they are not covered with perpetual snow. The winter visitor, sitting under the palms of the Place Bresson or in the rose gardens of Mustapha, sees them at their best, when they are white from base to summit; later on, the snow gradually recedes into the narrow ravines about their tops, and by midsummer it has wholly disappeared. The loftiest of them, Lella Kadidja, "Lady Kadidja," the Jungfrau of the Djurdjuras, is but 7,542 feet, which is far below the snow-line in this part of the world. The highest parts of the range are uninhabited, but the mountainous region round about them, the Kabylia of Djurdjura, supports a considerable population, the so-called Kabyles, who live in villages on the lower mountain-tops throughout the littoral and down as far as the borders of the level land. The entire region is most interesting for its natural scenery and its picturesque folk life, which has kept original conditions singularly unchanged. In the heart of Kabylia, outside of the few French villages that serve as military stations, there is almost no visible trace whatsoever of European contact in the people themselves, their dress, or their habits of living. The majority of the people here speak but little French, and although the Kabyles since the bloody insurrection of 1871 have been placed under the civil authorities and the common law, and schools have been established, here and there, for male children, it has left, as yet, few marks upon the surface of their life, which apparently goes on as it did for centuries before.

Most parts of Algeria are easily accessible by rail or diligence. Of railways there are at present in operation something over 1,800 miles, all of which has been built since 1870, when the first line, from Philippeville to Constantine, was opened for traffic. They stretch now in a network through the whole northern part of the colony, from the borders of Morocco to Tunis, and two lines run far down into the desert, one to Biskra, the centre of the date trade, in the oasis of the same name with its hundred thousand date palms, and the other to Aïn-Sefra, on the western side, in the direction, at least, of Timbuctoo and the Niger. Where the railways end, that *lucus a non lucendo* vehicle, the diligence, in this part of French territory even less diligent than its forbears elsewhere, starts in, so that with unlimited time it is possible to get anywhere.

The goal of a journey to the Djurdjuras is usually the village of Fort National, and to reach it it is most feasible to call into requisition both rail and diligence, although the whole distance may be made by the latter. The route from Algiers leads, first, out across the fertile plain of the Metidja, green with vineyards that stretch away in straight rows as far as the eye can see. Gradually the country becomes hillier, and the vines are interspersed with fields of grain and tobacco. Several streams are traversed on substantial stone viaducts with many arches, the train crawls cautiously through three or four short tunnels, and the grade becomes continually more abrupt. Finally, five hours from Algiers, you are set down at the terminus of the line, the French village of Tizi-Ouzou, and ascertain that you have successfully accomplished some sixty-five miles of your pilgrimage.

The remainder of the journey, by diligence, a matter of seventeen miles, but of four hours, is by far the most interesting part of the way. The whole aspect of the country has gradually changed, not only in its conformation, but in its vegetation, buildings, and methods of agriculture. Near Algiers the farm buildings scattered about the country are either the new erections of French settlers, or they are not infrequently, in whole or in part, the old Arab farms, which in some few cases still belong to native owners. The Arabs, however, in northern Algeria, in town or country, are a vanishing race and not many are left as tillers of the soil. In this region agriculture is conducted on at least recent methods, though without farm machinery. The fields are ploughed with modern ploughs, and many vineyards are cultivated by horse-power. As one gets further into Kabylia the isolated farmsteads grow fewer, and ultimately disappear altogether, all the houses being congregated in villages which in every direction straggle irregularly along on the very summits of the mountains. Instead of the flat white roofs of the Arab houses, these are invariably pointed and covered with tiles, which make every mountain top a gleam of red in the midst of the abundant verdure that always covers them. In these higher regions the vegetation has wholly changed its appearance and has no longer the tropical character of the country about Algiers. The palms have long since been left behind, and if it were not for the hedges of prickly pear along the wayside and the boundaries of fields, the olives of immemorial age, and the luxuriant growth of the fig trees which dot the country in well-kept orchards, one could readily believe one's self, in this respect at least, in a northern climate. The oldest of the olives are said to have been grafted by the Romans. At any rate, the Kabyles had entirely forgotten the art, which was reintroduced by the French after the conquest of this part of the colony in 1857. Methods of agriculture, too, have changed. All over the slopes of the hills bare-legged men in white gown and turban are ploughing, their wooden ploughs with a single handle drawn by a pair of bullocks yoked far apart and driven by a long ox-goad that reaches to the animals' heads; other than this, in fields and vineyards, a short-handled mattock seems to be the only tool used.

In this region, as in almost all parts of Algeria in the agricultural districts remote from the towns, there are scarcely any French at all. It strikes one as being sparsely peopled with either French or Kabyles, and with its fertile soil and usually abundant rainfall could support a population many times larger than it has. The French Government has made only a few sporadic attempts to settle an agricultural population, and the great bulk of the immigrants, particularly from France, flock to the towns, where they are not needed, and avoid the country. If it were not for the Kabyles, who are native not only to Kabylia proper, in the Djurdjuras, but to various other parts of the three departments, agricultural conditions would be a subject for despair. All over the colony they form the real peasant population, industrious and hard-working, the very opposite of the indolent Arabs. Even in the towns they do a major part of the manual labor, and for all Algeria they are literally the hewers of wood and the drawers of water.

Fort National, through whose stone gateway, after winding in and out along the curves of the superbly constructed *chausée*, the diligence finally swings with a brave show of speed, is in reality a fortified town. Like the Kabyle villages, it is perched on the summit of a mountain, higher, however, than its immediate neighbors, which it commands on every side. Its altitude of 3,153 feet above the sea

makes it the highest French settlement in the colony, although several native villages are higher. Nothing could be finer than the view from the walls. South, across the landscape of mountain and valley, which in one place dives sharply downward a good two thousand feet of steep descent, stand close at hand the snow peaks we had seen from Algiers; in the opposite direction, far below at the base of wooded mountains, is the broad valley of the Sebaou, with the river winding along its sandy bed, half dry at this time of the year; everywhere, north, south, east, and west, are mountain spurs, wooded in part, in part cultivated in sharply rectangular fields, but all green to the top, where inevitably appears the red-tiled village.

Fort National itself is a little French town of stucco houses, with not over three hundred inhabitants, more than usually clean, and throughout pervaded by zouaves. Its principal street, where are the inn, shops, and cafés, runs deviously through it from gate to gate. Above and below are other streets of barracks and houses, and the fort and citadel are at the top. The inn accommodations are extremely limited, and with some dismay we learned upon our arrival that not a room was to be had either in the little hotel or out of it. The possibilities had all apparently been disposed of, when a Kabyle edged through the interested crowd that had collected, and said in excellent English that he knew where there was a room if we would follow him, and we were soon more or less comfortably installed over a soldiers' café at the end of the street. Conversation with our deliverer showed him to be a much travelled man, and when he learned that we were Americans, he told us that he had spent all last summer in the Midway Plaisance, and he had a fund of reminiscences in high colors of New York, Brooklyn, and Philadelphia. Of a truth, the world at the end of the century is much smaller than it ever was before, and, improbable as it may at first sight seem, there are even direct ties that now bind our shores with the tops of African mountains.

The Kabyle villages of the Djurdjuras are possibly most picturesque at a distance as they lie in the sunshine on their green mountains. They are all alike except for size, only that the larger ones are apt to be cleaner and better built, and have beside the houses a white-washed mosque with a minaret, octagonal or square, and the *djemäa*, or council-house, of the community. The houses are invariably constructed on the same model. All are low rectangular buildings made of rough stones laid in courses with all possible economy of mortar, with a gable roof covered with earthen tiles. Only the better ones are plastered and whitewashed on the outside. They have no chimneys, the smoke being allowed to escape through an aperture under each gable. A door in the middle of the longer side admits one into the dark interior, for there are no windows. In the larger houses sometimes two or three of these buildings form the sides of an unpaved court, but more often one constitutes the whole. They are all huddled together at haphazard, except for the irregular street that runs through the centre of the village, into which it straggles at one end, often up a steep ascent, and out down another. The outbuildings, along the edges, are often made of branches wattled together and thatched with grass and reeds. Inside, the houses have only a dirt floor, and are devoid of any article of furniture whatsoever. The poorer villages and houses are squalid in the extreme and swarm with vermin. With other remembrances you are sure to carry away substantial ones in the shape of fleas, whose multitude in these places it is beyond the power of man to number. The people who live in these unpromising surroundings are a tall, well-made race, not infrequently with blue eyes and red hair. Many of the men are as fair as Europeans, for whom in another environment they could easily pass. The men wear, but without the Arab's lordly swagger, the usual Arab costume, a gown or *gandoura* of white, or what once was white, one or two burnouses and a turban, the cleanliness and costliness of all of which runs through the scale here as elsewhere. One of the most disturbing influences of French civilization in all Algeria to the sensitive eye is the use, by the poorest classes, of discarded gunny-bags for a burnous, and this custom has even penetrated into the distant villages of Kabylia, where, as in the streets of Algiers, natives sometimes go about with "*fragile*" and all sorts of ridiculous legends imprinted on their backs.

The women, who are pretty as girls, with full faces and high color, but who age early, all wear two *foutas*, which are simply straight pieces of cotton material gayly striped in blue, red, and yellow, reaching below the knees, and fastened at the shoulders in front by brooches of silver or white metal, and held around the waist by a girdle. A bright colored cotton kerchief covers their abundant black hair, which is curiously plaited in a bunch on each side of the face. They are all tatooed in blue on forehead, cheeks, and chin, and sometimes an elaborate device runs about the neck and down over the breast. A flat silver brooch set with coral or red and blue enamel is worn by the unmarried women on the forehead, by the married on the bosom. They all go barefooted and bare-armed, and, unlike the Arab women, never veil themselves with the *adjar*. This last is else religiously worn by Mohammedan women throughout Algeria as much as it was in the days of the Prophet, who introduced it, although contact with Europeans has apparently made them, under circumstances, careless of showing their faces. Many a time, in our walks about Algiers, we have come upon Arab women in out-of-the-way places who made no effort to veil themselves, although they covered immediately when a native came in sight, even if he were no more than a shepherd. The Kabyle women, like their Arab sisters, stain their finger-nails with henna, or even redden the whole hand, and they sometimes color their feet and ankles a bright yellow. Like the Arab women, too, they load themselves down with the bracelets and bangles that even the poorest seem to possess in profusion. Their life, however, is not one of as much variety as their garb might imply. They not only make the butter and cheese, which is woman's prerogative elsewhere, but they spin with a distaff, weave the garments they wear, sometimes in most complicated patterns and colors, on primitive looms, and make the pottery they use, in shape and decoration often astonishingly like Mexican pottery, which they turn out free-hand, without a wheel. They also have the exclusive privilege of carrying the great earthen water jars, often for long distances up and down the steep slopes of the village, holding them, as they do their babies, on their backs. With children, which are in costume small copies of their elders, except that the smallest not seldom go quite naked, the villages are alive. As soon as the approach of a stranger is observed, a cry goes up from one end of the place to the other, and children hasten from all sides, out of doorways and alleys, and surround the intruder in a mob, all clamoring for sous; and long after you have left their precincts you can hear their excited shouts.

Once a week at Fort National, as at other convenient centres throughout the country, an open-air market is held that calls out the whole male population of the district—a picturesque crowd who swarm in on foot, horse, or donkey, driving before them sheep, goats, and cattle. Some of them have a number of donkeys heavily laden, others but a bag or two of barley, a greasy goat-skin filled with olive oil, or a basket. The market, which is held on the hillside just outside the gate of the town, is a most interesting sight. Each man huddles his possessions together, whatever they may be; the sheep and the goats are tied head and head in little groups, the grain bags are opened to display their contents, wool is exhibited in heaps, a few pieces of cloth are shown in one place, and some pottery in another. Tents in the meantime have been set up, and impromptu cafés are ready to furnish black coffee in the usual tiny cups. There are no shops in the Kabyle villages, and almost everything is bought and sold at these markets, where, however, transactions are usually by barter, and scarcely any money changes hands.

The Kabyles of the Djurdjura are on the surface a contented people, notwithstanding their usual poverty and the strict frugality that it necessarily entails; but their wants over and above their own capabilities of supplying them are fortunately few, and of a living they are moderately sure from the land, which, for the greater part, they hold in severalty. They are a sturdy folk, kindly and courteous, and although up among their mountains they have kept themselves aloof, to a surprising extent, from the innovations of Western civilization, they have avoided thereby the double load of vices, the old plus the new, which is so frequently characteristic of Oriental life in Europeanized towns. Under the present administration of the French they are peaceful and law-abiding. And although, like most Eastern uprisings, the insurrection of 1871 came without a warning, it is safe to say that with the reorganization of the Government which followed in its wake, the abolition of the institution of the *Sofs*, and the extinction of the power of the *Marabouts*, the Kabyles were once and for all placed securely under French control, which, imperious and severe as it in some instances is, on the whole does not needlessly oppress them. W. H. C.

Notes.

THE hegira of the publishing trade from Broadway to Fifth Avenue in this city is marked in the case of one of the most travelled firms, D. Appleton & Co., which began business in Exchange Place in 1825 and is now established at No. 72 Fifth Avenue. This house has in press 'Occasional Sermons and Lectures,' by the Rev. John M. Kiely of Brooklyn.

Macmillan & Co. are preparing a new edition of Jane Austen's novels in single volumes, illustrated by Hugh Thomson.

Ginn & Co. issue 'Essays and Letters Selected from the Writings of Ruskin,' edited by Mrs. Lois G. Hufford.

The American Academy of Political and Social Science announces 'The Theory of Sociology,' by Prof. Franklin H. Giddings.

Mme. Ragozin's translation of Leroy-Beau-

lieu's 'Empire of the Tsars and the Russians' (Putnams) has already received detailed criticism from us in connection with Part i., and it is necessary only to mention the appearance of Part ii., "The Institutions." Of Sabatier's popular 'Life of St. Francis of Assisi' we have also spoken. A translation of it by Louise Seymour Houghton has just been issued by Charles Scribner's Sons. It retains the notes, but adds no index.

The merits of the Dent-Macmillan "Temple Shakspere" are worth repeating in connection with the latest issues, viz., "Measure for Measure" and "The Comedy of Errors." These are: a handy pocket size, exquisite typography, an account of the sources of each play and probable date of composition, a glossary, a pertinent engraved frontispiece, cheapness.

The *Outlook* Company has issued in a handsomely printed and bound volume, with patent thumb index, a collection of 638 hymns and 471 tunes, under the title of 'The Plymouth Hymnal, for the Church, the Social Meeting, and the Home.' The editor, the Rev. Lyman Abbott, says that in the preparation of it more than five thousand hymns and poems and as many tunes were examined. It includes selections from English, German, Danish, French, and other sources. Among the tunes are more than a score furnished by leading American composers. The editor has followed the idea that "familiarity with, not trivial simplicity of, music is the secret of good congregational singing." The present collection is certainly a vast improvement on those of which Henry Ward Beecher said that their tunes were "the very emptiness of fluent noise," and that they might be sung a hundred times and as often forgotten because "there is nothing to remember." On the other hand, one reads with amazement, in the introduction, that "the editor of to-day is no longer shut up to German chorals, which are almost uniformly unmelodious." In the single collection of Bach's chorals published by Breitkopf & Härtel there is more original melody and infinitely more stirring harmony than could be distilled from a hundred 'Plymouth Hymnals.'

It is related of Liszt that if he accidentally struck a wrong note, he did not take the trouble to correct it, but made it sound all right by slightly altering the harmony. Of course it took genius to do this in his way, with a smile of conscious superiority on the lips, but every pianist of ability might make himself proof against serious accidents by familiarity with treatises on harmony. There is certainly no lack of them, but rather a superabundance. The latest arrival is 'Analytical Harmony,' by A. J. Goodrich (Cincinnati: John Church Co.). It is a volume of more than 400 pages, with 900 examples in musical type. Although it is clearly written, we doubt whether it is as well adapted for beginners as some other treatises; but the careful student of the subject will find many interesting and useful suggestions here. The author deserves special praise for basing his doctrines not on previous theoretical works, most of which are somewhat antiquated, but on the compositions of those modern masters who have so greatly enlarged the boundaries of harmony.

'The Gipsy Road,' by Grenville A. J. Cole (Macmillan), is a pleasantly written and well-printed account of a cycling tour through Hungary, Bohemia, and other parts of eastern Europe. It will not burden the reader with useful information, but it gives a sense of charm and picturesqueness and open air and sunshine which is well supplemented by the illustrations. These are drawn by Mr. Edmund H. New in a style reminiscent of early wood engravings, from "kodaks" taken by Mr. Gerard W. Butler, and are excellent, showing clean delineation, and much decorative feeling in the initials and head and tail-pieces.

We have been tardily supplied with a memorial volume published by Little, Brown & Co., Boston, consisting of a sketch of the life of the late Josiah Gardner Abbott, LL.D., of that city, read before the Old Residents' Historical Association of Lowell by Charles Cowley, LL.D., with the proceedings of the bar on occasion of Judge Abbott's death, June 2, 1891. From these several tributes one may get a very good idea of the character of a War Democrat who never cut loose from his party connection, and some light on his New England associates in politics and in the legal profession. His brief term as Congressman brought him into prominence by his appointment to serve on the Hayes-Tilden Electoral Commission of 1877, by whose decision he abided, while holding the principles of the decision dangerous in the extreme. A draft of an address on behalf of the minority of the commission, prepared by him but never issued, is given in the appendix to the present volume, whose historical worth it enhances. A portrait of Judge Abbott forms the frontispiece.

To whatever causes it may be due, and we could suggest several, Americans and Englishmen are beginning to discover the existence of Spain. Books on Spain are multiplying, and while a good history in English of that country still remains to be written, we cannot but welcome such as are now issuing from the press as calculated at least to create a demand and pave the way for something better. The 'Christian Recovery of Spain,' by Henry Edward Watts, in the "Story of the Nations" series (Putnams), is commendable in many ways. The author is evidently in full sympathy with his subject, not forgetting his Anglo-Saxon standards of moral excellence, but not measuring Spain and the Spaniards relentlessly by these standards. He has explored far enough to realize some of the grosser errors of other historians, and has apparently come into sufficient contact with early documentary records to enable him now and then to swing free from conventional accounts and criticisms. This, together with a straightforward, vigorous style, gives the work a healthy tone, and we can only wish that he had introduced other chapters similar to that on the laws and government of Castile and Aragon, clearing up the political situation, and showing concisely what had been lost or gained during various periods of the turbulent struggle towards national unity. It was a mistake, on the other hand, to take for granted such an intimate knowledge of Queen Isabella and her powerful influence on the destinies of Spain as to skim so lightly over her career. The book has two maps, a good index, and a chronological table of events.

Mr. John Bonner has not succeeded so well with his 'Child's History of Spain' (Harpers). The book will doubtless prove attractive, being richly illustrated, beautifully printed, and tastefully bound. It would certainly prove instructive if a child's interest could be held by it, for the story of Spain is all here, sketched in the briefest possible manner; but the author is extremely trivial in his comment. He has already published Child's Histories of Rome and France, and as it appears that he has designs upon other countries, we would suggest that he purge his text in future of the personal pronoun, and let the facts speak for themselves without ceaseless intrusion of the "I think." He is evidently capable of better work, for his narrative is often spirited for a page or two, as in his account of the Abencerrages; and if any considerable portion of the book were as incisive—minus that omnipresent personal pronoun—as his estimate of Cardinal Ximenes, we should have little but praise to render.

Dr. Fr. Heinrich Reusch's 'Beiträge zur Geschichte des Jesuitenordens' (Munich: Beck) is an admirable discussion of subjects equally interesting to the statesman, the theologian, and the student of ethics, especially in that peculiarly puzzling branch of moral science known as casuistry. The chief topics treated in the volume before us are "The Doctrine of Tyrannicide," "French Jesuits as Gallicans," the Jesuit fiction of the famous "Assembly at Bourgfontaine," in which prominent Jansenists were accused of conspiring to subvert Catholicism and establish pure deism, "The False Arnaud," a drastic illustration of the maxim that the end justifies the means, and a number of minor contributions based to a great extent upon copies of unpublished letters of Jesuits found among the posthumous papers of the late Dr. Döllinger, and setting forth in a strong light the activity of the disciples of Ignatius Loyola as miracle-mongers, dispensers and forgers of indulgences, users and abusers of the confessional, censors of the press, and promoters of the assassination of heretical sovereigns, as in the plots formed against the life of Queen Elizabeth of England. Prof. Reusch, an Old Catholic of the University of Bonn and editor of Döllinger's 'Kleinere Schriften,' published in 1890, has collected a mass of thoroughly authentic and exceedingly valuable facts, which Jesuitical historians have aimed to pervert or to conceal.

'Le Droit de l'Enfant,' by Georges Ohnet (Paris: Ollendorff; New York: Christern), is neither better nor worse than the average Ohnet story. The wicked aristocrat and the noble artisan figure in this volume as they have figured in previous ones. The haughty and guilty wife and the injured and magnanimous husband reappear. There is the proper catastrophe at the end, poetic justice, sentimental reconciliation, wedding and happiness ever after—unless M. Ohnet writes another book. But 'Le Droit de l'Enfant' will sell as all M. Ohnet's novels have sold.

Mme. Jeanne Schultz wrote a very pretty book, 'La Neuvaine de Colette,' and another nearly as good, 'Jean de Kerdren,' but her latest attempt, 'Ce qu'elles peuvent' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: Charles Eitel), is very dull reading. She has endeavored to analyze *à la* Bourget, though she lacks the peculiar gifts of the new Academician. She is very weak in her psychology and weaker still in her expression of it. Bourget exasperates at times, thanks to the intensity of his work; Mme. Schultz simply bores, and gives one the impression that she has already written herself out—which is not at all improbable.

The trustees of Wheaton Seminary, Norton, Mass., have issued in an attractive form, with three portraits, a special number of the school paper, the *Rushlight*, in memory of the late Lucy Larcom. The tributes it contains from her former pupils give a uniform impression of Miss Larcom which does nothing to contradict that made by her poems and her 'New England Girlhood.' Neither her attainments nor her practical achievements are to be pitted against those of women of the present day, to whom the means of intellectual development have been commensurate with the power. The extracts given here from her letters show that, in common with her generation of women, Miss

Larcom was condemned, partially at least, to "beat the void with her wings in vain." Hence, probably, the peculiar vein of sadness, noticeable also in the lives of several of her feminine contemporaries. Her nature, however, was not only a beautiful but a strong one, and the influence she exerted on those who find a pious pleasure in testifying to its depth and lastingness, was of the incalculable kind, not to be measured by educational standards. The 'Life' of Miss Larcom, now in the hands of her friends, will be welcome to those who have had a brief glimpse, even, of her lovely personality.

A little pamphlet of 'Suggestions to Teachers of English in the Secondary Schools,' by Profs. Gayley and Bradley of the University of California, helps to swell the literature of the now famous "Committee of Ten." It contains many sensible observations in which teachers will find their account; but it demands a preparation such as hardly now exists, and a study of English such as no other language receives. This is a sad necessity in the beginning of reform. Copies of the pamphlet may be had on application to the Recorder of Faculties, Berkeley, Cal., for the postage, five cents.

The Municipal League of Philadelphia has issued in a rather bulky volume the Proceedings of the National Conference for Good City Government held at Philadelphia in January last. Its essential value lies in the first half-dozen papers—succinct accounts of the governments of Boston, Brooklyn, Chicago, Baltimore, Philadelphia, and New York; and in the appended Bibliography of Municipal Government and Reform.

The coming summer meeting to be held at Oxford under the auspices of the University Extension is to begin on July 27 and last until August 24. Thus it will cover the two weeks in August during which the hospitality of the University is to be extended to the British Association. These two meetings will, for this year at least, remove from Oxford the reproach of lying idle for all educational purposes during four months every year, and may be accepted in a sort as an equivalent for the Cambridge summer-term, the Oxford counterpart of which has never established any hold either upon the lecturers or the undergraduates of Oxford colleges. An unusually varied and interesting programme has been prepared under the direction of Mr. M. E. Sadler of Christchurch, the indefatigable Oxford secretary. Most conspicuous upon the list is the contemplated series of lectures on the history of the seventeenth century, to be given by S. R. Gardner, W. Pater, J. Fiske, Sir Frederick Pollock, Dr. Fairbairn, A. L. Smith, Morse Stephens, D. G. Ritchie, and others. Messrs. A. Sidgwick and Churton Collins are to lecture on Greek literature. On the life and duties of the citizen, a course for teachers is announced to be given by Sir William Anson, Sir George Chesney, Mr. Grahame Wallace, and others. In the museums there will be courses on geology, anthropology, chemistry, astronomy, hygiene, and physiography. The Ruskin teacher of drawing announces a course in sketching from nature. Mr. H. Courthorpe Bowen and Prof. Rein (of Jena) announce a course on the theory and practice of teaching. Past and present members of the Oxford Dramatic Society are to give two performances of Browning's "Strafford," and there are to be numerous concerts and organ recitals, as well as a debate on temperance legislation, which Mr. Auberon Herbert and Lady Somerset will open. Theological lectures are promised at Manchester College, as well as a course by the Rev. Charles Gore, editor of 'Lux Mundi.' Mr. Bryce is to deliver, on July 27, the inaugural lecture on "The Worth of the Study of the Ancient Languages to Our Time." This subject is peculiarly apposite in view of Mr. Churton Collins's successful inauguration of the teaching of Greek as a feature of the English University Extension.

—Mr. M. W. Maccallum, professor in the University of Sydney, has written an interesting volume on 'Tennyson's Idylls of the King and Arthurian Story from the XVIth Century' (Macmillan). In an introduction of about a hundred pages, facts and current theories about King Arthur as a mythological and as an historical personage are summed up, and a brief sketch of the romantic Arthur literature to the Reformation is furnished. This introductory chapter lays no claim to originality. It is very readable, however, and, though one may easily find weak places in its information, is full and accurate enough to answer the author's purpose and the purpose of most of his readers. The chapters that follow give a history of the Round Table material in European literature from the Restoration to the present time, and an elaborate study of the Idylls of the King. In this part of his work Mr. Maccallum has acquitted himself well. Chapters i-v. will be welcome alike to the Tennysonian and to the student of Arthurian influences, and the special chapters on the "Idylls" are decidedly worth reading, whether one agrees with them or not. Mr. Maccallum writes agreeably and with much good sense, but he shows a disposition to push allegory pretty far in his interpretation of the "Idylls." We do not like his attempt to tag Lancelot, who, as he is forced to admit after all, is a character "elaborated before the allegory became the ruling thought of the poem."

—Mr. Stopford Brooke's 'Tennyson, his Art and Relation to Modern Life' (Putnams), is obviously a course of popular lectures—whether actually delivered or not—and we wish the author had chosen to tell his readers so at the outset. Such frankness, besides being engaging, would have prepared one for the iteration, the rhetorical perorations of the chapters, the formal beginnings over and over again, and all the other necessary tricks of the lecturer. Even the sermonizing—of which there is a good deal—would then have passed, for we expect didactics from the desk. Yet the book is welcome. Mr. Brooke says interesting things, some of them new, about Tennyson's art, and, in particular, about his artistic use of nature, and he talks charmingly, as usual. His discussion of the poet's ethics and social science is less pertinent. Tennyson was so much of an artist and so little of a philosopher that it seems almost perverse to interpret "The Princess" in terms of the "woman question," or to explain that "Lady Clara Vere de Vere" is not an assault on the House of Lords. Still, we always read Mr. Brooke's own views on such topics with interest. The "Idylls of the King" are, of course, treated at length, and, as it seems to us, with overmuch protestation about "Soul at war with Sense." It is a great pity that Tennyson ever wrote those lines in "To the Queen" that make all this allegorizing possible. The remark that "from Brittany [the Arthur-saga] returned to Wales and crossed the March into England in the *Brut* of Layamon," is a bad blunder if it means what it says. One wonders, too, what Mr. Brooke means by his assertion that "The *Revenge*" is "informed by the very ballad-music of the [Elizabethan] time." There are not many of these roving shots, however, and, in spite of some amusing dogmatism and an occasional touch of sentimentality, the little book is thoroughly agreeable, and will reward a not too painful reading.

—The English Folk-Lore Society has issued to its members as the extra publication for 1893 (and placed 390 copies on sale for the public), 'The First Nine Books of the Danish History of Saxo Grammaticus,' translated by Oliver Elton, B.A., with some considerations on Saxo's sources, historical methods, and folk-lore by Frederick York Powell, M.A., F.S.A. (London: D. Nutt). The English reader has previously known Saxo only as the first chronicler of the Hamlet story, and has had no idea of the wealth of legendary lore contained in the first nine books dealing with the pagan and mythical period of Danish history. The introduction contains an account of the writer and the preservation of his work (the present translation is based upon Holder's text), as well as an extensive examination of Saxo's sources and his contribution to folk-lore. The folk-lore material has been arranged by Mr. Powell in eleven classes of subjects dealing with political institutions, custom law, statute laws, war, social life and manners, supernatural beings, funeral rites and eschatology, magic and folk-science, saws and proverbs, folk-history and folk-tales. A separate section is devoted to an examination of Saxo's mythology. Besides five indexes of persons and places, Norse poems cited, sagas cited, modern scholars cited, classics, etc., cited, there are four appendices containing passages from Saxo's later books, note on Saxo's Hamlet, genealogies of kings, and last news of Starcad. This outline of contents will give some idea of the great value of the work and its varied range. The translator has endeavored to preserve the curious style of his author—a style which has commanded the admiration of later readers, and which is based largely upon Valerius Maximus and Martianus Capella.

—The inaugural lecture of the newly elected Corpus Professor of Latin, Robinson Ellis, took place in the Hall of Corpus Christi College, Oxford, on May 24. The subject was Phædrus's fables, and the lecture has been published by the Clarendon Press. Less fragmentary than the German "programmes," and more popular as well as of maturer scholarship than German "Doctor dissertations," the English inaugural lecture as here exemplified is an admirable means for publishing scholarly research—of a certain easily apprehensible kind—which can hardly be made too much of. Beginning with the known facts of the life of Phædrus, Prof. Ellis wove into his statement of them a careful analysis of the universally accredited works of that fabulist. This led him to give a history of the study of Phædrus, and to show how far he was and was not known to scholars down to the time of the *editio princeps* of 1596. Next came a careful bibliography and a circumstantial account of the vicissitudes undergone by the various Phædrus manuscripts. Then, in connection with the new fables first published in 1808 by Cassitti, arose the question whether or no they were attributable to Phædrus. These thirty-one fables of the *Appendix Perottina*, though commonly attributed to Phædrus, were regarded by Prof. Ellis as not by him but by some imitator. His grounds for this belief rest upon a series of fresh and convincing *aperçus*

of the style and personal qualities revealed in the fables of undoubted authenticity. Taking up Lessing's attacks upon the Roman fabulist, and admitting the faults found by the great German in Phædrus's work, the lecturer added one or two new kindred criticisms, and then contended that there was little or no reason for holding Phædrus responsible for such defects. Previous versions, in many cases Greek versions, contained these lapses, and his final verdict is: "I suspect that if we knew the earliest shape which any given fable took, we should find that it came from the hands of Phædrus improved and dignified." "Whether in language," he added, "or in the general style of his fables, Phædrus may be ranked among the best writers of Rome; the Latin of the fables is the pure, undebased Latin of the best period of the golden, not the silver age."

—It is not often that a twenty-eight-page pamphlet of such interest falls into our hands as 'The Forty-eight Hours Week: A Year's Experiment and its Results at the Salford Iron Works, Manchester,' by William Mather, M.P. (Manchester: *Guardian* Office). Any person who desires to have at hand the details and statistics of a forty-eight hours experiment as fairly tried by an engineering firm employing 1,200 hands, will possess himself of a copy. Mr. Mather's high character, in and out of Parliament, is a guarantee of the correctness of the statements contained. He is, moreover, opposed to any legislation in the direction of an eight-hours day, believing that such would be suited for certain classes of industry only. His firm entered upon the present experiment with hope, but with considerable hesitation. They exacted an engagement from the Trade Union of Amalgamated Society of Engineers that, if unsuccessful, they should be free to revert to the old fifty-three hours' scale, and magnanimously insisted that within the year no effort should be made to press the new scale upon other firms. The hours adopted were 7:45 to noon, and 1 to 5:30, five days of the week, and 7:45 to noon on Saturdays. The experiment appears to have proved a complete success. An increase of 0.4 per cent. in the rates of wages to turnover was curiously balanced by the saving of a similar percentage on the turnover in economy in lighting, wear and tear, fuel and lubricants, and miscellaneous stores. "Lost time without leave" was reduced from 2.46 per cent. to 0.46 per cent. The loss to the pieceworkers (at the old rates) was but small, and tended to diminish—being in the first four months 1.76 per cent. less than the old average, in the second 1.58, and in the third but 0.78. "Our observations, and the careful supervision of our foremen, have not detected that our workpeople have consciously made anything like 'a spurt' in the trial year, hoping thereby to gain a permanent reduction of hours, with the intention of easing off afterwards. . . . It would, in fact, be impossible to sustain a conspiracy of endeavor so long, if any strain accompanied it." Better workmanship and greater steadiness are apparent all round. Coming to work after a comfortable breakfast with their families has led the grog-shops to be less frequented for sustaining "nips." The moral tone is improved. There is more general eagerness to commence work at once. The apprentices are brighter and more amenable to discipline. A better tone is given to the whole day's work. The success of Mr. Mather's experiment is likely to have far-reaching consequences. Already, after full consultation of the Lords of the Admiralty with him, the 30,000 workers in the Royal Dockyards have had their hours similarly reduced, and the results there are so gratifying that doubtless before long the far larger number employed in the Army Departments will be placed upon a like footing. The outcome of this interesting experiment is a singular commentary upon the supposed incapacity of a highly paid, unprotected community to compete with the protected, long-houred, poorly-paid workers of the Continent.

—The last (ninth) annual meeting in Calcutta of the Lady Dufferin Fund for medical aid to the women of India disclosed how a modest effort of private philanthropy has practically developed into a great national movement. When Lady Dufferin left India in 1888, she had instituted a system of medical service by women physicians, which that year gave hospital relief to 2,500 in-patients and about 100,000 out-patients. At the end of Lady Lansdowne's five-years' administration (the wife of the Governor-General of India is ex officio the executive of the association in India), the annual number helped had risen to 12,500 in-patients and 600,000 out-patients. Through the aid of local committees, medical treatment is now also extended to women whose caste prohibits them from coming to the hospital, and who are too poor to pay fees. Lady Dufferin's aim was to restore health to thousands of Indian women and children who needlessly suffered and died from ignorance of sanitary principles, and whose caste customs and prejudices cut them off from the services of male physicians. The scheme has not only saved much suffering, but has been the source of a liberal education to the native communities in which women physicians have done their work. Many natives have contributed to the fund, and a number of Indian and Eurasian women have been induced to study medicine. Thus, the foundations of the scheme being laid in native Indian agencies "under skilled English control," an Indian female medical profession is being created, and philanthropic English men and women are now asked to contribute special funds for the further training of native women in England. The scholarships thus provided will be given to natives who have already shown ability in their medical studies and professional work, and who are recommended by the Indian committees for further training.

THE HEIMSKRINGLA.

The Stories of the Kings of Norway called the Round World (Heimskringla). By Snorri Sturluson. Done into English out of the Icelandic by William Morris and Eirikr Magnusson. Vol. I. London: Bernard Quaritch. 1893.

THE editors of the "Saga Library" have done wisely to select the 'Heimskringla' for early translation in the series of which the present volume is the third. It might, perhaps, with even greater propriety have formed the initial work of the whole, for, although it is the history of the kings of Norway, it supplies, in reality, the broad background that fills in nearly the whole scene of the Sagas, wherever their action may be. Even those of them which are specifically Icelandic have, almost without exception, direct points of contact with Norway, and are frequently far more intelligible in the light of the additional detail furnished by the Sagas of the kings and earls under whom the Icelanders constantly served as men-at-arms and sung as scalds. The intimacy of this contact and its continuity are sufficiently indicated when we remember that the 'Heimskringla' itself was written by an Icelander, who collected his material mainly from sources orally transmitted in both Iceland and Norway three centuries after the settlement of the island by Norsemen.

The present volume is the first of four in which the whole work is to be published. Beginning at the beginning, with Snorri's preface, it takes us to the end of the Saga of Olaf Tryggvason, which is followed by thirty pages of explanations of the figures contained in the verses, and there is a large map of Norway during the Saga period on a separate sheet in a pocket. Like its predecessors, it is a superb piece of book-making without and within. It shares, too, with its predecessors in the "Library," and with the earlier versions from the Icelandic by its two collaborators, the excellences and the faults that have become characteristic, only that the former have increased both in quantity and in quality. Leaving wholly aside the diction of the strophes, of which more anon, there is, however, in this last volume, just as there was in the first, the same use of a pseudo-archaic phraseology that has never had an existence outside of these pages. We have dwelt upon it here before, and it is still, although we have had abundant time to grow accustomed to it, a blemish and an irritation. This Morrisese, for it crops out more or less in all William Morris's writing and plainly belongs to him, finds its justification here, of course, in an attempt to render closely in Saxon equivalents the Teutonic words of the original. This, within limits, is not infrequently a distinct gain in picturesqueness. We have, to select instances at random, *unwrathfully*, *therethrough*, *a-shipboard*, *a-night-tide*, *north-away*, *east-away*, *west-over-sea;* but what about "in the end waxed King Harald so *woodwroth*," or "Our swords are dull and all *to-sharded*"? Aside from the mere choice of diction there are some few instances of infelicitous translation. From its prominence, among other places on the title-page, the most glaring of them is the rendition of *Heimskringla* by "the Round World." Snorri's work, it will be remembered, owes its Icelandic name to the first two words of the MS. *Kringla heimsins*, from which a new compound has been formed. The words, however, mean "the circle of the earth," *orbis terrarum*, and refer to the supposed discoid form of the world. In a sense a disc is, of course, round, but "the round world" suggests nothing to us but the modern idea of the sphere. Conceived as a disc in the encircling sea, the description of the earth in Snorri's first chapter has an entirely different signification from that conveyed by the translation.

The problem of the strophes is a difficult one to solve at any time, nor is it by any manner of means certain that it has yet been successfully solved either here or elsewhere. Here and in the other Sagas the scaldic verses are such a component part of the text that they cannot possibly be eliminated without serious loss. They have always been a stumbling-block to English translators, who, one and all, have met with but varying degrees of ill-success in their attempted renditions. The difficulty is inherent. They represent a development which, at the best, even in the North was ephemeral, and now is past and gone for ever. From present indications, the time will no doubt come when we shall be as familiar in English poetry with the whole Pantheon of Northern gods as we are now with those of

Greece and Rome, and their attributes may well furnish as intelligible an imagery. The present translators have notably contributed to bring about such a result, and Wagner in his tetralogy has sufficiently shown its possibilities. The poetic phraseology of the scalds, however, is an entirely different matter. It is absolutely a dead-letter. What, for instance, is to be made of such a strophe as this from the Saga of Harald Greycloak, here faithfully enough translated, too?

> "Surely from henceforth should I,
> Speeder of skates of isle-mead,
> Find setting fair to me-ward
> Thy breeze of giant maidens.
> Since now we needs must hand thee,
> Chooser of hawk-land's jewels,
> That very lair of the ling-worm
> Which long time was my father's."

The notes at the back of the book explain that "speeder of skates of isle-mead" means "a sea-farer, a sea-king, here King Harald himself"; that "breeze of giant-maidens" means "mind"; that "hawk-land's jewel" means "gold"; and that "lair of the ling-worm" is "gold-ring." Eywind, the scald who sang it, according to the Saga was compelled by Harald to redeem himself from disfavor with a famous gold ring which he owned. He says: "Henceforth, O King, I should have thy favor, since now, Chooser of Gold, I must give thee the ring that was an heirloom from my father." In another verse, "foe of the flame-flash of the yew-seat" means "an open-handed person"; "gladdener of the sparrow of the shield-swarf" (whatever that may be) is "a warrior"; "war-sword's isthmus" is "a shield"; "rooks'-beer" is "blood." There is no use, however, in multiplying instances. Some of these figures are picturesque and vigorous. "Spear-gale" and "helm-storm," for instance, mean "battle"; "flight-shy" and "war-glad" have a true Homeric ring.

On the whole, it cannot be conceded that the rendition of the strophes is a success here any more than elsewhere, and perhaps it is a physical impossibility to make it so. The least successful of them, nevertheless, are better than the meaningless jingles of Laing's version. All are intelligible with a use of the notes. Inaccuracy is not their fault, nor the prevailing fault of any of these translations. They, and the prose as well, suffer as a whole from a too painstaking literalness which goes persistently forward, no matter what its material. Some passages of the present book owe their particular charm to their absolute fidelity of rendition; others, however, have been hopelessly marred by the self-same cause.

Considering as a separate version the recent reprint of Laing's translation, which originally appeared fifty years ago, this is the third time Snorri's work has been given to us in English. The present translation is noteworthy, wholly apart from other considerations, in that it is the first English version directly from the original Icelandic, Laing's having been made at second hand from Danish. With all its idiosyncrasies of diction (and they are, after all, but that), this is a distinct gain in fidelity to the original text, and after the dialect has been mastered the value of the 'Heimskringla' as history, and the charm of its telling, appeal to one with renewed force. From either point of view, there is nothing at all comparable to it in matter and manner in the early literature of any of the kindred nations. Chronicles there are in plenty, but this, subsequent to the mythical Ynglinga Saga at the beginning of the work, is real history written with precision and a rare degree of feeling and finish.

As a storehouse of historical and literary material the value of the 'Heimskringla' has been recognized chiefly, as is natural, in the north itself, where it has played an important part in the Scandinavian revival from its beginning in the early years of the present century. The first important work of the national movement in literature in point of fact owed its inspiration directly to Snorri's history. The Danish poet Oehlenschläger in Germany during the winter of 1805 had accidentally happened, in the library of the University of Halle, upon a copy of the half-forgotten classic, and, fired with enthusiasm, wrote then and there the tragedy of "Hakon Jarl," still considered one of the masterpieces of Danish literature. The movement thus begun with this and other works whose material was taken from the early history and legends of the north, has since struck firm root in other soil than that of Scandinavia. English literature, both in England and America, has numerous instances to show of its influence. A familiar one is the "Saga of King Olaf," picturesquely told by Longfellow in the "Tales of a Wayside Inn," whose source, again, is this very book.

Apart, however, from questions of the utility of the material, this old work for itself is most interesting reading, with the possible exception of some of its earliest part, which is little more than a chronicle of battle and murder and sudden death, without any of the details that make even such sanguinary history entertaining. None of it is quite the record of "knights and ladies' gentle deeds," but, in spite of its violence, as soon as he is able to obtain good and sufficient data, Snorri makes his Sagas read like an historical novel, only without the exaggerated phraseology and melodramatic action characteristic of that class of works. It is impossible to reconstruct such a period in a novel. Inevitably it turns out to be, to a greater or less extent, but modern thought masquerading in ancient costume. Sagas like those of Hakon the Good and Olaf Tryggvason, on the other hand, are genuine *Culturgeschichte*, except that altogether they are an actual unity, rather than a mosaic of no matter how carefully correlated pieces.

The new 'Heimskringla' is a work of no mean importance in its particular field. Laing's version has been, for half a century, one of the principal English sources for a knowledge of the Sagas. There was, however, no good reason for its recent reprint without revision. Already this must look to be superseded by the present translation, which will much more than fill its place.

MORE FICTION.

The Recipe for Diamonds. By C. J. Cutcliffe Hyne. D. Appleton & Co.

The Two-Legged Wolf. By N. N. Karazin. Translated from the Russian by Boris Lanin. Rand, McNally & Co.

Poushkin's Prose Tales. Translated from the Russian by T. Keane. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan.

A Daughter of To-day. By Mrs. Everard Cotes (Sara Jeannette Duncan). D. Appleton & Co.

Pastime Stories. By Thomas Nelson Page. Harper & Brothers.

The Robb's Island Wreck, and Other Stories. By Lynn R. Meekins. Chicago and Cambridge: Stone & Kimball.

WHOEVER is tempted to follow 'The Recipe for Diamonds' will find himself tasting a variety of adventure, from Norway shooting to Mediterranean fortune-hunting. Chance discovers an old Spanish MS. in Genoa which gives the clue to the hiding-place of a recipe for diamonds. The ignorant provincial schoolmaster whose haphazard purchase it was, enters into reluctant partnership with an adventurer whose scholarly attainments enabled him to decipher the MS., and they agree to start the next day for Minorca—one of the islands of the Balearic Archipelago—where the recipe is said to be hidden in a prehistoric monument together with a pot of the manufactured gems by way of proof. But the schoolmaster plays a scurvy trick on his impecunious partner by stealing off alone at a wickedly early hour. His deserted companion, burning with revenge, finds another partner—this time "a gentleman"—in a gambling hell, and, without waiting for such formalities as the payment of harbor dues, they slip out in a crazy, half-dismantled boat, and race madly across the Mediterranean, determined to reach Port Mahon in advance of the cautious steamer from the peninsula. The cutter proves equal to the emergency, and, the rascally schoolmaster being circumvented, the argonauts rush to the hoary depository, only to find that an unsuspected element has entered into and upset their calculations. The recipe is obliterated. It seems that a shrewd, marvellously endowed blind Jew, overhearing the project in the Genoese restaurant, has stolen a march and secured the recipe, with the aid of a kodak and calcium light. Revenge now has a double spur, and another mad race ensues to capture the photographic plate, with the island of Majorca for the field of action.

The narrative has plenty of dash and go—so much, indeed, that accuracy is left far behind. The geographical misplacings and misspellings might be attributed to caprice rather than carelessness were not the author's hazardous linguistic ventures scattered all through the book. He deplores English perversity in calling Mallorca Majorca, but himself uses the English name of the smaller island, and inconsistently anglicises the name of an historic figure who was born, not at "Miramas" (Miramar), but at Palma. Those who have visited the islands will suspect that the local coloring was not derived from personal observation, although mistakes are easily made in a hasty tour; but a discrepancy of six centuries in the date of the building of the convent wall of Valldemosa is rather wide. These are trifling matters, however, compared with the vulgarity of tone which mars the whole story, and the apparent assumption that a man may shirk the payment of his just debts, keep disreputable company, and still be a gentleman provided he maintains a lofty scorn of his surroundings and possesses certain accomplishments.

Sequels to successful novels are, as a rule, unsatisfactory. Karazin's 'Two-Legged Wolf' is a sequel to an untranslated romance, 'Among the Reeds,' which may serve to account for the very mild character of the interest, so far as the slender thread of plot and story is concerned. The author is not a powerful writer, and his chief merit lies in a fairly vivid description of the landscape and people of the steppes of western Asia, which form his favorite theme. The 'Two-Legged Wolf' is a Turkoman, Atam-Kul by name, who has served under the Russians and risen to the rank of officer, after having slain his brother in order to appropriate the whole of their father's estate. At the time the story opens, he has deserted from the Russians, and is the bandit leader of roving Turkomans who are obstructing the

march of the former to Khiva. In the Russian camp there is but one woman, Natalia, with her son, the child of an officer who figured in the tale to which this is a sequel, and who has deserted her, omitting marriage because of her inferior birth. Natalia and her son are the pets of the Russian force, to whom Natalia is supposed to serve as nurse when necessary. Officers and men vie with each other in securing for them every comfort and even luxury. Atam-Kul has seen Natalia and wishes to make her his wife. Naturally, she recoils from the savage Turkoman, and he plots to steal her. The romance consists of a description of the advance of the Russians on Khiva, their sufferings, Atam-Kul's wily entrance to the camp, his theft of the little boy, Natalia's flight to him in order to save her child's life, the agony of despair on the part of a lame Cossack officer who is deeply in love with her, her eventual rescue, rejection of her betrayer of former days, wedding with the lame Cossack, and peaceful, happy life thereafter. The author always illustrates his own books, and therefore they can be said to be truly illustrated. It must be confessed, however, that his strong point does not lie so much in writing and illustrating novels as in making designs for table porcelain, in which line he is famous. The occasional specimens of his art in this direction, which are to be seen at one of our great shops, will be likely to commend him to our public far more than his literary efforts, though they afford but an inadequate idea of his talents as displayed on a large scale. The translation is admirably done, and occasional notes help to a right understanding of the allusions.

Alexander Pushkin's services to the Russian language in general, and in the matter of poetry in particular, have been widely and adequately recognized, but this very appreciation on one point has, apparently, cast a shadow on his equally great services to the language in the direction of prose. Before his day the only Russian romances which had the slightest tinge of modernity in either language or style were, practically, the historian Karamzin's sweetish sentimental little stories, which are now interesting solely as examples in the progress of literature, and are hopelessly antiquated in feeling, form, and scope. Pushkin's short stories really offer the foundation on which the giants of Russian literature, who rose in the generation that succeeded him, built their splendid structures. It is astonishing how fresh and interesting, how true to modern life and national feeling, are these stories written in the first third of the present century; especially when we take into consideration the fact that Pushkin himself was the person who did more than any one man to make the Russian language what it is to-day, a flexible, beautiful, all-sufficient medium for the expression of every delicate shade of thought. Lomonosoff, who began the reformation of the unwieldy ancient tongue into a literary language in the middle of the last century, exists to-day chiefly as a name, and his pompous, tedious style long ago ceased to have any influence. On the contrary, Pushkin remains a living force in the education of every writer in the land, and will remain so as long as Russian authors use their pens or Russian laymen speak. It is true that Gogol is the father of all the modern realistic romances in Russian, which have opened up a new perspective to the world, and that Gogol's style is as unlike that of Pushkin, his contemporary, as possible. Nevertheless, no one can read these stories without feeling that the kinship between Pushkin and Turgeneff is very close indeed. Pushkin lacks Turgeneff's amazing power of condensation, both of sentiment and of facts, which forces the reader to dilute the sentiment and supply volumes between the facts, while he peruses, over and over again, the exquisite phrases which fascinate him like many-faceted jewels. But his touch is sure, his observation is fairly acute, his language melodious and beautiful in the extreme, as it is in his inimitable poetry, while his architecture, so to speak, is compact and perfect, as Turgeneff's was after him.

The nine stories contained in this volume have been beautifully and sympathetically rendered into English; the paper, binding, and typography are a treat to the eye, and all that could be desired, with the exception of one or two words, accidentally omitted. All, or nearly all, of them have been translated previously, and the longest, "The Captain's Daughter," must be tolerably familiar to the public. Still, this complete collection can be heartily recommended to those whose taste for the delicately humorous and the typically Russian have not been spoiled by more highly spiced mental food.

It is to be regretted that, after so much brilliant touching off of artistic and literary Bohemia on both sides of the Channel, Mrs. Cotes should herself have fallen into the toils of conventionality, and wound up her clever study of *décadent* tendencies according to the exigencies of a Mudie three-volume favorite. To leave a final impression that her fresh, original, and really delightful heroine has been after all merely a lay figure, from whom the trappings are stripped with almost vindictive exposure, is a wasteful and ridiculous excess of consideration for the requirements of a novel as understood by literary Philistia. If all egotists of one-and-twenty were disposed of with high-handed justice, gray heads, it is to be feared, would be few. Yet justice unseasoned by mercy is what is dealt to the pretty and fetching correspondent of the *Illustrated Age*, not only by her author in person, but by her girl lover and man friend as well. In a sense, however, she is avenged, for Janet and Kendal illustrate aptly enough Elfrida's *fin-de siècle* tenet of the vulgarizing influence of all matrimonial engagements.

It was a clever thought to place this heroine's beginnings in Sparta, Ill. Otherwise her detachment from traditions, the filial included, and from all save self-made prejudices could not have been so logically accounted for. Only the scion of an unsaturated race could have absorbed atmospheres, in the Quartier Latin or the journalistic purlieus of Fleet Street, with Elfrida Bell's untroubled impartiality. That she should have been able to present her sublime crudities in an accent and form captivating to ears polite in a Kensington drawing-room, is not among the items one mentally labels conceivable, yet is convincing enough as one reads. There and elsewhere she is made the mouthpiece of a great deal of amusing and up-to-date comment on art and morals. Technically, she might be called a "Jeune." It is not until one begins to scent the fact that she is a "leading idea," and not, after all, a flesh and blood freak of Sparta and the nineteenth century, that one ceases to overlook the element of the grotesque in her fascinating personality. In any case, a brighter bit of fiction than this which she infuses with sprightliness is seldom to be met with.

There seems to be no reason in art or nature why Mr. Page's three-and-twenty stories, chiefly in his well-known Southern-negro vein, should not run on into a thousand and one. They are composed out of no rarer stuff than such episodes and anecdotes as almost any man's experience might supply; and any man noting the easy, natural, off-hand manner of their telling might be pardoned for fancying he could do as well himself if he tried. He has but to try, however, to realize that their apparent simplicity is the happy outcome of those indefinable and complex gifts — the eye for effect, the sense of climax, the love of narration — which taken all together make the story-teller's temperament, and without which the would-be spinner of yarns is a bore. These pages seem to talk as they go, and one can almost hear the mellow laugh that might fitly accompany them. They compose a capital volume to kill time withal. Genial, humorous, suggestive of nothing beyond the moment, they offer just the cheer that a mind may grow sleek and fat and — herein lies their flaw in the end — "effete" upon. One looks in vain along their unvarying level for an appeal now and then to the higher intellectual, moral, or æsthetic instincts. Their style is much as chance and American idiom have made it, and the atmosphere of Bœotia is over the scenes through which their amiable and occasionally pathetic figures move.

Four out of Mr. Lynn R. Meekins's eight stories compose a connected series that might fitly be entitled 'Plain Tales from a Country Constituency.' Not until, in the last of them, David Gad steps from the shrievalty to the office of clerk of the court is their conclusion properly reached, and then even the reader who has followed his shrewdly, though honestly, pushed political fortunes so far would not be averse to seeing him take the next rung of the ladder. The unmasking by the way of some of the methods of "bosses," and of the "court-house crowd," contributes to the interest of his history. "Two Booms," which does not belong in the sequence, is a sketch of much vigor and directness of aim. The transformation of Mr. Hoddle, grocer, into Col. Hoddle, the magnate, and his outwitting by J. Maximilian Ross, railroad agent incognito, are told in the vernacular that fits the theme, but with a humorous sense of the situation that relieves the story from vulgarity. The title story is a readable episode of the heroism of the surfmen belonging to an isolated life-saving station. The remaining two are so slight as to call for no special mention, though they reflect no discredit on the company in which they are found.

History of England and the British Empire from B. C. 55 to A. D. 1890. By Edgar Sanderson, M. A. Frederick Warne & Co. 1894. 8vo, pp. 1,098.

THIS work reminds us, and clearly was meant to remind us, of the early editions of Green's 'Short History of the English People.' It is, in many respects, "Green" enlarged. It begins earlier and comes down later; that work contained something over 800 pages, this has 1,100 wider pages; the "Contents" of this is an amplification of the "Chronological Annals"; here are similar genealogical tables, and maps, but more of them. With the material likeness, however, the resemblance ends. Mr. Sanderson has produced a creditable text-book, but not a piece of literature; he has read the sources and weighed the authorities, and his opinions are legitimately come by, but the readily kindling imagination that made the past present to Mr. Green, and caused him to write of Alfred and William as of personal acquaintances, is lacking; the interest here is

the unfailing interest of the long drama of English history—dull indeed must be the book that dims it.

The author has rightly judged that many people are most easily and deeply interested in past conditions when these are brought home to them by the presentation of individual experiences in minute detail. The method is exemplified in the full extracts that he has made from the household roll or account-book of Bishop Swinfield, for 1289-90. It is, indeed, the personal, individual element that first attracts; in this lies the power and value of historical fiction. To study the great charter is well, is indispensable, but if we wished to interest a difficult class, we should turn first to Domesday. What an attractive and valuable introduction to the study of mediæval civilization might be made from the 'Polyptyque' of Abbé Irminon! Too much detail, of course, wearies and disgusts no less than over-generalization, but, judiciously used, it is the chief aid of the teacher of history.

Mr. Sanderson is free from over-fondness either for military affairs or the gossip of courts; he treats of the growth of British empire in the broader sense, the sense in which the better class of English statesmen have undoubtedly striven to extend English influence, and the tone of his book is consonant with the dignity of the theme, impartial without abnegation of opinion, liberal, and rather unusually free from provincialism where foreign relations and the affairs of other nations are concerned. All sides of the national life are touched upon, but the political and social development is more satisfactorily handled than the literary and intellectual, especially in the later periods, where these last sections are apt to dwindle into little more than lists of names. It is apparently inevitable that handbooks should lose any heat or color of narrative they may possess as the contemporary period is approached, and though Mr. Sanderson brings the story down to 1890 (and the ten years of English history from 1880 to 1890 were not uneventful), it rapidly declines in interest after the repeal of the Corn Laws.

It may be pointed out that the author is wrong in assigning the "farthest north" to Markham, in 1876 (p. 984). Markham reached 83° 20′ 26″. Lockwood and Brainard in 1882 reached 83° 23′ 8″. It is quite true, as stated on the same page, that McClure discovered the northwest passage; but if the fact had been mentioned that the passage from sea to sea was made by sledge, no discredit would have been imputed to that able commander. No American will grudge an English historian a quarter of a page out of such a total for the victory of the *Shannon*, but an allusion, at least, to that of the *Bonhomme Richard* might not unreasonably be expected. The reference to Waldseemueller (p. 369) is incorrect, as that cosmographer did himself suggest the name "America." "Modern research," says Mr. Sanderson, "has proved [Sir John de Mandeville's] accuracy in describing what he saw himself" (p. 368). Modern research might possibly have done this much for a once brilliant reputation could it have pointed out one place or one event that "Sir John" had probably seen himself. Is it not about time that Mandeville ceased to be quoted in text-books? There is a fairly good index.

One Hundred and Sixty Allied Families. By John Osborne Austin. Providence, R. I.: J. O. Austin. 1894.

SUPPOSE a genealogically-minded father to draw up for his son four charts, exhibiting (a) his own paternal pedigree for six generations, (b) his maternal, (c) his wife's paternal, and (d) her maternal. Then let him devote a section to each of the (160) families thus displayed, showing the relationship as fully as possible, and, in the case of leading individuals of the group, building up a biographical sketch from historical data, itemized chronologically. This is what Mr. Austin has done, with the caution, accuracy, and antiquarian knowledge which his 'Genealogical Dictionary of Rhode Island' and 'Ancestry of Thirty-three Rhode Islanders' exhibited so remarkably. The result is such a comprehensive survey as Mr. Waters attains by massing the wills of the family connection (Washington, Harvard, Pynchon) he is at work upon; and the value of it is of course not confined to the laborious compiler and his immediate posterity.

Mr. Austin's field is still largely, if not principally, Rhode Island, but by virtue of a Quaker strain he has much to do with Nantucket, as the names of Coffin, Gardner, Hussey, Macy, and Starbuck on his father's side clearly evince; indeed, five of the original nine purchasers of the island figure in his list, as well as five of the original purchasers of Providence from Roger Williams. Baptists and Quakers are in the denominational majority, with a primitive affinity indicated by the rubric "Whipped, imprisoned, fined, etc., in Massachusetts for Quakerism, Baptist belief, and other 'abominable heresies,' etc.," under which sixteen names are enumerated. The south shore of Massachusetts Bay is represented by four *Mayflower* passengers, among others. The most famous colonial personage is Samuel Gorton, who, if he contrived to make himself somewhat uncomfortable to the Puritans of the Bay as well as to his Providence associates, in the end turned out not half a bad citizen. The main incidents in his life are freely chronicled, as are also those of the scarcely less well-known Stephen Bachelder of Hampton, N. H., Mr. Austin's ancestor (like the poet Whittier's), through his daughter, who married Christopher Hussey. Still another Puritan victim on the list is the Baptist William Witter of Lynn, at whose house service was held in 1651 by John Clarke, Obadiah Holmes, and John Crandall, journeying from Newport for that purpose, as Witter was too old to travel; which cost Holmes a fine, imprisonment, and flogging —to the great distress of Puritan apologists ever since.

It will be seen that one may get from these biographies, with their abstracts of wills and inventories, court and church records, and traditions, many interesting glimpses of early New England life and society. As for genealogical research, Mr. Austin has facilitated the use of this volume in every way short of a *prenominal* index, which would have been costly, and a running headline to tell us which one of the 160 families is under consideration. His portrait, which serves as frontispiece, will inspire confidence in a manifestly cool head, controlled by level judgment and a love of truth. These biographic memoranda are laudably free from concealment of human failings and conflicts.

The Five Zoroastrian Gâthâs, with the Zend, Pahlavi, Sanskrit, and Persian Texts. With translations. By Lawrence H. Mills, D.D., Hon. M.A., Oxon. Leipzig and Oxford. Large 8vo, pp. xxx, 622. 1894.

DIFFERENT parts of this book upon the Gâthâs appeared some years ago, but its publication was interrupted by that of the thirty-first volume of the 'Sacred Books of the East,' in which the author translated the entire 'Yasna' (which contains the Gâthâs), together with the Visparad, Afrinagan, and Gâh of the 'Avesta' (1887). This present work, which is the result of extraordinary labor of a very varied character, and the 'Sacred Books of the East' are complementary to each other, and greatly advance our knowledge of the subject. In Dr. Mills's well justified opinion, the Gâthâs of Zoroaster are among the most important monuments of the early life of mankind. They have long been recognized as the genuine productions of a sage who lived in Iran at a very early period, which, like the date of Homer, can never be precisely determined, but which, we may safely conclude, was earlier than the dynasty of the Achemenids; and they are as interesting as they are ancient, for we can trace in them some of the most refined and sublime conceptions as to the nature of the Deity and his accompanying spirits (the so-called Amshaspands), no compositions of equally early date surpassing or perhaps approaching them in analogous delineations. Whereas in the sister-lore of the 'Rig Veda' we have gods who are for the most part the deification of the forces of material nature represented under grossly anthropomorphic images, in the Gâthâs we have spiritual and intellectual attributes supposed to be the characteristics of the highest universal divinity represented, and these attributes are even addressed as separate personal beings, while their names possess the highest moral meaning. They are appealed to and besought to come and be embodied in the politico-religious life of the people.

These ancient hymns are also at the same time expressions of personal feeling on the part of Zarathushtra and his few royal colleagues, who were carrying on a struggle with the idolaters or adherents of the old Aryan heathenism reigning in the Indian hymns of the Vedas. In this earnest effort on the part of a small group of leading chieftains much personal feeling is disclosed, and it is this feature which induces our author and many other critics to accept these hymns as the genuine production of an historical person. They are, however, as difficult as they are celebrated, and the folly of depending on etymology alone for their elucidation is strikingly shown by the fact that the ancient light-gods of the Vedas, the Devas, become the Daevas or evil demons of the 'Avesta.' How could etymology help here? So great have been these difficulties that renderings have often been advanced and then shortly withdrawn by the same writers.

In view of the obscurities encountered in these investigations, Dr. Mills, who is acquainted with the 'Veda' as well as with the 'Avesta,' remarks that while the so-called tradition contained in the Pahlavi translation must be used with caution, it is absolutely necessary to consult it, and neglect of it is fatal to all claims to thorough scholarship. He also asserts that traces of the original meaning of the Gâthâs which it contains may often be found buried amidst a mass of otherwise erroneous traditional comments, and in fact that these traces are often of most value where the comments themselves, regarded as actual attempts at literal and grammatical reproduction, are most faulty. For example, in 'Yasna' 43, 8, the word which now stands in the Zend character as *ufyâ* must once have confronted the translator in the Pahlavi character, for it is translated as if it were misread *napesh*, the two words being spelt in the extremely difficult Pahlavi language with precisely the same cha-

racters. A similar case presents itself in the case of *Vahishtâ*, in 'Yasna' 43, 15; it once stood in Pahlavi characters, for it is translated as if it were *Vakhsht â*, both words, again, being spelt alike in Pahlavi. These suggestions have a very wide bearing, and may have very important results on our future restoration of texts, for many of the grammatical forms of the Zend can be shown to be much more regular than they now appear after their proper spelling has been restored by the same line of reasoning which our author has pursued in the cases indicated. That is to say, we must regard the Zend letters as sometimes still representing more than one sound—a constant peculiarity of theirs in their earlier applications and while they were still solely Pahlavi letters and had not yet assumed their more definite and finished character, as letters of an alphabet specially constructed for the preservation of the letters of the 'Avesta.'

Hence the importance of thoroughly mastering the Pahlavi commentaries, which are also now increasingly prized as an indispensable help by all Avesta scholars, and especially so by the scholars of a large and important school. Dr. Mills has therefore rendered a most important service in giving us, besides the original text and its translation in Latin and English, the Pahlavi translation in both text and translation—a work which they alone can appreciate who have themselves struggled with its difficulties. The author has added the Sanskrit translation of 'Neryosangh,' and this translation is itself translated in the light of the Pahlavi, seeing that it can be correctly read only in this manner, as the Pahlavi rather than the Gâthâ itself was its original. There follows a translation in Parsee-Persian. The extensive additions to our stock of new manuscripts lately received from the East by the author in Oxford are described in the preface, and an exact commentary contains a comprehensive and moderate criticism of former works on the subject. Scholars will no longer have an excuse for neglecting the Pahlavi commentaries or other subsidiary lights in the study of Zoroastrian science.

London Signs and Inscriptions. By Philip Norman. London: Elliot Stock. 1893.

UNLIKE most other cities, London is continually spreading to all points of the compass. There is no physical or other impediment to its growth in any given direction, and after a few years' absence the returning Londoner finds an equal number of new houses in place of green fields all round the vast circle. But while this constant change is going on at the outskirts, the central region, and especially that part of it technically known as the City, is very slowly altered. Indeed, many of its alleys and buildings would still be recognizable by one who had lived in the days of Sir Christopher Wren. This was certainly the case a few years ago, but the so-called march of improvement and the new streets projected by the County Council threaten destruction to many of the old landmarks. It is fortunate, therefore, that Mr. Norman has collected the mass of interesting facts contained in this volume while it was still possible to do so. Many venerable signs are preserved in the Guildhall Museum; but others are still in their original positions on old buildings and street corners, and are likely to disappear through accident or carelessness, as has happened in too many cases already. On the other hand, while much has been lost, some valuable finds have also been made in recent years. In London, as in Rome, there has been a long accumulation of débris, and, as a result, the present town is raised many feet above the level of Roman London; and in digging the deep foundations of modern buildings many signs and other relics have come to light—for that this custom of street signs is as old as the Romans is shown by discoveries at Pompeii and elsewhere.

According to Mr. Norman, it was after the great fire of 1666 that sculptured house and street signs were generally adopted in London. They had long been used in Holland, and, apart from their artistic merit, were no doubt a great convenience, inasmuch as the modern system of numbering streets did not come into vogue till the following century. How interesting these signs are, how intimately associated with the history and literature of the country, will appear from a few examples.

Of all the celebrated taverns of London none has a fairer title to celebrity than the Boar's Head in Eastcheap. It is referred to as a well-known place of entertainment in a lease still extant dated 1537, and it was doubtless frequented by Shakspere and his friends. It was destroyed in the great fire, rebuilt on the same spot, and finally removed to make room for the approaches to the present London Bridge. Its sign was discovered in 1834, on the removal of Whitechapel Mount, an elevated piece of ground, supposed by some authorities to have been composed of rubbish from the fire, and by others to have been used as a burial-place for the victims of the Plague. The inscription on the sign reads as follows: "William Brooke Landlord of the Bores Hedde Estchepe. 1566."

Another famous inn was the Bull, frequented by old Hobson, of "Hobson's choice," the Cambridge carrier of Milton's day. When the old house was destroyed in 1866, a sculptured sign dated 1642 was rescued. In the Guildhall Museum the American traveller will view with interest, not unmixed with astonishment and a sense of ownership, the sign of the Spread Eagle, which, though dated 1669, is supposed to have marked the house in Bread Street in which Milton was born, and in which his father carried on the business of scrivener. A document in the British Museum, dated 1602, refers to "the new shop of John Milton, scrivener, at the Spread Eagle in Bread Street." The sign of the Dog and Duck, dated 1716, is now embedded in the wall of Bethlehem Hospital. This inn was in St. George's Fields, where were many ducking-ponds frequented by sporting cockneys. Later on, a mineral spring was discovered, the water of which was recommended by Dr. Johnson to Mrs. Thrale, and the Dog and Duck became a fashionable resort. But this spring, like Sadler's Wells and other London spas, has long since disappeared.

Of these signs, and of many others, Mr. Norman gives excellent illustrations, as also of some curious old houses which have recently been torn down. He has accumulated a remarkable fund of information, and, in spite of a tendency to prolixity and repetition, he has produced a very readable book, and deserves the thanks of all who are interested in such subjects.

Among the Moors. By G. Montbard. London: Low; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1894.

WE congratulate Mr. Montbard on having spent six pleasant weeks in Morocco. He saw curious people and things, had a number of interesting if commonplace experiences, and enjoyed the society of congenial companions with whom he could indulge in harmless witticisms. We do not congratulate either him or his publisher on having inflicted on us a useless book five years later. It could have but one reason. We should be unfair in supposing that it was meant to be of profit to us, as it makes no pretence of telling anything new or worth remembering. Its object must be to amuse, and Morocco is strange enough to most people and picturesque enough in itself to make the task not too difficult for moderate talent. What is more, the author shows in more than one single descriptive passage that if he had had judicious advice to correct the faults of his own taste, he would have given us a volume with which to while away agreeably a leisure hour, either heightening our imagination or reviving our memories of the East. Instead, what has he done? He has foisted on us what seems to be a diary furbished up for the occasion—nearly three hundred pages written in the present tense till it becomes utterly wearisome, mixing up narration and description in a way to destroy all interest in either, and to make the reader only long to get through. He has introduced a certain amount of trivial incident, and a large quantity of the silliest attempts at wit that it has been our misfortune to read for a long time. If any one doubts this statement, let him see in the index how many references there are to each of the other members of the party, remembering that nearly every reference indicates a would-be joke; or let him read "A Month After" and the epilogue as specimens of Mr. Montbard's style when he wishes to be humorous. After this it is hardly worth while to cavil at minor defects, like the inflated nonsense of the preface, the use of such words as "vomer" or "appetences" which the ordinary reader will have to look up in the dictionary, or the English of such expressions as "with Forestier and I," or "With precocious perversity in order to amuse they exert themselves unto belabouring." Finally, even if we turn for relief to the numerous illustrations, we are soon forced to the conclusion that too often their chief merit is that they occupy the room of so much text.

Alaskan Grammar and Vocabulary. By Augustus Schultze, D.D. Bethlehem, Pa.: Moravian Publication Office. 1894. 8vo, 70 pp.

THIS is an enlarged and improved edition of a grammar and vocabulary of the Eskimo language of the Kuskoquim district of northwestern Alaska, compiled by the Rev. Augustus Schultze, in 1889. The material has been obtained chiefly through the Moravian missionaries of Bethel, on the Kuskoquim River, and some of their pupils. The author has for the most part availed himself of existing grammars of the Labrador dialect for comparison, and, while disclaiming completeness or perfection for his work, not having had personal opportunities in Alaska, hopes that this pioneer attempt may facilitate and shorten the labor of those whose duties as missionaries or as teachers oblige them to acquire a knowledge of the native tongue. For philological purposes, it is to be regretted that Dr. Schultze did not adopt for his transliterations the standard alphabet so generally in use for recording American dialects; but, this reservation made, his little work may be welcomed as beginning the systematic study of the Northern dialects of Alaska, which have for a long time been known only by more or less imperfect vocabularies. The Kuskoquim dialect appears to be rather specialized in the formation of its

words compared with the series of tongues spoken by the Eskimos north of the Yukon; early writers erroneously attributed to it a hybrid vocabulary of both Indian (Tinné) and Innuit origin. The present work shows, however, that the only exotic words included in it are names of objects which have come to be known through contact between the natives and Russians or other civilized visitors and traders. The most prominent characteristics of this dialect appear to be the prevalence of guttural *g*-sounds, and the use of *sh*, where, in the more northern tribes, we find a clear-cut *k* or sibilant *s* in the analogous words. The vocabulary includes about 1,000 verbal forms.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abreast of the Times: Sermons on Social Subjects. James Pott & Co. $1.25.
Alberg, A. Sophos. Chicago: Bow-Knot Publishing Co.
Brearley, W. H. Wanted, A Copyist. Cassell. 50 cents.
Christianity Practically Applied. International Christian Conference. 2 vols. Baker & Taylor Co. Each $2.
Church, S. H. Oliver Cromwell: A History. Putnams. $3.
Crane, Lauren E. Newton Booth of California: His Speeches and Addresses. Putnams. $2.50.
Deussin, Prof. P. Elements of Metaphysics. Macmillan. $1.50.
Discipleship: The Scheme of Christianity. London; Williams & Norgate; New York: Putnams. $1.
Egleston, Prof. T. The Life of John Paterson, Major-General in the Revolutionary Army. Putnams. $2.50.
Farr, Florence The Dancing Faun. London: Mathews & Lane; Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Fitzgerald, P. The Operas of Gilbert and Sullivan. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Gomme, Alice B. Children's Singing Games. London: David Nutt; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Goodwin, Prof. W. W., and White, Prof. J. W. The First Four Books of Xenophon's Anabasis. Revised ed. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.65.
Hamilton, Dr. A. McL., and Godkin, L. System of Legal Medicine. Vol. I. E. B. Treat.
Helm, Flora. Between Two Forces. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Kennedy, A. C. Erotica. London: Gay & Bird.
Leroy Beaulieu, A. The Empire of the Tsars and the Russians. Part II. The Institutions. Putnams. $3.
Lombard, L. Observations of a Musician. 2d ed. Utica, N. Y.: The Author.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 28, 1894.

The Week.

WE presume that few persons expected that the Senate Sugar investigation would find out many facts pointing to corruption or speculation. It cannot be affirmed that the committee did not want to find the facts—on the contrary, they have shown every disposition to go to the bottom of the subject; but the only witnesses who could have told anything very interesting, the stock-brokers, refused to testify, and there was no effective way of compelling them. On the other hand, much general information was gathered about the doings of the Sugar Trust and their mode of working politics through campaign contributions. The testimony on this point has not been wasted by any means. It has had an effect on public opinion which will be reflected when the sugar schedule comes up in the House. That portion of the Senate schedule which postpones the date when the act shall go into effect until the 1st of January next will almost certainly be rejected by the House. This clause offers the opportunity to a few persons to import all the raw sugar on the world's markets, and pocket the duty when the act goes into operation. It is not necessary that the Sugar Refining Company itself should buy it. Anybody can do so who is sure of being able to sell it to the Trust after the first of January. There is no particular reason why the ordinary shareholders of the company should have any part of this importing profit. An omnibus load of persons could easily pocket the whole. The amount of sugar that might be imported in this interval, so that the tax should be a strictly private speculation, would probably be as much as one-fourth of a year's consumption. It would be much larger if it fell in the first half of the year, when the bulk of the cane-sugar crop comes into market. The tax on one-fourth of a year's supply would be an enormous profit, however, and there is no reason why more than half-a-dozen persons should get any part of it.

There is an important consideration which the Trust constantly keeps in mind, and which its opponents would do well to watch, viz., the relation between what protection the Trust gets and the revenue duty secured by the Government (with incidental protection to American sugar-refiners). If the conference committee should, by a specific schedule, put a duty on raw sugars, with a special discrimination in favor of refined sugars, then, at any time when the public is prepared for it, it will be perfectly easy and practicable to wipe off or reduce the special protection to the Trust without disturbing or even discussing the revenue duty, in which lies the protection of our planters. That is just what the Trust is afraid of; and it is therefore intensely interested in having the bulk of its net protection so entwined with the revenue duty and the incidental protection secured to the planter as, on the one hand, not to be understood by the mass of our people, and, on the other hand, not to be disturbed without raising the whole question. It is of the greatest advantage to the public, and the greatest disadvantage to the Trust, that its own protection be kept distinct from the revenue duty. This is one of the reasons why it so strenuously insists upon getting its protection in the shape of its gains under the 40 per cent. duty, any disturbance of which in the future will raise the question of revenue and start into opposition our United States sugar-growing interests, which it expects to become more powerful every year. On the other hand, if the duty on raw sugars is made distinct from the duty on refined sugar, the statistics will show, even in a few years, that the refined-sugar discrimination yields no revenue to any one except the Trust; and the Government, and the mass of our people, even the planters themselves, will be glad to see wiped out the special protection which helps no one but the refiners.

What is the opinion of the *Tribune* upon the silver attitude which one Republican State convention after another is taking? There have been six such conventions held—Indiana, Ohio, California, Kansas, Maine, and Vermont—and the platform of every one of them has shown a disposition to juggle with the silver question in the hope of catching free-silver votes. That of California came out squarely for the free and unlimited coinage of silver; those of Indiana and Ohio favored bimetallism on the Reed-Lodge plan of forcing England by discriminating tariff duties to abandon the gold standard; and those of Kansas, Maine, and Vermont uttered varying degrees of bimetallic nonsense adapted to their respective localities. It is a fact that not a single Republican State convention has made a straightforward declaration in favor of sound money and against any further trifling with the disastrous and dangerous silver delusion. What has the *Tribune* to say about this? So far as we have been able to discover, nothing. It is almost carried beyond the limits of rational utterance in its abhorrence of Democratic incapacity and incompetence to govern, but the formally announced opinions of its own party upon the most important of existing governmental questions do not excite any comment whatever.

The strongest point of our mighty men of silver in the Senate has always been the Orient. When driven into a corner on matters of fact respecting the currency of civilized nations, their surest escape has been to the "teeming millions" of India and China and Japan, about whose consuming desire for silver and portentous capacity to "absorb" it they have told us many and strange things. Indeed, it was only a little while ago that President Andrews came out with a triumphant proof that silver had not really depreciated after all, inasmuch as a remote corner of China had been found where silver would purchase as much rice as twenty years ago. It has been hard and seemingly scarce worth while to chase down all this wisdom drawn from the East for our confusion, but it looks now as if the East itself would do the chasing down. The Senate debate on coining dollars especially for the Orient has percolated to the Orient itself, and is calling out such discouraging observations as this from the *Japan Mail* of June 2: "It is curious and interesting to note how little information the Senators seem to possess about the currency of Eastern countries." It expresses surprise that any Senator should think, as all seemed to think, that Mexican dollars are largely current in Japan, and gently raps Senator Sherman over the knuckles for speaking of the *yen* as a coin issued by the Chinese Government. All this is depressing enough, and we doubt if we shall ever be able again to hang in trustful confidence on the lips of Jones or Stewart as they discourse of the currency of Cathay through one of its own cycles. A silver prophet without honor out of his own country is truly as pitiable as he is rare.

The Socialist Labor party has had a convention at Cleveland, Ohio, and framed a platform which provides for "the enlargement of the mental and psychic requirements of enlightened mankind" by the very simple method of shortening the hours of labor. It also provides for "the repeal of all laws in restraint of paupers, tramps, and conspiracies," and for State and local employment of the unemployed, and the trial of all offences committed during industrial disturbances by jurors drawn from "the industrial classes." There is, of course, also the usual provision for the Government ownership of railroads, ferries, gasworks, etc. We can, however, hardly call this a well-considered platform,

THE MORAL OF CARNOT'S ASSASSINATION.

It would be useless to try to conceal from ourselves the fact that M. Carnot's assassination is likely to frighten every man in power in the civilized world. It will unquestionably make his successor very nervous. It was said not long ago by a military writer that a man who did not mind being killed was always a terrible antagonist, and such an antagonist every anarchist who makes these attempts on life and property seems to be. Those anarchists who have been caught are unquestionably fanatics, and the distinguishing mark of a fanatic, as of a lunatic, is that he acts from high motives. When the lunatic murders his wife and family, it is always, or nearly always, under the pressure of some dreadful sense of duty. He does it with a view to save them from some more terrible fate, or in obedience to the command of some mysterious power. The murdering anarchist is, as far as we have seen him, only one degree removed from the poor wife-murderer. "Society" has taken, in his eyes, the place of his own family. He has a solemn mission to do something to bring about its reform, and, as in the case of the ordinary homicidal lunatic, the easiest method of reform which suggests itself to him is killing somebody. But he is removed from the ordinary lunatic to a degree which makes him responsible for his acts. He always tries to run away after throwing his bomb or firing his shot, and always pleads the dictates of his conscience as an excuse or reason why he should not be hanged or guillotined. In no case has a "militant anarchist" committed suicide. He likes to take his chance of escape as a conscientious reformer, and to enjoy the notoriety which follows on his crime; in which, of course, he derives great assistance from the newspapers.

Now, the moral of all this is, that the men whom society calls on to expose themselves in great offices, in the struggle with anarchy and disorder on which the world seems to have entered, ought to be supported by something more than the terrors of the law or the general execution of the assassins. It is not enough, when a man like Carnot or Crispi, or Heaven knows who next, falls under the assassin's dagger, to lament his fate and denounce the criminal. As the world now stands, we hold it to be the solemn duty of all writers, preachers, and professors, who are engaged in the work of reform, to refrain from denunciations of the existing society and social arrangements. Reform is possible without this, by simply acting on the lines of human nature. The common practice among Christian and other socialists and utopians of abusing nearly everybody who succeeds in life as an enemy of the human race, and the existing constitution of society as an engine of fraud and oppression, has undoubtedly done much to produce the "militant anarchist," and give a sort of moral justification to his attacks on life and property. For the novel and remarkable thing about these attempts is that they never appear to be dictated by individual hate or animosity. Any group of well-dressed persons attracts the bomb, and any officer of the Government attracts the dagger or the pistol. This shows that there is a theory behind the thing, and this theory has certainly not come out of the workshops or factories. It has come down from the colleges, libraries, and lecture-rooms, and latterly from the churches. The "thinker" who first gave out that all laboring and indeed all poor men were the victims of "injustice," was the first man to sow the seeds of the frightful insanity with which we are now called on to contend. The injustice of one man can be righted by law or opinion, but the injustice to which all well-to-do people owe their comforts, naturally seems to a half-crazy ignoramus to require sterner and more sweeping measures. Probably thousands of weak brains in both Europe and America are waiting to-day to have their murderous passions lighted up by a word or two in favor of "social evolution" by some light-headed professor or half-baked minister who has been overcome by the spectacle of human misery.

The church for ages did excellent work in preaching content to the poor and unfortunate, for there was then really no escape from their misery. These teachings have now been dropped, or fall on leaden ears. The new doctrine, that no man should be content, that all should try to rise, has been converted into a proposition that all *can* rise, and that if anybody does not rise, it is because somebody is keeping him down. Herein lies the source of all our woes. Anybody who goes about spreading this view is really an accessory before the fact to all anarchist crimes. The true rôle for the social reformer in our day is to comfort and help the weak-hearted, to raise up those who fall, to strengthen those who stand, and to open to all a fair field, and to try to keep down the world's supply of envy, hatred, and malice.

OUR SAMOAN TROUBLE.

Mr. Gresham has sent in to the President a report on the Samoan matters which ought to be read by all persons who feel their loyalty to old-fashioned American principles growing weak. The opening paragraph ought to be hung up in every newspaper office in the country, and over the bed of every young Jingo who thinks foreign meddling a sign of "good Americanism." Here it is:

"It is in our relations to Samoa that we have made the first departure from our traditional and well-established policy of avoiding entangling alliances with foreign powers in relation to objects remote from this hemisphere. Like all other human transactions, the wisdom of that departure must be tested by its fruits. If the departure was justified, there must be some evidence of detriment suffered before its adoption, or of advantage since gained, to demonstrate the fact. If no such evidence can be found, we are confronted with the serious responsibility of having, without sufficient grounds, imperilled a policy which is not only coeval with our government, but to which may, in great measure, be ascribed the peace, the prosperity, and the moral influence of the United States. Every nation, and especially every strong nation, must sometimes be conscious of an impulse to rush into difficulties that do not concern it, except in a highly imaginary way. To restrain the indulgence of such a propensity is not only the part of wisdom, but a duty we owe to the world as an example of the strength, the moderation, and the beneficence of popular government."

We first went to Samoa in 1872, in the person of an unknown German adventurer named Steinberger, whom Gen. Grant had the good nature to make "special agent or commissioner." Steinberger, without any authority, promised the islanders the protection of the United States, but he was so troublesome and foolish that the American consul expelled him from the island, and he left on a British man-of-war. But he had, before he left, made a secret agreement with a German trading-house to throw the commerce of the island into their hands as far as he could, for a consideration.

In 1877 one set of Samoan chiefs sent an ambassador to Washington to make a treaty with us, while another set went to Fiji the same year to solicit the protection of Great Britain. But we refused to make any treaty. The following year, however, Samoa having got into the heads of our politicians, we did conclude a treaty giving us the port of Pago-Pago as a coaling-station, in return for which we were to use our offices as a mediator in case Samoa got into trouble with any European power. In 1879 the Germans, then in the height of their colonizing fever, also made a treaty by which they obtained a naval station in the harbor of Saluafata, The same year Great Britain made another treaty, stipulating that she also should have a naval station and coaling-depot. Then there were five years of quiet. Everybody had his coaling-station, and was happy. But in 1885 the German consul-general, Dr. Stuebel, got out of patience and seized all the land in the municipality of Apia as security for the good behavior of the islanders towards German interests. The American consul, not to be outdone, hoisted the American flag and proclaimed a protectorate. Our Government promptly disavowed him, and suggested a conference of the three powers to consider the situation.

A conference was accordingly held in Washington in June and July, 1887, but could not agree on anything and adjourned till the fall. In the interval the Germans demanded satisfaction from the Samoan King Malietoa, and declared war

against him, and defeated him, and set up another King with a German adviser. We thought this was sharp practice, and sent a naval squadron to Samoa to look after American interests, whatever they were, and the squadron was destroyed in 1889 by a hurricane. In that year a treaty was concluded creating "an autonomous" government for Samoa and guaranteeing its neutrality. It was a beautiful system, but somehow it was not quite autonomous. There was a "supreme court," but the natives defied its writs, and refused to obey the new autonomous King. They became turbulent, and in 1893 broke out into open rebellion, and the autonomy came speedily to an end. The treaty powers put down the rebellion and deported twelve chiefs. The chief justice of the Supreme Court then resigned. So did the president of the Municipal Council of Apia. An American named Hyde was appointed chief justice in November last, but just as he reached his post he found that the laws were silent, as the city was full of warriors repelling attacks on the King. In the spring open war broke out, and several battles were fought around Apia on the autonomous plan. The Government had, on the whole, the best of it, but was nevertheless compelled to call on the foreign men-of-war again. These men-of-war now supply all the peace and security there is in the islands.

When we remember that these islands are 4,000 miles from our shores, and that our trade with them amounts to almost nothing, that we should never have thought of going near them for any purpose had not a foreign adventurer got himself appointed our commissioner under our free-and-easy diplomatic system for his own personal gain, there are few who will read Secretary Gresham's closing paragraph without a sigh of acquiescence:

"Soberly surveying the history of our relations with Samoa, we well may inquire what we have gained by our departure from our established policy beyond the expenses, the responsibilities, and the entanglements that have so far been its only fruits. One of the greatest difficulties in dealing with matters that lie at a distance is the fact that the imagination is no longer restrained by the contemplation of objects in their real proportions. Our experience in the case of Samoa serves to show that, for our usual exemption from the consequences of this infirmity, we are indebted to the wise policy that had previously preserved us from such engagements as those embodied in the general act of Berlin, which, besides involving us in an entangling alliance, has utterly failed to correct, if indeed it has not aggravated, the very evils which it was designed to prevent."

BLACKMAIL GOVERNMENT.

Is there any branch of business in this city, honest or criminal, which does not pay tribute money to Tammany Hall through the police? This question arises naturally in the mind of every reader of the testimony produced daily by the Lexow committee, and especially after testimony covering so wide a range as that of last week. It had been shown heretofore that vice and crime pay heavily for immunity; that applicants for the police-force and candidates for promotion to the higher ranks of the force must pay bribe money to somebody before their ambitions are gratified; that all liquor-saloons, licensed and unlicensed, pay tribute; and that professional swindlers share the profits of their business with the police and conduct it sometimes in partnership with a police justice. On Thursday it was shown that all steamships landing cargoes at this port have to pay blackmail at every stage of the business to every official—police, dock, custom-house, and other—that has anything to do with it; that all storekeepers who desire to use the sidewalks in front of their stores in displaying or handling their goods pay regular tribute to the police of about $25 a year, and that a more or less scientifically constructed tariff runs from the largest stores down to the push-cart vendor in the street, whose tribute is $3 a week.

A very significant bit of testimony was adduced also from a member of the police force, who admitted that he gave ten dollars to his sergeant—"just handed it to him"—on one occasion, merely remarking to him that it was a present. He had never given him any money before or since, and gave it to him on this occasion because he was friendly to him. The amount was just one-half of what the policeman had received from the steamship companies on his beat in the way of "extra compensation." It will be the natural inference of every intelligent person that this bit of testimony shows pretty clearly what the ratio of division is between the patrolmen and their superior officers for revenue derived from this source.

Another significant bit of testimony was that of a produce-dealer, who said he paid $25 a year for sidewalk privileges, and put the money in an envelope and left it at his neighbor's store to be called for. Similar caution was observed by the policeman who, according to another witness, wished to levy an extra tribute upon a push-cart cutlery dealer. Taking up a pair of scissors he asked, "Are they any good?" And being told that they were good enough to sell, he added: "Leave a pair for me with the Italian across the street." Everything in the way of "business" by the police is done in this cautious manner—either through envelopes, or a neighbor, or an Italian across the way. The force is known, according to the testimony of one of its members, as the "envelope gang," and we doubt if anything quite like it has ever existed in any other civilized community.

It would be inaccurate to say that these revelations are causing general surprise. You cannot surprise a community by disclosing facts which have been matters of common knowledge or experience with the larger part of its members for a quarter of a century. No citizen who has paid blackmail in one form is surprised to learn that another citizen has paid it in another form. A merely casual glance at the Dock Department on Thursday revealed the fact that steamship companies are blackmailed by every official in that department who has any power over them. If this was brought out at the first touch of the exploring probe, what would be the result if the department were to be thoroughly investigated? What would be the result in any other department under like treatment? The committee has no power to go into other departments than those connected with the police, and if it were to sit continuously for six months, it would have more than it could do to exhaust that restricted field; but we can see now what would have happened had Boss Platt permitted, in January last, the appointment of a joint committee with full powers to investigate the whole Tammany government. Mr. Croker's trip to Europe would have been hastened perceptibly by such a concession, and it is not improbable that a large collection of other Tammany magnates would have accompanied him.

Shall we be able to get at the sharers in the profits of this government by blackmail who stand behind and above the police and the other departments? Does anybody suppose that the enormous revenues from this government, running from the push-cart at $3 a week to the brothel at $500 "initiation fee" and $50 a month, with a sliding scale of rates upon every variety of reputable business, all stopped in the hands of their collectors? Did no shares pass beyond the police captains and commissioners to the political powers above them? We shall doubtless have light upon these questions in due time. Mr. Goff is clearly master of his case, and has it laid out on scientific lines. There are complaints in Tammany quarters that he is not giving the accused officials sufficient opportunity to be heard; but we discover no demands in these quarters for Judge Divver to take the stand and vindicate his character. Mr. Goff is ready to examine him at any time, and will be ready, we doubt not, to give all other Tammany statesmen and powers equal opportunity to be heard. The end is not yet, but the shame of the city is already established.

THE COURT OF CATHERINE II.

PARIS, June 7, 1894.

M. WALISZEWSKI has given us a most interesting volume on Catherine II. of Russia; it seemed as if he had exhausted his subject. His volume, which bore the title of 'Roman d'une Impératrice,' had truly all the interest of a novel. On the whole, with all her defects, one may even say with all her vices, Catherine appeared in it as a really great sovereign, and we felt that she had been not unjustly called "la

grande Catherine." She was a very exceptional character, and, as M. Waliszewski justly remarks, of all the things which constituted her personal greatness, her prestige, her charm, nothing came to her by inheritance; she conquered or created everything; she formed all the men who became her ministers, her favorites. M. Waliszewski has thought it necessary to add a new volume to his work. Under the title 'Autour d'un Trône,' he gives us the most abundant details on the fellow-workers of Catherine, her friends and her favorites. The subject was a vast one, though, in many respects, the new volume is somewhat of a repetition or an echo of the first. Catherine fills again the whole volume, but it seems to us that a sort of transformation has taken place in the mind of M. Waliszewski. In his 'Roman d'une Impératrice,' though there are many criticisms, admiration is, so to speak, the keynote, the sequel, 'Autour d'un Trône,' reads more like a pamphlet, as a perpetual satire, than as a history. We find in almost every line a certain sort of bitterness and hostility.

Before writing his new work, M. Waliszewski thought it necessary to visit all the places where Catherine spent her eventful life. He was in hopes of finding some of those expressive traits which have more of life in them than the written documents.

"Alas! what I found," he says, "was the great void of things which have gone. In the palaces of Saint Petersburg, even at the Hermitage, nothing, or almost nothing; burnt under the reign of Nicholas, Rastrelli's magnificent edifices have been completely rebuilt. Nothing at Tsarskoe; the pompous or graceful decoration which charmed Ségur is gone, gone also the familiar frame where, under the kindly eye of the goddess vaunted by Voltaire, the widow of the Prince de Ligne, the wit of Potemkin answered the somewhat coarse buffoonery of Narishkin. Peter the Great has been more fortunate: we still find, on the icy shore which was fecundated by his genius, his little wooden house, with its heroic poverty and its suggestive furniture."

It is well known that Catherine, the "Semiramis of the North," was a great patron of the French philosophers. It was worth while to study with some detail what M. Waliszewski calls the intellectual court of Catherine. Voltaire wrote in one of his poems:

"C'est du Nord aujourd'hui que nous vient la lumière."

In a letter to Diderot he says: "It is France which persecutes the philosophers, and the Scythians who favor them." Grimm writes to Catherine: "Madam, after the kindness which your Majesty has lavished on one of the most celebrated philosophers of France, all those who cultivate letters are regarded as your subjects."

It is interesting to know exactly the nature of Catherine's relations with the philosophical school. What was her aim? what was the point of contact between the philosophers and the absolute sovereign of a distant and almost barbarous country? Extremes meet, says the proverb. Can we find an application of it in the sentiment which drew the philosophers towards Catherine? They knew well that this woman ruled over thirty millions of subjects, twenty millions of whom did not possess even their souls, which were transmissible by sale, worth ten rubles apiece on the average—mere muzhiks, covered with beasts' furs, hardly men. Catherine knew that the works of the philosophers, which she delighted in reading, could produce no effect in her vast empire. Since her time, some elements of Occidental culture have penetrated Russia, and Russia, on her side, has produced an original literature; she has shown that she can think for herself. Nevertheless, she remains to a great extent closed to European influences: the two surfaces have been brought in contact; the bodies are still impenetrable to each other. The present sometimes helps us to understand the past, if the past helps us to understand the present. Have we not, in our day, heard the Marseillaise, the great song of the Revolution, sung in St. Petersburg before the Czar? "Thermidor," a play of Sardou's, which had been interdicted in Paris under the Third Republic, could, without any danger, be played in St. Petersburg. We hear a great deal nowadays in Paris of the Russian alliance, of the "âme Russe"; we are supposed to be in communion with this Russian soul, but do we really know what it is? Is it enough to have read Turgeneff and Tolstoi? And did the French philosophers know what the Russian soul was under the reign of their beloved Semiramis of the North?

The relation between Voltaire and Catherine began in 1764. Did Voltaire know that, since 1716, a series of ukases had rendered auricular confession obligatory on all orthodox Russians, and that Catherine herself reprimanded severely Gen. Tchitcherin, Governor of Tobolsk, who was not prompt enough in taking note of those who did not obey the ukases? It suited Voltaire to use the name of Catherine, and it suited her to use his pen. When she was inoculated, Voltaire announced it to the world as a proof of her courage and of her superiority to all prejudices; when Voltaire opened a subscription for the family of Sirven, Catherine allowed him to put her on his list. On one point they saw exactly alike: Voltaire wished to subject the Church to the State, and so did Catherine. In 1771 she called the attention of Europe to the manner in which the Ottoman Porte treated millions of Christians; she sent 1,000 ducats to Voltaire, and asked him to find a young writer who could put together a pamphlet against the Turks. Voltaire wrote it himself ('Le Tocsin des Rois').

There was no end to the compliments they sent to each other; but Voltaire bore away the palm. Europe, he says, admires Catherine, Asia is astounded; if Asia and Europe had any common sense, she would rule over the whole world. She is "Notre Dame de Saint-Pétersbourg," very superior to the Polish virgin of Czenstockowa; she is the deity of the north—"Te Catharinam laudamus, te Dominam confitemur." She knows more than all the philosophers; her big diamond is bigger than the Regent's; her feet are whiter than the snows of Russia, etc., etc. I must confess that I am surprised that M. Waliszewski has not seen that Voltaire was a singular sort of a courtier; that he mixes too much irony and humor in his compliments to be considered an ordinary courtier. Catherine was not his dupe, and he was not the dupe of Catherine. In his correspondence with his friends Voltaire calls Catherine merely *la belle Catean*, or simply *Catean*. To Mme. du Deffand he says: "I know that people reproach her with some little trifles with regard to her husband, but such affairs are family matters that don't concern me; sometimes it is well that people should have grave defects to repair: they have to make greater efforts to force the admiration of men." And Mme. du Deffand, writing to Voltaire about Catherine, who "preached even among her neighbors with an army of 50,000 missionaries, well armed from head to foot," said to him, "Never see your Catherine except through the telescope of your imagination. Leave between her and yourself the distance of space in lieu of the distance of time."

The relations between Catherine and Voltaire were happier than her relations with Diderot. Voltaire often spoke of going to Russia, but he always left the "distance of space" between himself and the Empress. Diderot was not so fortunate. She had invited the famous philosopher to go to St. Petersburg and to continue there the Encyclopædia, which a royal decree had stopped after the first seven volumes. She had bought in 1765 the library of Diderot. He left for St. Petersburg with M. Narishkin, and was at first very well received. Catherine found him a little familiar, and she writes to Mme. Geoffrin that she is obliged to put a table between him and herself, as his mimicry is too expressive. "He takes her hands," writes Grimm, who was at the same moment at St. Petersburg, "he shakes her arm, he strikes on the table." He soon finds a wall rising between himself and Catherine. He asks questions which she refuses to answer; he is very anxious to show that he is no common courtier, but she reminds him at times that she is a sovereign.

One day he was declaiming against the courtiers and their flattery, and said that a special corner ought to be reserved for them in hell. She interrupts him: "Will you tell me what people say in Paris about the death of my husband?" He is embarrassed and speaks of the hard duties sometimes imposed on persons who, by their position, have a great mission. She stops him again: "It seems to me that you are taking the road, if not to hell, at least to purgatory." Diderot found, after a while, that he merely amused Catherine, but that she would not give him any real work to do. He had not made himself popular in society. After five months spent in idle conversations, he went away. He wrote to his wife that, the day before his departure, her Imperial Majesty "sent to me three bags containing a thousand rubles each. . . . If I deduct from it the value of an enamel and of two pictures which I gave the Empress, the expenses of my journey back, and the presents which I must make to Narishkin, . . . there will be left for us five or six thousand francs—perhaps a little less." Diderot forgets to tell his wife that, during his stay in St. Petersburg, he often received presents from the Empress, and that she paid all his expenses. In 1779 she sent some money to him through Grimm. As he was asthmatic, she paid the rent of a larger apartment for him in the Rue Richelieu on the first floor.

D'Alembert was among those who were honored with the advances of Catherine; he was more prudent and reserved than Diderot; his mind was less volatile. The Empress invited him to come to Russia, with a pension of 10,000 rubles, to finish there the Encyclopædia. In return she asked him to teach the Grand Duke mathematics. D'Alembert answered politely: "If it had been only a question of making the Prince a tolerable geometer, an ordinary writer, perhaps even a mediocre philosopher, I should not have despaired of succeeding; but there is a great interval between a geometer, a writer, even a philosopher, and a great king; and nobody, madam, knows it and proves it better than you." Catherine was somewhat offended; their relations became strained and finally ended completely. Catherine was never in correspondence with Rousseau. She forbade, in 1760, the sale of 'Émile,' but there were at the time only three copies of the book in Russia. She afterwards offered one of her many establishments to Rousseau as an asylum

against persecution; Rousseau hardly took notice of the offer, and Catherine was offended. She was becoming more and more hostile to the philosophical school. On the 11th of February, 1794, she writes to Grimm: "You were quite right never to have been willing to be counted among the *illuminés*, the philosophers, for all this, as experience shows, ends only in destruction." The French Revolution had been a lesson to her, and Rousseau, the idol of the Jacobins, became her *bête noire*.

I have been able to give only a very cursory view of one of the parts of Waliszewski's new work. The other parts are no less interesting. The author is a good hater, which may perhaps be permitted to a Pole. He is often one-sided and intolerant; he has built his statue of Catherine, and, after having built, he stones it; but it must be confessed that his stones are heavy and well directed.

THE FALISCAN MUSEUM AT ROME.—II.

Rome, April, 1894.

The first chamber of the museum is devoted to the graves which are attributed to the centuries prior to the sixth B. C., and conjectured to go back to the twelfth, and in this there occur very early the evidences of commerce with the East, in the shape of bronze implements of Phœnician types, and, what is far more characteristic and interesting in many ways, the constant habit of copying, in clay, utensils in bronze of foreign provenance, of which a few are found in the collection. The local ceramics were thus at once distinguished from all others found in Italy or elsewhere (as may be seen by the contents of one of the tombs, lately added to the vases in the British Museum), and are remarkable for a curious dexterity in copying bronze forms, and for a quite unique type of general decoration, in which there was finally a genuine evolution of the most florid type of ornamentation. To the well-tomb had succeeded at an early date the trench and chamber forms in a gradual development, but always, even in the simplest type, indicative of the introduction of traditions and ceremonials of an entirely different character from the Italic, and equally different from the distinctive Etruscan. There are the signs of increasing wealth in richly decorated arms, jewelry, and remains of chariot and harness of the horses, all of finest Oriental or Greek workmanship, bronze vases, Cypriote and Corinthian ceramics, and imitations of them, etc., etc.; and there occurs in one of the later tombs of this chamber, in the midst of the most elaborate Faliscan ceramics, a single kylix of pure Attic work, associated with local productions which we must put down for the seventh century, and which we can explain only as due to a second and later interment in the same tomb.

The second chamber introduces us at once into a world of Attic derivation. It is supposed to go back to the beginning of the sixth century, and some of the archaic vases with black designs on the red ground are among the finest in existence. To them succeed later styles of decorative design, and in the latest tombs of the series begin to appear vases of a new manner, borrowed from the Greek, and mingled with the imported ceramics, just as in the latest tombs of the preceding centuries the vases of Cypriote and other insular and the so-called Corinthian pottery had found their way among the Italic. Archaic Greek vases are found carefully mended, as if regarded as of high value and apparently for funereal uses. The Greek ware is accompanied by a concurrent supply of local manufacture, in black earth, considered by the explorers as intended for accompaniments in the grave, the service of the dead. The quality of the art seems to deteriorate with time, and while in the earlier period, and during the evident constant intercourse with continental Greece, the reverence for the dead was shown by the exquisite quality of the offerings to their shades, as time goes on and the Faliscan material assumes greater and still greater predominance, the greater part of the pottery which the rites assured to the manes becomes of a gross and wretchedly commonplace character, so that one is tempted to conclude that art was disappearing from Faleria before it fell. One of those singular cases of antique dentistry, of which several are known, occurs in one of the graves, viz., a skull with gold-work evidently having once supported some kind of substitute for the original teeth. Vases of the most exquisite Greek bronze, perfect in form and marvellous in a patina-like turquoise, occur in this part of the series; and the central showcase, which in each of the rooms contains the *chefs-d'œuvre* of the period, has a few vases of the very best style of Greek vase painting. One of these, a rhyton in the form of astragal, is excelled by nothing that I have ever seen of its kind. But the grosser Faliscan ware gains on the imported, and when we enter the next room, which is supposed to show the arts in Faleria in the fourth century and down to the capture and destruction of the city and the removal of the inhabitants, Greek art disappears entirely as if a wall had risen between the mother-land and the colony. Only a few bronze vases of evident Greek workmanship suggest Athens, and these may have been of local production. The ceramics are utterly barbarous for the far greater part, but a few have been found which lead to the inevitable conclusion that the vases given to the grave were manufactured for the grave, in merely formal obedience to the rites of burial which prescribed such an accompaniment.

The few really fine Faliscan vases are of a type not anywhere else discovered, and present an art of an unsuspected style, introducing a new element of design, in which I almost am disposed to find a prophecy of the Italian Renaissance. The Greek traditions are preserved, and an Olympian assembly gives us the usual divinities with their usual attributes; but the design has a daintier note, a delicacy of touch equal to that of the pre-Periclean painting, with a sensuous warmth of style which in a certain measure suggests the great medals of Syracuse in their Arethusa heads. The severity of the Greek work of the best time gives way to a flowing line, an enfolding of the draperies, and a sense of physical beauty, which I do not remember in any pure Attic work of any epoch—less heroic but more caressing. The suggestion of detail in drapery, in form, in decoration, is carried to the extreme, and the grace of line is studied with a care as great as is consistent with the freedom of it. A large and extremely important vase, quite unique in its way, has fortunately been preserved entire and with but little injury to its painting, and was evidently the gift to death of the bereaved partner of some tender Faliscan romance. It bears traces of polychromy, and, the main design having been drawn in black line on the red ground, the flesh and parts of the accessories have been overlaid in white enamel, on which the most delicate portions of the design have been finely drawn in black. On one side is an allegory of the dawn, Aurora driving forth with Eos in a chariot drawn by four horses, like those in the best Sicilian medals. In the air above are seen two swans, emblems of light, and the steeds are preceded by the winged genius of light, and on the neck of the vase above is a splendidly drawn bull giving battle to one of a pair of griffins, another being behind him for the symmetry of design. Over this is a border of lotus ornament. On the reverse there is the rape of Proserpina in chief, or death carrying away a young bride; her paraphernalia had been held by an attendant, from whose horror-paralyzed hands it is falling as the scene trembles to dissolution. Birds of night fly away, and the attitude of the attendant maiden is full of dismay. In the space above, in place of the bull giving battle to the symbols of mystery and ravage, is a stag, dragged down in a death agony by the victorious griffins. Overhead, in the place of the lotus border under the lip of the other side, is a line of fillet ornament, emblem of sacrifice. There is an ensemble of design with every part in a harmony of significance, a combination of such qualities of art as are most fitting to that branch of it to which it is applied, such as I do not know in Greek ceramics elsewhere.

A large and very rich tomb in the end of the series, while it shows evidence of the wealth and luxury of the epoch, also introduces still other hitherto unknown elements of decoration into the Faliscan ceramics—an unprecedented quantity of vases of large dimensions, originally silvered and ornamented with delicate designs in relief and polychrome applied to the completed vase, with modelled anses and terminals of fantastic figures of animals; a motive clearly suggested by similar vessels in metal. In the last room of the suite is a little collection of terracotta statuary, found in the ruins of one of the temples, of unusually large dimensions and of pure Greek art of the fourth century B. C., so fine, so masterly that one imagines that the Faliscans must have sent to Athens in its best days for a sculptor, and that Athens had sent the best she could spare. Marble in Italy not being then known, the statues of the temples were necessarily in clay, which has kept for us the manner of the artist much better than the marble was likely to do. But the art can be identified with no continental Greek school, so far as we know, and if Greek, otherwise than as Faliscan, it must have been of Sicily, the liaison being rather with Syracuse than the Acropolis; but probably it was purely Faliscan. The paucity of illustrative material is such that we can only conjecture, and with conjectures that confuse each other continually.

There are innumerable problems which present themselves for solution by the archæologist in this museum, and which must wait for more material from the surrounding cities. Meanwhile, incidental excavations at Alatri, at Civita Lavinia (carried on by Lord Saville, the predecessor of Lord Dufferin at the British Embassy to Italy), at Antemnæ, and other localities, show that the traditions of Faleria had extended through all the valley of the Tiber south of the Ciminians, and at Alatri were found the remains of a temple whose decorative parts of terracotta so closely correspond with those found at Faleria that there can be no doubt that the art was identical. A restoration of the temple, carried out in the grounds adjoining the Villa Julia, and based for the most part on documents of irrefragable authority, gives a new and lucid conception of the temple architecture, showing at the same time that what we have hitherto given on this head to the Etruscans, must be re-

claimed for Greek art, as it has been in the case of the ceramics and the civic condition of Faleria. The dominion, not only as to its efficacy, but as to its extent, of the Raseni is singularly curtailed in the record we must compile from these discoveries.

One of the minor problems offered by the early burials is the occurrence of sarcophagi made from tree-trunks, split open and hollowed out, at Faleria frequently, and also at Gabii. The fact that in every case the inhumation was of a woman has induced Count Cozza to conclude that a custom existed of incineration for the males and inhumation for the females. These sarcophagi are found in tombs which cannot be placed later than the seventh century, and their occurrence in two cemeteries so far removed locally, and, as generally believed, even ethnically, from each other, suggests a confirmation of the tradition given by various ancient authors, that the Faliscans and the Curetes were a kindred people; the patroness of Faleria, Hera of the argive colonist, becoming Juno Curetes. But whether there was an identity or a cousinship, there is not yet evidence enough to determine. Excavations at Gabii, where nothing has been done except incidentally, might show us new relations; but, accepting the hypothesis of Cozza as to the sex distinction, I am inclined to suggest that the inhumations to be considered were probably those of priestesses rather than those accorded to all of the sex. Was there at Faleria a colony of pure Latin stock, or had a burial custom gone from Faleria to Gabii or vice versa? Was this a question of rite or of race? And if of race, what was the relation of the Gabinii (Gabii being also the seat of a famous temple of Juno) to the Aequi, of which nation the Curetes were a clan? The probability seems to me to be that the civilization which we know to have been established at Faleria (and of which the ancient tradition assigns the beginnings to the epoch of the Trojan disturbances, or earlier than that break-up, whatever it might have been), spread through all the country eastward and southward as far as the geological barriers, thus including the greater part of Latium and entering as an important element into the subsequent development of Roman civilization. But without claiming that this is indisputable, I consider that one thing is definitely established by the Faliscan and allied discoveries, viz., that the Etruscans, or Raseni, stood for little or nothing in the development of this phase of Italian (Italic) development, and that the so-called Etruscan art was only a barbaric adaptation of Greek traditions, so far as it could properly be called art. What lies beyond in archæological investigation through this opened door is of such splendid suggestion that we can only bitterly regret that the financial prostration of Italy should have compelled the suspension of all researches, including these, which have thrown such a wonderful light on the history of civilization in the few years past.

W. J. STILLMAN.

Correspondence.

THE WASHINGTON PEDIGREE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: For the past three years I have been much interested in the Washington pedigree as it has been developed in the columns of the *Nation*, and I have lately found among "Marriage Licenses granted by the Bishop of London; Chester" (Harleian Society Publications, vols. 25, 26) something which I think throws light on the second sister of John and Laurence Washington, the emigrants:

"Feb. 27, 1662. George Talbot of St. Giles in the Fields, gent. bachelor, aged 26; father dead, and Margaret Washington, of same, aged 24—parents both dead. At St. Giles in the Fields."

This date fixes her birth as in 1638, which seems probable from the Waters pedigree—her preceding sister, Elizabeth, having been born in 1636, and William, the brother who comes after her, in 1641.

KATHARINE C. DORSEY.

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"NOTCH."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the 'Century Dictionary,' under Notch, it is stated that "the word is apparently limited in use to the region of the White Mountains in New Hampshire and the Adirondacks, and has nearly the same meaning as *gap* in the central parts of the Appalachian range." To a similar effect writes Prof. J. D. Whitney, in his 'Names and Places' (1888): "In the White Mountains of New England the passes are occasionally called notches, a local use of the word peculiar to this region and that adjacent to it" (p. 135); though, in a work published in the following year, Prof. Whitney extends the use of the word to the Adirondacks.

As the word is used far more extensively than would appear probable from the above statements, it may be worth while to indicate what evidence the writer has collected bearing on the distribution and on the history of *Notch*. In the paragraphs which immediately succeed, the dates within brackets give the earliest known reference, either in print or on maps, to the Notch in question.

In New Hampshire, the State where the word has the greatest currency, there are the following Notches: Carrigain, Carter, Crawford or White Mountain (1784), Dixville (1841), Franconia (1839), Kinsman, Mad River, New Zealand, Perkins (1882), Pinkham (1784), Sandwich (1859), and Willey. All of these, except Dixville Notch, are within the limits of the White Mountain region.

In western Maine, in the near neighborhood of the White Mountains, are Evans, Grafton or Bear River (1858), and Miles (1858) Notches, while there is a Notch in Garland, Penobscot County (1859), and I am also informed that the word "has been used for years" as applied to a deep valley on the Island of Mt. Desert.

In Vermont are Smuggler's Notch (1886), at the base of Mt. Mansfield, and Willoughby Notch (1884), in Westmore.

In Massachusetts there are two Notches—one on a slope of Greylock, in Adams (1829), and the other between Mt. Holyoke and Mt. Norwottock (1863), traversed by the road from Amherst to South Hadley and Granby. There is also an early reference, in Douglass's 'Summary' (1749), to "a Notch in Bridgewater." The place alluded to was later in North Bridgewater and is now in Brockton; but as the hills in this part of Massachusetts nowhere exceed 200 feet in height, and as no reference to a Notch can be found in the histories of those towns, it is difficult to understand why Douglass should have used the word in speaking of such a comparatively level country.

In the Adirondacks are Wilmington Notch (1869) and Ausable Notch (1888).

In the Catskills there seem to be many Notches, but I have been unable to ascertain for how long a time the word has there been in use.

Finally, in Bolton Notch (Bolton, Tolland County), Connecticut, we have a gap or pass which has been called a Notch for over a century and three-quarters.

So far, then, from the word being peculiar to any one region, it occurs in no less than five of the New England States, and in two different sections of New York State.

While the examples which follow do not illustrate the word completely, they perhaps do so sufficiently. As applied to the famous pass in the White Hills, we can trace the word almost to the beginning. Whether, as has been frequently stated, that pass was known to the Indians, or whether it was discovered for the first time by Nash in 1771, at all events it then first became of any practical value to the white men. The word Notch, as applied to this pass, is found in writings as early as 1784, and also on a map published in London the same year.

"Dined at Coventry. Lodg'd with Col. Quincey at Olcot's, about ¼ way between the Notch of the Mountain and Hartford." 1718, S. Sewall, *Diary*, 15 Sept. (1882), iii., 195.

"From this Station to a Notch in *Bridgewater* E. 18 d. N. are 23 Miles. . . . Its Southerly Line is from *Conohasset* Rocks to the Notch in Bridgewater 15 Miles." 1749, W. Douglass, *Summary*, i., 401,424.

"We took our leave of this place, . . . and about 11¼ arrived at the *Western Notch*, as it is called—a narrow defile between the Mountains." 1784, J. Belknap, *Belknap Papers* (1877), ii., 182.

"In my way to East Hartford I passed through Bolton. . . . In this town is what is usually called the notch of Hartford Mountains." 1787, M. Cutler, *Life, Journals and Corr.* (1888), i., 209

"The head of Saco River, is in the White mountains, at the western pass, commonly called the notch." 1792, J. Belknap, *History of New-Hampshire*, iii., 57.

"Thence the line ran, a little north of west, through Pomfret, Ashford, Willington, and Tolland, to Mo-she-nup-suck, the notch of the mountain, now known to be the Notch in Bolton Mountain." 1797, B. Trumbull, *History of Conn.*, i., 444

"Proceeded on foot to New River and the Meadow, in the east [Pinkham] Notch, about three miles." 1804, M. Cutler, *Life, Journals and Corr.* (1888), i., 111.

"The Notch of the White Mountains is a phrase, appropriated to a very narrow defile, extending two miles in length between two huge cliffs, apparently rent asunder by some vast convulsion of nature. This convulsion was, in my own view, unquestionably that of the deluge." 1821, T. Dwight, *Travels*, ii., 147.

"The two ridges embraced within the line of Adams converge towards the south. . . . The tapering valley between them, called 'the Notch,' comprises several dairy farms." 1829, J. W. Yeomans, in *History of Berkshire County*, Mass., 428.

"This mountain-pass—most inappropriately, as it seems to me, called the 'Notch,' as conveying the idea of something cut or indented by art, whereas here, the grandeur of nature alone is seen." 1841, J. S. Buckingham, *America*, iii., 216.

"The scene became more grand as we entered the defile called the Notch." 1845, Sir C. Lyell, *Second Visit to the U. S.* (1849) i., 63.

"The Pass, so called, is only an old-fashioned notch between the mountains." 1847, C. Lanman, *Adventures in the Wilds of America* (1856) i., 226.

"Passing down the Chemung and Susquehanna in canoes, they landed at a place called Three Islands, struck through the wilderness to a gap or 'notch' of the mountains, by which they entered the Valley of Wyoming." 1856, W. Irving, *Life of Washington* (1865), iii., 433.

"We reached the gap, which was like a deep notch cut into the mountain-ridge." 1847, F. Parkman, *Oregon Trail* (1872), 180.

"There are two deep valleys across the mountain, formerly called cracks and notches, one . . . where is the road between Amherst and South Hadley and Granby." 1863, S. Judd, *History of Hadley*, Mass., 436.

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ERRATA.

Page 55, col. ii., line 6. For "rhapsodies" read "rhapsodists."

Page 83, col. iii., lines 2, 3, of editorial note. Omit "Miss Corvin-Krukovski."

Page 189, col. ii., lines 8 and 38 from bottom. Dele "Mr." and change in lines 5 and 8 from bottom "He" to "She," and "his" to "her."

Page 156, col. ii., line 5 from bottom. For "Miss" read "Mrs."

Page 164, col. ii., line 8 from bottom. For "presence" read "absence."

Page 423, col. i., line 17 from bottom. Dele "Montana," and change "six" to "five" in lines 18 and 32 from bottom.

"I found myself entering the 'Whiteface Clove' or 'Wilmington Notch.'" 1869, A. B. Street, *Indian Pass*, 136.

"Wilmington Pass is a natural gateway to North Elba from the north, a notch cut out of the mountains." 1886, S. R. Stoddard, *Adirondacks*, 72.

"The Notch may be taken as a good specimen of a snowless mountain pass: a deep and narrow gorge or chasm between two opposite precipitous cliffs." 1887, Grant Allen, in *Longmans' Magazine*, ix., 292.

If these examples furnish an adequate account of the word, we apparently have in Notch not only a genuine Americanism, but also, in its origin at least, a genuine Yankeeism. Though known in the New England States as early as 1718, it does not appear to have been applied locally elsewhere until within the last thirty years or so; and even now its use by other than New England writers seems to be sparing. Finally, it may be worth noting that, though there is perhaps not in New England a pass which is locally called a gap, yet in New English literature the words gap and notch are used interchangeably.

ALBERT MATTHEWS.

BOSTON, June, 1894.

["Great Notch" is the name applied to the wagon-road pass through Orange Mountain, New Jersey, not far from the northerly end at Paterson, though it is really but a small cleft or clove.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

'POOR FOLK,' translated from the Russian of F. Dostoyevsky by Lena Milman, will be published directly by Roberts Bros., who also have in press 'A Child of the Age,' by Francis Adams.

D. Appleton & Co. announce 'The Purple Light of Love,' by Henry Goelet McVickar, and 'Mrs. Limber's Raffle,' by William Allen Butler.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have nearly ready 'Miss Hurd: An Enigma,' by Anna Katharine Green, and students' editions of Irving's 'Tales of a Traveller,' 'Sketch-Book,' and 'Alhambra,' edited by William Lyon Phelps, instructor in English literature at Yale.

An improved and enlarged edition of the 'Handbook for Graduate Students,' issued last year by the Graduate Club of Harvard, may now be ordered of C. A. Duniway, Secretary, No. 54 Langdon Street, Cambridge, the price being fixed at ten cents. It is the only compact source of information in regard to the graduate courses of eighteen principal universities, their frequenting, degrees, fees, fellowships, etc., with parallel exhibits of corresponding courses, and scholastic records of the several instructors.

Mr. Joseph Landon's 'Principles and Practice of Teaching and Class Management' (Macmillan) is the outcome of nearly a quarter of a century's experience in an English training college. Its plan comprehends nearly all the topics taught in American grammar schools, with about 150 pages of matter on methods. To the teacher in quest of something fresh, the first impression will be disappointing. The author believes in the good old-fashioned teaching of English grammar, apparently never heard of child study or of vertical script, and has nothing to say concerning hygiene or physical training. The Grube method in arithmetic is well explained, and so is Mulhauser's method in writing, as if commendable novelties. The place of elementary science is discussed, and the claims of botany and elementary physics are recognized. The book is one of detail and does not readily lend itself to general treatment. Teachers will at once compare it with Fitch's well-known lectures on teaching, to the advantage of Mr. Landon, on the score of comprehensiveness and practical common sense. The volume is admirably indexed, well printed in four sizes of type, abounds in illustration, and, on the whole, it would be hard to find one of the same compass more helpful to a young teacher.

Prof. Charles F. Kroeh has followed up his method for learning French, which has met with a very favorable reception, with 'The Living Method for Learning to Think in Spanish' and 'The Living Method for Learning to Think in German,' both published by the author at Hoboken, N. J. It can be said of these books that, with their aid, a person of ordinary ability can by himself master the rudiments of these languages, and the foundation laid will be a broad and firm one. The aim is thoroughly practical, fitting the learner to enter into every-day speech, leaving the poets and the classical prose-writers to be encountered afterwards. Proceeding from the simplest statements to complex expressions, the author gives models for varying these phrases, utilizing all the forms previously introduced. This is no "six-weeks" method, but presupposes industry on the part of the student and indefatigable persistence in practice.

The name of Arthur Hugh Clough is still too little familiar in this country, where Prof. Norton's tiny "blue and gold" edition of a part of his poetic works (1862) has heretofore been the only popularizing agency. The new selections from his poems just added by Macmillan & Co. to their Golden Treasury Series comprise less matter than the foregoing, but also some fresh, and the print of the pretty volume is much more open and considerate of the reader's eye. "The Bothie" is given entire, but the "Amours de Voyage" only in excerpts, and the "Mari Magno" not at all. On the other hand, the extracts from "Dipsychus" are properly labelled. Some variants will be observed. For summer travel by land or sea the volume is an admirable companion, and for the reflective it will never cease to be precious in all conditions of life.

Mr. Claude Phillips's monograph on Frederick Walker in the June number of the *Portfolio* (Macmillan) is an admirable piece of criticism, and conveys a clear and just notion of the strength and weakness of that still lamented artist, whose early death (in 1875) was thought a serious blow to British art. What Walker would have accomplished if his career had been prolonged must remain for ever an open question, but it may be doubted if he was really progressing at the last, and if he will not be best remembered by his earlier and simpler work, some of which, especially in illustration, is nearly first-rate and has had a great influence on his successors. The reproductions in the *Portfolio* are very good and well chosen, though one regrets the absence of some pictures criticised at length in the text—particularly "The Plough" and "The Old Gate."

M. René Doumic, whose reputation as a critic and a pleasant writer is steadily growing, sends out a new volume, 'Écrivains d'aujourd'hui' (Paris: Perrin & Cie.), in which he analyzes with considerable acumen and skill the characteristics of contemporary romancers and critics. There is a good, but not wholly satisfying, account of Maupassant, a clever sketch of Bourget, worth reading, as is also that on Loti. This last does not match, however, the admirable study by Mr. Henry James, and it is M. Bourget who ought to give us an article on Maupassant. The other writers treated of are Brunetière, Lemaître, Faguet, and Lavisse. It is pleasant to note that we are promised two other books by M. Doumic: one on Lamartine, which is to form part of Hachette's "Grands Écrivains," and one on George Sand, which is to appear in the "Classiques Populaires."

The third series of 'Figures disparues,' by M. Eugène Spuller, has been brought out by Alcan. The articles appeared originally in the *République Française*, Gambetta's organ, and the change in the character of that journal has furnished M. Spuller with a text for an interesting estimate of journalism in France at the present time. The whole book, indeed, is attractive, the articles on Changarnier, MacMahon, J.-J. Weiss, Cardinal Lavigerie, Waddington, and Jules Ferry, being particularly noticeable.

Macmillan & Co. publish in a handsome volume 'Select Specimens of the Great French Writers,' the selections made by Mr. E. Fasnacht. They are prefaced by an abridgment of Vinet's "Discours sur la littérature française" and Faguet's chapter on "La littérature au XIXe siècle." The selections begin with the works of Corneille and are brought down to the present day. A biographical notice and criticisms of the writer and his work accompany the extracts from his books; Sainte-Beuve, Vinet, Faguet, and Saint-Victor being the most frequently cited. The selection of authors and extracts is very good on the whole, though one cannot help wondering at the omission of Descartes, Bourdaloue, Stendhal, Flaubert, and Leconte de Lisle, when room could be found for Vauvenargues, Napoleon I., and Arnault.

In 1889 M. Max Leclerc, the political economist and educationist, was charged with the duty of examining and reporting upon the English middle-class education. The result of this study is now given in the shape of a volume entitled 'L'Education des classes moyennes et dirigeantes en Angleterre' (Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer). It is crammed full of information on the education in the family and the school, on the various types of schools, public, proprietary, and private, the action and influence of the State, of the universities, and the press. The author's conclusions are to be given in a subsequent volume, as the present one has no room for them: it is a statement of facts, and a very interesting statement too.

M. Paul Melon has done meritorious work in his 'L'Enseignement Supérieur et l'Enseignement Technique en France' (Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.). It is a comprehensive account of all the institutions of learning which fall under the above designations. Not only is the book valuable as giving at a glance a succinct, but clear, view of the work done in each institution in every city and town of France where graduate or technical instruction is afforded, it is also a boon to American students who are thinking of going abroad, and who desire specific information on just the points covered by M. Melon.

A few years ago some citizens of Munich, Bavaria, sent a petition to the competent authorities requesting that arrangements might be made whereby their daughters, after having completed the courses of study prescribed in the Young Ladies' High School, might have an opportunity of pursuing optional studies

for two years more in order to perfect themselves in certain special branches of learning. This petition was rejected on the ground that maidens ought to be sufficiently educated on reaching the age of eighteen, and should thenceforth devote themselves to domestic duties. The recent and radical change of public opinion on this subject is evident from the fact that on March 18 of the present year an association of ladies and gentlemen was formed at Munich, the aim of which is to establish in that city a *Mädchen-Gymnasium*, or institution designed to prepare girls for the university, giving them the same advantages in this respect that are now enjoyed by boys. The association began with seventeen members, and now numbers 122, and has 1,700 marks in the treasury. The executive committee is composed of twelve gentlemen and twelve ladies, including such persons as Magistrate's Councillor Friedrich, Prof. Dr. Günther, deputy, the celebrated poet Dr. Paul Heyse, Baron von Stauffenberg, member of the Imperial Diet and the Bavarian Parliament, Dr. Rohmeder of the municipal school-board, Lady Blennerhassett, the biographer of Madame de Staël, and others hardly less distinguished. The movement is very promising.

Prof. Oskar Lenz publishes in the Vienna *Neue Freie Presse* some data concerning the "Institut International Colonial," which was founded last January in Brussels, and which held its second meeting in that city on the 28th and 29th of May. The aims of the Institute are purely scientific, and comprise "the comparative study of methods of law and administration and of the natural resources of the various colonies; the promotion of international relations between persons interested in colonization, and the establishment of a central bureau for the interchange and publication of official documents," one of whose vehicles is to be a *Revue Internationale Coloniale*. The number of active members was originally fixed at sixty, to be divided among the various countries as follows: Great Britain 11, France 7, Holland 6, Germany 5, Russia 5, the United States, the Latin-American States, Spain, Portugal, Belgium, and Italy 3 each, Denmark 2, and all other countries not directly interested in colonization together 6. In addition there are to be associate, corresponding, and honorary members. Of the 60 active members thus contemplated only 29 have so far been elected, the most conspicuous names being: Léon Say, Paul Leroy-Beaulieu, in France; Lord Reay, Sir Alfred Lyall, in England; Dr. Herzog and Herr von der Heydt, in Germany; M. Camille Jenssen and Major Thys, in Belgium; Herr Frans Van de Putte and Prof. Van der Lith in Holland, and the Marquis Doria in Italy. America is thus far represented only by Baron Branco, the Brazilian Consul-General at Liverpool. Holland contributes the largest number of members, and her influence predominates in other ways. The Belgian Chamber has voted 10,000 francs to the Institute, which looks to its future publications for its regular source of income. The next meeting will be held at The Hague, coincidently with the International Geographical Congress, which is to assemble at London in the autumn of 1895.

The Strassburg publisher Heitz has just issued a complete collection of the poems of Walter von der Vogelweide, excellently translated into modern German by Eduard Kleber. It contains 183 *Lieder* and *Sprüche*, with an addendum of sixteen poems of doubtful authenticity. As is well known, this mediæval minnesinger was a bitter and persistent foe of the papacy, and in one of his sententious verses apostrophizes the *Opferstock*, or contribution for Peter's pence, as "Hêr Stoc," denouncing him as an evil emissary sent to drain the purses of the German poor in order to fill the coffers of the Pope. This bold personification was a puzzle to the rather unimaginative John Peter Uz, who in the last century rendered into modern German some of Walter's lyrics and kindly added a note stating that "Hêr Stoc" was probably a papal legate. We may also mention as an odd fate for an anti-papal poet that the statue of Walter von der Vogelweide recently erected at Botzen in the Tyrol (supposed to be the land of his birth) is regularly worshipped by the good Catholics of that country, who take it to be a representation of Christ, and there is very little doubt that the monument now being placed to his memory at Würzburg (where he is said to have died) will become an object of similar devotion. Indeed, Bavarian peasants, in passing the Royal Library at Munich, are wont to pay a like reverence to the sitting statues of Homer, Thucydides, Aristotle, and Hippocrates, which adorn the *perron* of that edifice, regarding them as figures of the four Evangelists.

For several years an elaborate exploration of the Baltic and North Seas has been carried on by Great Britain, Denmark, and Sweden, with especial reference to their respective fisheries. The methods of investigation and apparatus employed by the Swedish naturalists are described by Otto Pettersson in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for June. There are probably few travellers who will be attracted to the Bolivian Altiplanicie by Mr. D. R. Urquhart's account, in the same journal, of this forbidding region. It consists of the high plains or pampas lying between the mountain ranges at an average height of 12,000 feet above the sea-level. Economically it is interesting for the "abundant mineral deposits of silver, tin, copper, lead, antimony, etc., in the hills." The Indians nominally live in villages, which, however, are often found entirely deserted, the owners being away with their lamas or looking after their land. One village "is only really inhabited once a year, for about a week, when there is a great cattle fair, or *feria*." Dr. George Smith gives briefly some of the facts in regard to marriage and widowhood in India revealed by the late census. He says that polygyny is rare, only seven in every thousand married men having more than one wife. Polyandry is "restricted to the valleys of the Himalayas, where food is scarce, and to the Malabar coast in the south, where the ruling community, known as Nair, follow the matriarchal form, or succession through the female." The census also gives evidence of a growing decrease of girl infanticide, as well as of a general rise in the standard of living.

The *Geographical Journal* for June has for its opening article Mr. St. George R. Littledale's account of his adventurous journey last year across Asia from Batum to Pekin. The main object of his expedition, in which he was accompanied by his wife, was to shoot the wild camel. Apparently he saw but four, in the desert of Gobi, a little to the east of Lob Nor, all of which he shot. These rare animals were first discovered by Przhvalsky some fifteen years ago, and although now they are in an undoubtedly wild state, yet it is impossible to say, according to Sir William Flower, whether they are "really wild, that is, descended from camels which have never at any time been domesticated." It may be of especial interest to the advocates of free silver to know that on leaving Kashgar our traveller was obliged to carry with him the currency of the country in "chunks of silver of various weights, no two of a size, and making nearly two pony-loads." He accomplished some important geographical work, a part of his route being through unexplored country. An interesting description of the Indians inhabiting the valley of the river Napo, a tributary of the Amazon in Ecuador, is given by Mr. C. D. Tyler, whose observations were made during a three years' residence in this region. In addition to the vast vegetable wealth of its forests and cultivable land, "gold in illimitable quantities exists in the bed of the upper Napo."

The *Journal des Débats* for June 6 and 7 publishes reports of the examinations recently made by Drs. Backer and Bilhaut of the supposed remains of Louis XVII. in the old cemetery of Sainte-Marguerite. Both doctors agree in declaring that the bones cannot be those of the unfortunate Dauphin, since they form the skeleton of a child fourteen or fifteen years of age.

At the last session of the Icelandic Althing, a bill was passed providing for the establishment of a national university with a theological, medical, and law faculty. The plan has not yet been acted upon by the King, and as the sentiment of Icelandic students in Copenhagen is almost unanimously opposed to it, there is little probability of its becoming a law. The main objections urged are the financial condition of the country, which would make it impossible to obtain proper lecturers and apparatus, the absence of technical libraries, or provision for such in the future, the distance of the country from the centres of culture, and, last but not least, the possible removal of the scholarships open to Icelandic students at the University of Copenhagen. It was recommended, however, at a meeting of Icelanders recently held in Copenhagen, that a school for the training of native lawyers be established in Reykjavik, and that all other professional studies continue to be pursued at the University of Copenhagen. As the Icelanders have been famed for their love of law since Saga times, this modification of the original plan will probably win general approval.

Mr. Edward W. James writes to us from Norfolk, that the list of slave-owners in Princess Anne County, Va., which appeared in the January number of the "William and Mary College Quarterly Historical Papers," was derived by him from a copy of the third census, taken by William Bishop, assistant marshal, now to be found in the Clerk's Office of that county. This list was confined to the owners of not less than ten slaves. Mr. James has since completed his transcript, which will be printed in some future number of the *Quarterly*.

There are three newspapers, which divide about equally the period since 1810, that are indispensable to the student of American history. They are *Niles' Register*, the Boston *Liberator* (1831–1865), and the *Nation*. The *Liberator* is the fullest and most convenient repository of the spirit of the age during the anti-slavery contest, and its files have been remarkably preserved. The vast number of precise references to it in the four-volume Life of William Lloyd Garrison, which are in turn rendered accessible by a capacious analytic index, make its consultation a matter of great ease and certainty within the scope of that biography, which is virtually a history of the anti-slavery movement, moral and political. Librarians have recently had an opportunity to procure almost complete sets, hitherto stored by Mr. Francis J. Garrison, No. 4 Park Street, Boston. His

stock has in consequence been rapidly reduced, and he now can supply only the volumes from 1852 to 1865 in some half-a-dozen sets, lacking a few numbers. It can truly be said that any fragment of the *Liberator* file is worth binding and preserving. The present chance to secure so considerable a portion of the series is final. The price, to librarians agreeing to bind, is $2 per volume.

—The neglect of the historical MSS. in the Bureau of Rolls and Library of the State Department has long been a source of complaint, and it is a matter for congratulation that the Department is making an intelligent effort to acquaint the public with the contents of the many collections in its keeping. The Bureau is now publishing a Bulletin, of which Nos. 1 and 3 are before us. No. 1 comprises a catalogue of the manuscript volumes containing the records and papers of the Continental Congress; an index to miscellaneous papers, which will form the chief staple of the Bulletins; and an appendix initiating the history of the Constitution of the United States, 1786–1870, by a simple printing of documents without any connecting text, though with occasional notes. The miscellaneous index is drawn from all the "chapters" in the State Department, and the items are traced by chapter reference (A, B, C, etc., the designation of the chapters being indicated as far as I). The group of items in No. 1 ranges alphabetically from Abbot to Loyalists, the last entry (chap. A, No. 51, consisting of intercepted letters, 1775–1781); in No. 3 it ranges from Adam to Zeisberger (the last entry being a repetition, by way of correction, of the same item entered in Bulletin No. 1 under "Feisberger," but alas! a fresh error is perpetrated by misspelling "Ziseberger"). In other words, a new Bulletin a new alphabet. While this is no doubt the only practicable and the fairest scheme of advertising the miscellany, it seems a pity that these titles should not be stereotyped as blocks for ultimate reassembling in one alphabet. As it is, the Bulletins are printed from type, and to the number of only 750 copies.

—Bulletin No. 3 is of special interest. The "arrangement" of the Washington Papers is given in chronological order, making reference to a particular series a simple task. Incidentally it might have been shown what had been printed. This is followed by a continuation of the Miscellaneous Index, more properly a calendar of the miscellaneous letters in the collections. When completed, this calendar will have high personal interest to those in search of the Revolutionary service of their ancestors. The most valuable portion of this issue is the literal reprint of the proceedings of the Federal Convention, taken from journal and papers deposited in the Department by President Washington in 1796. Elliott used this material, but united the records so as to make a continuous journal. In this new edition the different papers are kept distinct, and gain in definiteness. The corrections and interlineations made in the record are reproduced, as are even the endorsements by Pickering and others. A few notes would have aided reference from committee to House proceedings; and the paper on page 329 should have been identified as Randolph's plan, submitted on May 29. The tabular arrangement of the yea and nay votes is an advantage. A touch of the picturesque is to be found in the letter from Jonas Phillips, a Jew, pleading for religious liberty (p. 281). The print of these Bulletins is admirably clear. No. 2 will be a revision of the Calendar of the Correspondence of James Monroe printed in a small way four years ago by the Department. An index of the Jefferson Papers will be ready within a year. Vol. ii. of the history of the Constitution will be begun in Bulletin No. 5.

—Mr. Allen is doing a public service in these publications, and the issues testify to his painstaking care to secure accuracy. In the case of Pinckney's "Plan" in No. 3, it is a pity that he did not affix to the endorsement on the MS., "To be printed p. 11," the date, "1819," when Pinckney furnished the paper to the Secretary of State for publication. The fact is, as Madison states, that no copy was made of the original paper when it was presented to the Convention in 1787, and the original was not among the documents of the Convention intrusted to Washington and ultimately placed in the State Department. Thirty years after the adjournment, Pinckney supplied the document which Madison unsuspectingly inserted in his journal. Subsequently it was observed that this paper contained at least four provisions which Pinckney himself had opposed in the Convention; and it soon became apparent that the document had been altered to conform to the changes made by the Convention. Madison suggests that, as the changes were made, Pinckney incorporated them into his own copy, and that the erasures and interlineations, "after a lapse of more than thirty years," became "confounded in the mind of the author" with his original work. We believe that this paper in the State Department has never been subjected to critical analysis. It would be an interesting study for some competent hand to distinguish the original from the emendations, and demonstrate what parts of it are clearly and unquestionably Pinckney's. In claiming too much, honestly it may be, he impaired his claim to everything. As the "Plan" now stands in print, it is valueless as one of the sources of the Constitution.

—The latest noteworthy contribution to the Heine cult is an article in the June number of the *Deutsche Rundschau*, by a Frenchman, M. Jules Legras, professor in Bordeaux, who studied German literature in Berlin. M. Legras, who had long felt that the real history of Heine's stay in Paris, from 1831 to 1856, was not sufficiently well known, at last secured from the sons of the French publisher of Heine the loan of a bundle of papers which, shortly after the poet's death, was given by his widow to Michel Lévy. These papers were then turned over to M. Jean Bourdeau, the French translator of Heine's memoirs, who, however, seems to have advised against the publication as a whole. The collection consists of verses, since printed among the "Letzte Gedichte und Gedanken," French translations of some of Heine's poems, either by himself or others, and of letters. The letters are, in Mr. Legras's opinion, identical with the famous "Heine papers" which in 1868 were offered to the Duke de Gramont, then French Ambassador at Vienna, by a Herr von Friedland, the brother-in-law of Lassalle, who demanded 30,000 francs for them. Those papers were said to have contained, besides letters addressed by Heine to Thiers, Guizot, Mignet, the Princess Belgiojoso, and other important personages, a poem denouncing Napoleon III., and sixty-seven poems equally disrespectful towards the King of Prussia. The Duke de Gramont declined the offer, and it seems a pity that the poem against Napoleon (if it actually existed) was not preserved rather than the letters, which are not particularly striking. Heine does not rank among the famous letter-writers. Mr. Legras says that he never wrote a letter for the mere pleasure of the thing; that he seems always to have had a distinct purpose in view in his epistles. Only one letter is given in the original French, as showing Heine's French style, which was not faultless. The most interesting letter quoted is one addressed to the Princess Belgiojoso, whose acquaintance he made soon after his arrival in Paris, and in whose salon, frequented by Thiers, Mignet, A. Thierry, Musset, Cousin, Liszt, Ary Scheffer, and other members of the intellectual élite of Paris, Heine was thoroughly at home. Mignet, who was a special favorite of the handsome Italian, induced her to interest Thiers in Heine's behalf, and, according to M. Legras's investigations, it was Thiers and not Guizot who, in 1835 or 1836, granted Heine the Government subvention of 4,800 francs which his enemies have made so much of. Guizot's son himself told Mr. Legras that his father, on assuming office, was requested by Thiers to continue Heine's pension.

—It appears that the Princess Belgiojoso, who acquired considerable influence over Heine, made strong efforts to wean him from the charms of his Mathilde, and, yielding for a time to her representations, he went in 1835 to Boulogne, whence he wrote, both to Mignet and to Campe, his publisher, who probably dreaded the vulgarizing influence of Mathilde on the poet's writings, that he was "cured and purified." But the cure did not last long, and Mathilde soon became Madame Heine. The Princess bore him no grudge on that account, and he continued to correspond with her. In the letters to Mathilde published by M. Legras, Heine speaks of his eternal financial difficulties, for which he reproaches Campe directly in a letter in which he says: "I cannot yet believe that you are willing to cheat me for the sake of so paltry a sum." But Heine's denunciations of his publisher must not be taken too literally, any more than his occasional poetic glorifications of him. Of pathetic interest are the missives to his French publisher, in scarcely legible scrawls, continued almost up to the moment of his death, betraying the extreme care Heine bestowed on the proof-reading of his works, and occasionally revealing the grim humor which he commanded in the midst of his agonies. Two months before his death he wrote to Lévy: "I have been so ill these last few days that some German countrymen of mine who had come to see the Exposition, postponed their departure in the hope of being able to attend my funeral. But they found themselves out of pocket after all."

—No sooner had Dr. Quidde's article "Caligula" appeared in pamphlet form than it was severely denounced by the Berlin *Kreuzzeitung* on account of what might be called its strong local coloring and the implicit parallelism between Roman Cæsarism in the first and German Cæsarism in the nineteenth century. In this criticism the organ of Prussian conservatism singled out the autocratic apothegms of the young Roman emperor as peculiarly insinuative and offensive. To this attack Dr. Quidde replied that the pamphlet is an historical study, both in form and in contents, and adheres strictly to the theme; that he has not been guilty of any distortion or misrepresentation, has lugged in nothing foreign to the subject, and has made no statement except on the best authority and in perfect accord with other writers. He admits that "the brochure is not written in the style of anti-

quarian pedantry, but with lively historical-political interest, more in the manner of the publicist than of the professor," but repudiates all responsibility for what it may suggest to others, and especially for the invidious inferences drawn by the critic of the *Kreuzzeitung*, who also accuses him of entertaining republican views of government—a charge which he does not deny. The immediate effect of this controversy was to cause an increased demand for the censured work which the booksellers were hardly able to supply. Meanwhile a number of the Hamburg *General-Anzeiger* has been seized and confiscated by the police, and the editor threatened with prosecution for lese-majesty, for publishing a review of the pamphlet with extracts, while the pamphlet itself remains on sale and is exposed in all the windows of the Hamburg bookstores without molestation—a striking illustration of the absurdities and vagaries of the censorship of the press when administered by superserviceable officials. Even the Bavarian Academy of Sciences could not repress the spirit of loyalty which usually animates such learned bodies, and has shown more zeal than discretion in discussing the affair and expressing its disapproval of the publication from a "scientific" point of view. Strictly speaking, this can only mean that injustice has been done to the character of Caligula, or that the allusions to King Ludwig II. are irrelevant, since there is no reference to any other sovereign. To this stricture Dr. Quidde has replied that, while it is perfectly proper for individual members of the Academy as scholars to criticise his work, it does not concern them in their corporate capacity, since it is not an academical dissertation issued under the auspices of that institution. A telegram from Berlin announces the fact that the Emperor William has read the brochure with complacency—*mit gutem Behagen*.

—From Dyrsen & Pfeiffer, successors to F. W. Christern, comes a new volume by the well-known Bonapartist partisan and enthusiast, Frédéric Masson. The title of the work is 'Napoléon chez lui: La Journée de l'Empereur aux Tuileries' (Paris: E. Dentu). To M. Masson all of Napoleon's deeds bear witness of a God. His volume published last year described 'Napoléon et les Femmes,' and M. Masson carefully tracked the Corsican through all his liaisons, both great and small, with scrupulous exactitude and with an air of devout reverence. 'Napoléon et les Femmes' had at least a sociological or pathological interest, but there is not even a spice of wickedness to relieve the deadly dulness of 'Napoléon chez lui.' Here may be found minute descriptions of the uniforms of Napoleon's guards, biographies of his various valets, the kinds of soap that Napoleon used on his hands, the quality of the Emperor's underwear, and the prices of his various articles of raiment. It may be of service to some one to know how the pigeon-holes in Napoleon's desk were classified, how many papers he signed in one day, what expenditures were involved, and how many hours of continuous service were exacted from his private secretaries; but surely only an idle mind will care to learn the names of the Emperor's cooks, the kinds of wine he drank, the size of his official decorations, and the number of his handkerchiefs. Nevertheless, to M. Masson the rubbish of Napoleon's life is all fine gold. The contents of his snuff-box seem as worthy of study as the contents of a state paper, and the attendant sneezes are imagined with pious emotion. F. de Myrbach provides a half dozen illustrations to fit the text. Instead of Napoleon on the bridge at Lodi or standing guard over the sleeping sentinel, we have here Napoleon clad in an undershirt and shaving himself, and Napoleon drinking a cup of tea. While the author heaps up these rags of history about his hero, he never loses his attitude of worship. Even pronouns that refer to Bonaparte are capitalized as though they dealt with Deity. Thus, we read of "l'image souveraine de Celui qui fut, entre les hommes, le plus près de ce que l'on nommait un Dieu." M. Masson promises a series of volumes of this same sort. Unless the sense of humor and the capacity for ennui are disappearing together, his labors ought to do a much needed service towards extinguishing the recent rekindling of the Napoleonic legend.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Holy Cross, and Other Tales. By Eugene Field. Cambridge: Stone & Kimball.

Katharine Lauderdale. By F. Marion Crawford. Macmillan.

Bayou Folk. By Kate Chopin. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Pembroke. By Mary E. Wilkins. Harper & Brothers.

Thorough. By Mary A. M. Marks. 3 vols. London: Bentley & Son. 1894.

Mr. Field's little volume of stories is attractively printed, with hints at the archaic which suit very well the matter of parts of the text; two or three of the stories dealing with folk-lore, and with that kind of aloofness from to-day which makes appropriate the use of such phrases as "It is to tell of," "Naught recked he," "Great marvel had he to this thing," "A full evil cat," "A monster ribald dog pup," "Now wit ye well," and so on, now like William Morris, and anon like Pepys, and again after Brander Matthews. Occasionally the grammar is a trifle archaic also, as, "whereby not only you and me but even the Jew shall be redeemed to Paradise." From this the note changes to the ultra-gushing or free-sugar style, thick with roses, angels, and birds, and lastly we have the American-humorist style—a manner for every mood. Personally we own to a preference over all the rest for "Daniel and the Devil" and for "Félice and Petit Poulain." In these the fun and the fancy of Mr. Field leave their high-water mark, and flow along that middle way wherein he walks most safely. The one is less strained than the over-humorous "Methuselah"; the other, a charming sketch of a French horse carried off to do duty for the Prussians, is free from the pulpiness of certain other pages. There is, however, a genuineness about even the long comings of Mr. Field which disarms irritation. It is not that affectation injures his writings; what we remark is, that lush expression does not befit a tranquilly poetic feeling, nor publicity a humor meant for the table.

Mr. Crawford's latest novel suffers from luxuriance of another sort, that of analysis and of incident with no outcome. We have two volumes of 'Katharine Lauderdale,' which take us only from Monday to Friday, and only to the beginning of Katharine's career. Not one of the dozen stories begun in the two volumes is ended, for, under the peculiar circumstances of the heroine's marriage, that too is less the end of a story than it is even in real life—the author's satire, perhaps, on life? This is hardly artistic, although it leaves us very ready to be interested in the promised sequel. To write two volumes and not solve one mystery is hardly playing fair. That it is endurable is a great tribute to the author's skill; that it is absorbing is to say that Mr. Crawford's pen is even mightier than the scissors. The book, it is superfluous to add, is bubbling with good sayings of both the graver and the lighter sort. Mr. Crawford never disappoints one there, nor in his smooth phrasing; and though there is endless repetition of the what, the when, the why, and the how, yet there is a reconciling absence of egoism which makes more tolerable than in another author the long, long stretches of what children call "the thick part" of his pages. One volume of 'Katharine Lauderdale' would have been enough, considering how short a distance she leads us, and considering, too, that the story of a man's temptations to drunkenness is not one to be detailed unnecessarily, and as an *opération de luxe*. The final scene, where the hero becomes autobiographic at a dinner party, strikes a false note from every point of view. There are many new and clever characters whom it will be interesting to meet again. The family Lauderdale, indeed, from "the primeval Alexander," four generations ago, down to the Katharine of the present time, are an American house of Saracinesca. The race traits and the race variations are subtly indicated, and will, no doubt, receive further light in the future. The Lauderdales ought to find it extremely interesting reading, and the public will if Mr. Crawford will not forget that blood, being thicker than water, may coagulate if it is not kept in motion.

Of writing many stories of Louisiana life there is no end. It is not surprising, for the material embraces all that is most picturesque, whether the scenes of action be New Orleans or the inland parishes, whether Creoles or negroes be the actors. Kate Chopin has written of the 'Bayou Folk' dwelling in Natchitoches Parish, who are of every race and admixture of race that can be evolved from stems American, French, Spanish, Indian, Negro. Her stories are among the most clever and charming that have seen the light. Her pen is an artist's in choice of subject, in touch, and in forbearance. There is never a word nor an idea too much, and in the score of sketches in which the same names often recur, there is no repetition, nevertheless, of herself or of others. Hers is good work, and as interesting as the good often is not.

Miss Wilkins, in her long "short story," 'Pembroke,' moves a step forward and outward from the plain, unvarnished style she has hitherto employed. Here are more phrases, more description, more comment. She is perhaps uniquely the writer—may her tribe increase—of whom one can truly say that this is a healthy sign; it suits the enlarged scope of her book, which yet retains the quality that is all Miss Wilkins's own, never so conspicuously so as now that she has a school of imitators. The branches of her genius seem to be spreading when one reads such sentences as this of old Margaret, the only servant in Pembroke: "People saluted her with respect, and her isolation of inequality gave her a reversed dignity." Or this, of the springtime of the year: "The air was full of that strange fragrance which is more than fragrance, since it strikes the thoughts which come in the spring alone, being the very odor thrown off by the growing motion of life and the resurrection." Of a cold, hard woman, visited by neighbors on what she takes to be an errand of scrutiny: "Deborah, sitting erect in one of her best flag-bottomed chairs, looked as if she were alone in

the room." Of a woman of short and lean figure: "Mrs. Ray had never considered herself a small woman; she seemed always to see over the tops of other women's heads."

"Sarah Barnard, during all absences of her family, dug busily at imaginary pitfalls for them; had they all existed, the town would have been honeycombed."

"Deborah never yielded to any of the vicissitudes of life; she met them in fair fight like enemies, and vanquished them, not with trumpet and spear, but with daily duties."

"There was that tone of command in her voice which only a woman can accomplish. It was full of that maternal supremacy which awakens the first instinct of obedience in man, and has more weight than the voice of a general in battle."

"Sylvia felt her battle was over, and she felt the peace of defeat."

The peace of defeat! That phrase alone is a lien upon Fame; and all these turns of expression declare a new freedom of treatment, a loosened rein to the imaginative side of perception.

As to the story itself, it is still of the New England soil. Gray, grim, rock-bound as it is, it yields the bloom of mayflowers; dark under lowering skies, it is lighted with warm gleams where an occasional sun breaks through. Here is all the hardness of the race; here is all their faithful fortitude. Here, too, are their eccentricities; in another clime they would become comicalities; in such earth they go only so far as to wear an air of being the obverse side of the Divine Wrath. The village of Pembroke is to all New England what New England is to the rest of America—a mother tincture of the hardness, the softness, the conscience, the passion, the ice, the fire, that the Pilgrims brought and left there. In Pembroke the ruling motive of life is a fierce human will. "Barney Thayer," says his sweetheart, "has got a terrible will that won't always let him do what he wants to himself." Barney Thayer's mother, the invincible Deborah, bequeathed him this will; her own wrecked the lives of nearly all who came near her, while yet she was passionately struggling to save them from hell-fire. Deborah's sister, Hannah Berry, had the same will, and wreaked it on her husband and sister. Cephas Barnard had it, and made his family eat sorrel pies. Richard Alger had it, and it made him torture, for nothing, during long, long years the woman he loved. Charlotte Barnard had it for good, and turned it to loving account. This is the gist of the book—the "terrible will" of the New Englander intensified by the conditions of narrow life in a small old village, isolation, close neighborship of generations, heredity with too little variation. According to the subject it works upon, does it become the will that "won't let him do what he wants to himself"—that holds in the passive clutch of a groove, or that perseveres and attains. The work, in fact, is a treatise on the Divine Will manifested as the New England Won't, under circumstances which many of us have seen and a few observed, but none brought to the daylight of recognition as fully as Mary Wilkins. Miss Fuller has indeed made a philosophic study of family traits in small towns, with a different trend. She dwells upon the effect of widening influences in modifying and diffusing the original family features. Miss Wilkins's study is of the converse and deeply tragic side—the crushing consequences wrought by the concentration of such traits when narrowed to a very few families, leading forlornly stifled lives. The gloom would be too heavy were it not that Miss Wilkins has set her story among her own familiar triumphs of detail, which never fail to attract and hold.

Were it not for the designation on the title-page, and that hitherto Mrs. Marks has been known as a writer of fiction, we should scarcely have been inclined to range the volumes before us with other late productions in light literature. 'Thorough' is in truth an historical treatise of a grave character—covering twenty years of troubled Irish history—opening, as may naturally be supposed from the name, with the Earl of Strafford's rule, and ending with the period when the country lay prostrate at the feet of Cromwell. Bishop Bedell, Owen Roe O'Neill, Ormond, the Nuncio, and other characters of the time pass across the stage. There are many fine descriptions of scenery and touching love passages (some of them within prison walls). There is deep pathos. The story for the most part is written in quaint language as if penned by some contemporary. The complicated history of the period is worked out with a conscientious effort after truth. We cannot but suspect that the scheme of the book was suggested by Tolstoi's 'War and Peace.' Contrary to what is the case in many works of the kind, the story is most prominent and interesting at the commencement—we are led more and more into the history of the time, and the story falls into the background as it proceeds. The apt and abundant extracts from writers contemporary with the period treated, placed at the head of each chapter, are some index to the labors the author must have given to preparation.

As a novel, 'Thorough' cannot be considered a success. It throws a vivifying light upon history, and will leave on the interested reader an impression not likely soon to be effaced. Atrocities committed by the Irish are not spared; but the motive of the book is evidently to show that they sprang from "natural" causes, and from the treatment to which the people had been subjected. The following will illustrate the general temper of the author; it is one of those numerous passages in which the supposed narrator stands apart from narrative to moralize thereon:

"Was there ever a war yet in this world, I will ask you, where there was none but lawful killing on the battlefield? no passions raised but what the first breath of the recall blew away? no violence done by soldiers drunk with wine and victory? no private spoiling by conquerors greedy of plunder? no pilferings by armed men hungry from unarmed men full? Do you think that in all wars, save Irish ones, men can go out to kill one another one day, and be the next but as haymakers coming from the field? And truly it turns one's stomach to read in *Politicus* and *Britannicus* of the shooting in cold blood of prisoners of war in England and Scotland, told so much as without the quiver of an eyelid, and then on the next page to find the newsman in a pious bewonderment at the incredible cruelty of the poor naked Irish, risen at last on their hereditary oppressors."

Some doings of Mrs. Marks's countrymen in Matabeleland which have been enacted since these words were written, give them additional point.

SOME MUSICAL BOOKS.

Mediæval Music. By R. C. Hope. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Pedals of the Pianoforte. By Hans Schmitt. Philadelphia: T. Presser.

Modern Singing Methods. By J. F. Botume. Boston: O. Ditson & Co.

Musical Gestures. By J. F. Bridge. Novello, Ewer & Co.

History of the Handel and Haydn Society. By C. C. Perkins and John S. Dwight. Boston: A. Mudge & Son.

Masters of French Music. By Arthur Hervey. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Letters of Franz Liszt. Translated by Constance Bache. 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Mr. Hope's book on 'Mediæval Music' is written in that iconoclastic spirit which is the fashion just now in musical literature. It must be admitted that there is much to commend in this fashion, in view of the "facts" in musical history which have been copied dozens of times into new books, although they are incapable of verification. The study of mediæval music is, in truth, such an extremely difficult subject that, owing to the complexity of the notation, an original investigator needs to bestow as much time on this dead musical language as he would on Sanskrit. Mr. Hope, as editor of the 'Popish Kingdome,' might be supposed to be in sympathy with his field of labor, and he certainly shows the spirit of the independent investigator. He shows, for instance, that one of the great heroes of early Christian music, Pope Gregory, to whom all sorts of reforms are ascribed, really did nothing of importance for music, being apparently quite indifferent to that art, as may be inferred from the fact that in his voluminous correspondence of 800 letters "there is not a single line, allusion, or hint of any kind respecting either the chant of the Church or of an Antiphonary." Taken as a whole, Mr. Hope's book presents a clear view of a difficult subject, and we would only call attention to the fact that his statement on page 15 that the oldest scale is the pentatonic does not harmonize with the statement regarding Egyptian flutes made on page 21.

We had occasion a few months ago to commend a brief and practical treatise on the pianoforte pedal by Mr. A. Venino. Hans Schmitt's treatise on this subject is a much older book, but it did not appear in an English version till after Venino's, the translation being by Mr. F. S. Shaw. While Mr. Venino's book is somewhat more up to date and practical, Schmitt's is more elaborate. Pianists would do well to secure them both, and try to make up for the long and extraordinary neglect of this extremely important branch of piano-playing. Schmitt relates how, when he conceived the idea of writing such a treatise, he hastily examined Marx's 'Compositionslehre,' fearing lest he might have been anticipated, but found that the word pedal was not even once mentioned. Nor was this strange, for in the old school of pianoforte-playing, as represented by Hummel, "the value of the pedal for harmonic and tone coloring purposes was not at all understood, the pedal being, indeed, looked at rather askance as a means of creating confusion." The Chopin-Liszt school took a very different view of the matter—so different that the Frenchman, Alfred Quidant, was quite justified in giving his brochure on the pedal the title 'The Soul of the Piano.' Rubinstein is quoted as saying: "I consider the art of properly using the pedal as the most difficult problem of higher piano-playing, and if we have not as yet heard the instrument at its best, the fault possibly lies in the fact that it has not been fully understood how to exhaust the capabilities of the pedal." Paderewski seems to have discovered what Rubinstein, Liszt, and Chopin had left undone, and when it is borne in mind how much of his marvellous success is owing to his masterly treatment of the pedal in securing orchestral variety of coloring, pianists need no further stimulus to a careful study of the art.

Mr. Botume's little book on 'Modern Sing-

ing Methods' appears in a second edition with an appendix on "The Old Italian School," "Style," etc. Even with this appendix it contains only forty-four pages, and must, therefore, be considered chiefly in the light of a guide to longer books on the various topics discussed, these books being always mentioned. Mr. Botume, a Harvard graduate, is well known as a singing teacher in Boston, and his advice may be safely accepted. We have only one criticism to make. In common with most teachers of the voice, Mr. Botume cannot get rid of the absurd idea that Patti is "the last surviving example of the great era of singing." What is "singing"? Is florid song the only kind of song? Are not the operas of Weber and Wagner, the songs of Schubert and Franz, infinitely greater and nobler music than that which Patti sings? In our opinion Lilli Lehmann, Rosa Sucher, Amalia Materna, and Frau Joachim were, in their best days, much better singers than Patti, because their branch of the art was a much nobler one. We advise Mr. Botume to await the English version of Prof. Hey's method of dramatic song, now in preparation, and to devote a special appendix to it in the third edition of his guide.

Perhaps England is not a musical country, but it is nevertheless productive of some curious musical schemes. The Tonic-Sol-Fa as a method of vocal notation is extremely prevalent in that country, while the more musical countries give it no attention. And now comes Dr. Bridge with still another notation, which is so extraordinary that we should be inclined to take it as an elaborate and rather ponderous joke, were it not incorporated as a new number in Novello, Ewer & Co.'s well-known and useful series of music primers. Dr. Bridge's treatise is an attempt to impress upon the minds of pupils the ordinary musical signs by gestures. We open it and find a series of illustrations representing boys making various deaf-mute signs to represent whole notes, half-notes, rests, stave, clefs, sharps and flats, and so on. He thinks this system may be useful to children in the nursery and for country choirs which are "often trained by the wife or the daughter of the clergyman." But why should not the wife or daughter of the clergyman simply use a blackboard and chalk and ordinary notes and rests and stave, like all other civilized musical people, instead of teaching poor children an elaborate gesture language utterly useless for all real musical purposes? The more we think about the matter, the more we feel tempted to consider it a joke after all.

The oldest and most important large choral organization in America, the Handel and Haydn Society of Boston, has issued a volume of 667 pages embodying its history from 1815 to 1890. The editors, Mr. C. C. Perkins and Mr. John S. Dwight, were greatly aided in their labors by a collection of newspaper clippings placed at their disposal by Mr. S. Jennison. The first pages are devoted to an amusing sketch of early musical atrocities in New England. In 1721, for instance, the Rev. T. Walter published a singing book in which he declares of the four or five tunes then in use that they sounded

> "like five hundred different tunes roared out at the same time, and so little in time that they were often one or two words apart; so hideous as to be bad beyond expression, and so drawling that the singer had sometimes to pause twice on one word to take breath."

From this state of affairs to the present condition of choral music as exemplified by the Handel and Haydn Society, is a wide step indeed. Even within the last quarter of a century the progress has been immense, as can be seen by comparing the programmes before that period with those after. For many years Handel and Mendelssohn were the chief and almost exclusive attractions. While the "Messiah" and the "Creation" had their first complete performance as early as 1818, Bach's "Passion" was not given entire till 1879, and in 1870 we find Mr. Dwight pleading hard for at least some selections. In recent years Bach has received more attention, but he will not have his day till the next century. Among the reprinted criticisms those of Mr. Apthorp are of especial interest and value.

Mr. Hervey's 'Masters of French Music' is one of a series which now includes two others, 'Masters of English Music' and 'Masters of German Music.' It is entertainingly written, in a style light enough to make it good for summer reading, and at the same time substantial and reliable. Such a book was really needed, for biographies of eminent French musicians are remarkably scarce in the English language. The present somewhat artificial prominence of French opera in New York (the champions of both German opera and Italian opera having set it up as a sort of neutral ground) ought to help Mr. Hervey's book to the success which it deserves. It considers in considerable detail the lives of Thomas, Gounod, Saint-Saëns, Massenet, Reyer, Bruneau, and in a final chapter the minor composers of the day. The appendix contains a convenient list of the works of the principal musicians. The longest and most interesting chapters are those on Gounod and Saint-Saëns, while in the one on Bruneau the author gives a good glimpse of the very latest tendencies in French music. We cordially commend this book to all who are interested in music, biographically or critically.

Our long review of the original edition of Liszt's letters, in German and French, dispenses us from taking any further notice of the English translation now before us than to say that it has been admirably executed by Miss Constance Bache, and that the publishers have contributed their share to the attractiveness of a work which of course ought to be in every musical library. The English version contains four letters not included in the German edition. In one of these Liszt writes in reference to his visit to England, after an absence of over forty years: "The *accented point* of my coming to London is to be present at the 'Elizabeth' performance. It was this that decided my coming, and it is to be hoped it will be a success." It is perhaps curious that not only is the one important biography of Liszt written by a woman—Lina Ramann—but his letters have been collected and translated by two women—La Mara (Marie Lipsius) and Miss Bache.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

The high estimation in which the Count de Franqueville, as a critic of English institutions, is held by the English people, strongly reminds one of the feeling entertained by Americans towards Mr. James Bryce, author of 'The American Commonwealth.' Both have apparently achieved the double success of seeing foreigners more clearly than the latter see themselves, and of obtaining from them an acknowledgment of the fact. The latest of several works by Count de Franqueville on English institutions is concerned with the judicial system of Great Britain ('Le Système Judiciaire de la Grande Bretagne,' Paris: J. Rothschild). In the space of two volumes the subject is divided into three parts, treating respectively, (1) of the organization of the English courts; (2) of their procedure, civil and criminal, and (3) of the judicial systems in Scotland and Ireland. The work is not, and is not intended to be, an exposition or criticism of substantive law. Its scope is confined to a concise statement of the organization and procedure of existing legal machinery, including an interesting account of the inns of court, the bar, the magistracy, the jury, and the police. So far as is necessary to explain existing institutions to the general reader, the work is historical; but the historical introductions are not intended for the specialist. Neither is the character of the book critical. Here and there, however, we find rather striking critical judgments. For example, after explaining at length English criminal procedure, the author states that it would be impossible to imagine a system giving to a person accused, who is both guilty and rich, more facilities for escaping a conviction, and assuring to a person accused, who is both innocent and poor, fewer facilities for demonstrating his innocence—an opinion not unnatural in one accustomed to the quick and easy methods of French criminal practice, and curiously like opinions sometimes expressed in this country nowadays.

The merits of a work of this kind, if merits it have, should consist in clearness, conciseness, and yet completeness of statement; excellence of arrangement, style, and temper; and accuracy. The first six qualities are, we think, possessed by this book to a high degree. Its admirable temper again reminds us of 'The American Commonwealth.' As to the last-named quality, which is perhaps of the first importance, we need only state that a careful English critic, on a thorough examination of the work before us, has been unable to detect a single serious misstatement of fact, and, when compelled by the exigencies of criticism to point to some defect, lest he might give the book a character "unredeemed by a single vice," has referred to several mistakes in spelling and the danger of relying upon Lord Campbell and Lord Macaulay as authorities on matters of law.

Mr. Joseph H. Beale, jr., has prepared a fourth edition of 'Parsons on Partnership' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.), and, by the addition of further and more recent authorities, the elimination of old and the insertion of new matter in the text, together with some excellent new notes and a chapter on business combinations and "trusts," has rendered a valuable book, which had become somewhat obsolete, again serviceable to the profession. Prof. Parsons was among the foremost to grasp the mercantile theory of a partnership as an entity distinct from the partners themselves, which was finally adopted by the House of Lords in Cox vs. Hickman; but the conception had not obtained a wide recognition when the former editions of the work were published, and was not treated in them. Mr. Beale has therefore entirely rewritten those chapters which deal with the nature and test of a partnership, and his statement of the development of the law is interesting and instructive.

'The Laws and Jurisprudence of England and America' (Little, Brown & Co.) is the title of a series of twelve lectures delivered by Judge John F. Dillon before the law students of Yale University, the main purpose of which is "to inspire a patriotic . . . regard for the laws and institutions of our country, . . . to incite enthusiasm in the study of the law, . . . and to exhibit the excellences of our legal system" as compared with the Conti-

nental law. These lectures are a general and somewhat desultory treatment of a very large subject. They are, however, suggestive, and well calculated to achieve their immediate purpose. Judge Dillon has an interesting, if somewhat inflated, style, and his remarks upon such "living issues" as legal education, trial by jury, case-law, the law reports, codification, and law reform have a positive character which is refreshing, if not wholly convincing, and is not unbecoming in a judge of wide experience and learning.

The inductive or "case-method" of teaching the English common law, introduced into the Harvard Law School by Prof. Langdell twenty years ago, has been successfully applied by Dr. Freeman Snow to the teaching of international law in Harvard University, and his collection of cases ('Snow's Cases on International Law,' The Boston Book Co.) is primarily intended to be used for that purpose. Besides the important cases, this collection contains a valuable syllabus in which references to the works of many of the most eminent writers of different countries are grouped under specific heads, thus making it possible to compare their opinions with the sources upon which they rely. The task of selection and discrimination, always a difficult one in preparing a book of this kind, has, we think, been performed by Dr. Snow with marked success. He has furnished another illustration of the increasing application of the historical method of inquiry to all branches of knowledge which have had a long period of development.

'Demarest on Elevated Railroad Law' (Baker, Voorhis & Co.) is a statement and critical discussion of the law as laid down by the New York courts determining the respective rights and remedies of elevated-railroad companies and "abutting owners" of real estate. This law is the result of a vast mass of litigation following the decision in the now famous case of Story vs. the New York Elevated Railroad Company, that the abutting owner, even although he does not own the fee of the street, is entitled to compensation for injury to his property caused by the introduction of the roads. The decision in the Story case is often said to be judicial legislation, and Mr. Demarest is evidently of that opinion, though he concedes that it, and others which have followed and extended the principle it established, are in accord with the dictates of natural justice. The law of elevated roads is a new growth, and its development in different jurisdictions must depend largely upon the construction put on the clauses in the various State constitutions providing for compensation when private property is taken for public uses. As an historical statement of the manner in which different questions have come before the courts in New York, and of the precise points adjudicated, Mr. Demarest's book should be of considerable value.

'Norton on Bills and Notes' and 'Clark's Criminal Law' (St. Paul, Minn.: West Publishing Co.) are two legal "hand-books" of which the *raison d'être* is not obvious in view of the overgrown literature of the law on these subjects. The former is intended for the use of students, but it is difficult to perceive in what respect it has peculiar merits for such use. The meagre citation of authorities renders it useless to the practitioner. The second is intended to be a concise statement of the common law of crimes. In both books much importance is attached to definitions which are made the basis of the text. The arrangement of the text is mechanical, rather than logical, and lacks unity.

'Bigelow on Bills and Notes' is the third contribution by the author to the excellent series of "Elementary Law Treatises" published by Little, Brown & Co., of which fourteen have now appeared. This work, like those on equity and torts by the same author, is a concise summary of the substantive law of the subject as it now exists. There is little discussion of the cases, and, excepting a very brief historical sketch in the introduction, little explanation of the growth of the law out of the custom of merchants. Strict limitations of space probably made the omission of both features necessary. Moreover, the book is designed, and is admirably adapted, to be used in connection with a selection of cases, following the order of the text. As a clear, compact, and accurate statement of the law this little book has much merit.

Prof. Isaac F. Russell has prepared a series of "outline lectures," intended "to serve as a text-book on elementary law," and published under the title 'Outline Study of Law' (New York: L. K. Strouse & Co.). They are summaries of what has been presented orally to students. They cover a wide range of subjects, from the nature of law in general to the law of divorce and crimes. In their present form it cannot be said that, even as "outlines," they deal adequately with the subjects treated. Each lecture is a mere collection of general remarks about its subject, put together without much attempt at orderly arrangement or proportion. A book on elementary law should exhibit, as far as possible, the relationship between different branches of the law, and their proper classification. In these lectures no such object has apparently been kept in view.

Theatricals: Two Comedies. By Henry James. Harper & Brothers.

In his little preface to the two comedies in this pretty volume, Mr. James says it is only fair to mention that they were conceived and constructed wholly in the light of possible representation in particular conditions which it was hoped they might successfully meet, but with which they had not the good fortune to consort. This means, presumably, that he wrote them with the intention of fitting a particular actor or a particular company, and failed to please his prospective customer. It is to be hoped that his present disappointment may prevent him from making any similar experiments in the future, for this dramatic tailoring, although it has been practised profitably by playwrights capable of better things, belongs to an inferior order of work, unworthy of men possessed of real literary ability, is seldom valuable even when most remunerative, and is an unmitigated evil, so far as the stage itself is concerned, inasmuch as it encourages players to perpetuate and intensify their own personal characteristics and mannerisms, whereas it is the first duty of a conscientious performer to strive to get rid of them. Nothing is more responsible for the present decadence of acting as an art than the system by which a handful of popular actors are enabled to play one character, or one type of character, for a long succession of years, while everybody else, in the "supporting" casts, is reduced to the lowest possible level of insignificance.

Perhaps one of the reasons why Mr. James's comedies failed to prove acceptable was that all the good things in them are not monopolized by the leading lady, but are distributed with some sense of proportion among a number of personages. But it is only fair to the managers to add that there are manifestly other difficulties in the way of a successful representation, such as a weak motive in the one case, a confused plot in the other, a lack of dramatic and theatrical action in both, and also of that sympathetic quality which is so essential, but so difficult to define or describe. Above all, the dialogue is of that polished and artificial kind which demands light, brilliant, incisive delivery if it is to be used effectively before the footlights, and which is apt to fall perfectly flat from the lips of the actors of to-day, who talk with great facility, but know little about the possibilities of speech. On the whole, Mr. James's plays are more likely to meet with judicious appreciation in their present form than if an attempt had been made to represent them upon the stage. At all events, the reader can enjoy the smoothness and neatness of their literary style, the compact and forcible expression, and the humor, which is of far finer quality than that current in the contemporary theatre, even if it is not always quite so spontaneous as it might be. They have also the rare merit of being written upon the lines of genuine comedy. Studies of life, in the fullest sense of these words, they can scarcely claim to be, for the characters are fashioned, for the most part, after very familiar stage models, and the treatment of them is governed, apparently, by no other law than that of theatrical exigency, especially in the matter of exits and entrances. But in no case does Mr. James overstep the modesty of nature. His machinery is often clumsy and his situations forced, but his incidents, although not always probable in their order or consequences, are not in themselves extravagant, while his personages conduct themselves in accordance with the rules of the society in which they are supposed to move.

Of the two plays the first, which is entitled "Tenants," is the better, although the subject is not particularly agreeable or the outcome particularly convincing. It tells the story of a retired diplomat, who, from honorable scruples, sends his legitimate son away from home rather than appear to connive at his marriage with his ward, a great heiress, but nevertheless favors the suit of his illegitimate son when the latter unexpectedly appears upon the scene with his mother. In the end the legitimate son carries the day, and the father makes reparation by marrying his former mistress. This arrangement defeats the machinations of the villain, a blackmailing captain, and is supposed to insure general peace. How such a marriage would put an end to the scandal is not explained. The second comedy, "Disengaged," is a story of serio-comic intrigue, in which a curiously inexperienced guardsman, after being captured by a match-making mamma for her insipid daughter, is rescued by a brilliant widow, who marries him herself, while the daughter is handed over to a gay young diplomat, who had conspired against his friend, the guardsman, in order to make love to a married woman. The trifle is written with much cleverness, but the plot is too involved and the final solution is not satisfactory or reasonable. Neither piece would be likely to succeed in a theatre, unless the representation were exceptionally brilliant, but both supply pleasant entertainment to the reader, and justify the hope that the author may yet produce a play whose dramatic may be equal to its literary excellence.

The Amateur Telescopist's Handbook. By Frank M. Gibson. New York: Longmans.

This work seems to be well adapted to the needs of amateur astronomers who possess only

very small telescopes. The advice and instruction, and the chapters on the history, principles, care, and testing of the telescope are valuable, since the facts here assembled have heretofore been scattered through different works. The list of 468 celestial objects seems to be a judicious selection, the objects being those which are visible with three inches of aperture at the most, and for this especial purpose they are made the more available since their alignment with the naked-eye stars is given. The criticism which the author evidently expects, and which he has discounted, is that his book will be considered useless by astronomers since it does not lead up to some line of actual research; but criticism of this nature seems captious, for it is not probable that even one in a hundred of those who cultivate "peepshow" astronomy will ever evolve a taste for real investigation. But in the development of any such, no matter how few, the curiosity-seeker renders his service to astronomy, to say nothing of the amusement and instruction which he secures for himself and affords to his friends.

It would seem, however, that criticism should be made on Mr. Gibson's estimate of the value of the small telescope to astronomy. He summarizes the matter in the following words:

"Now, it might as well be stated at once that there is scarcely a possibility in these days that an amateur with a small altazimuth telescope can accomplish any work of scientific value. . . . In earlier days, when astronomical instruments were less perfect, professional astronomers less numerous, and the magnificent observatories of modern times as yet unknown, the amateur with his little telescope might be a distinguished and valued colaborer with the professional with his not very much larger instrument. That day is past; and it is most likely that the small telescope has done all of which it is capable in the way of original scientific work."

A sentiment like this in a book otherwise so commendable is likely to borrow a semblance of authority from the company in which it finds itself, and in the interests of American astronomy it should not be allowed to pass unchallenged. The field of photometry is as wide as it ever was, and there is room here for every amateur who cares to apply himself and to learn the few simple rules which govern such work. The observation of the variable stars is to-day in the hands of the amateur astronomer, and the greater portion of this work is within the scope of the three-inch telescope. The splendid work of Sawyer on the southern stars, published within the year, which is characterized by Hill as the most important contribution to photometry of the decade, required at no time during its execution any greater optical aid than the common field-glass. The recent history of astronomy furnishes numerous instances of similar nature. The reputations of Argelander, Schönfeld, and Schmidt rest to a very large extent upon the work performed by them with the unaided eye or with exceedingly small telescopes, and the field for investigation of just such character is almost as extended as it ever was. The fact admits of no question, that there do exist to-day in astronomy fields, practically unlimited, in which the amateur, with his little telescope, can conduct investigations of the greatest value to science.

The selection of half-a-dozen telescope-makers and sellers, whose goods and whose prices are noted quite in detail, while other equally reliable firms receive only passing mention, seems to savor of discrimination against the latter which is out of place in an educational work like this; and for the same reason the paragraph which speaks of globes and planispheres merits criticism, since it neglects to mention the most recent and the best of the various forms of the latter instrument.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, W. T. Up and Down the Nile. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Blossom, Henry M., jr. The Documents in Evidence. 4th ed. St. Louis: Buxton & Skinner; New York: Baker & Taylor Co. $1.50.
Conway, W. M. Climbing and Exploration in the Karakoram-Himalayas. Appletons.
Dolbear, Prof. A. E. Matter, Ether, and Motion. Revised ed. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $2.
Forney, M. N. Political Reform by the Representation of Minorities. Matthias N. Forney.
Gould, Dr. George M. An Illustrated Dictionary of Medicine, Biology, and Allied Sciences. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co. $10.
Helm, E. The Joint Standard: Monetary Principles and the Monetary Controversy. Macmillan. $1.10.
Johnson, Gen. B. T. General Washington. [Great Commanders.] Appletons. $1.50.
King, Dr. W. P. Stories of a Country Doctor. Bailey & Fairchild. 50 cents.
Lynch, L. L. Against Odds. Rand, McNally & Co.
Mielziner, Prof. M. Introduction to the Talmud. Cincinnati: Bloch Printing Co. $2.50.
Nicole, J. Le Livre du Prefet. Geneva: Georg & Cie.; New York: Brentanos. $1.80.
Pendleton, Louis. The Wedding Garment: A Tale of the Life to Come. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Quain's Elements of Anatomy. 10th ed. Vol. 3, part 3. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.
Rollins, Clara S. A Burne-Jones Head; and Other Sketches. Lovell, Coryell & Co. $1.
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Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1893		1,403,200 31
Total Marine Premiums		$4,597,068 47
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1893, to 31st December, 1893		$3,490,552 70
Losses paid during the same period	$1,892,970 00	
Returns of Premiums and Expenses	$711,138 89	

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Loans secured by Stocks and otherwise	1,652,000 00
Real Estate and Claims due the Company, estimated at	1,086,828 74
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Cash in Bank	205,600 46
Amount	$12,055,058 49

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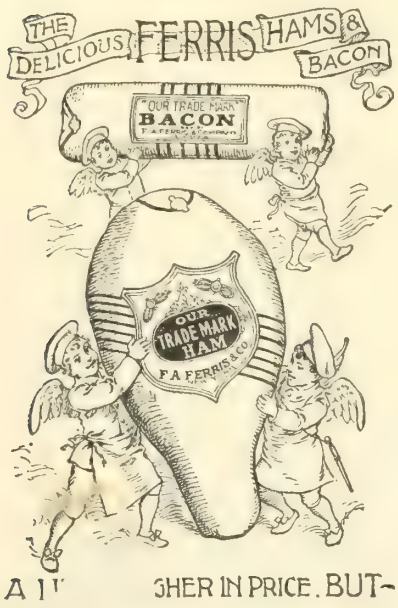

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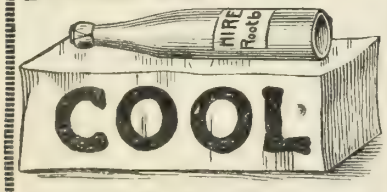

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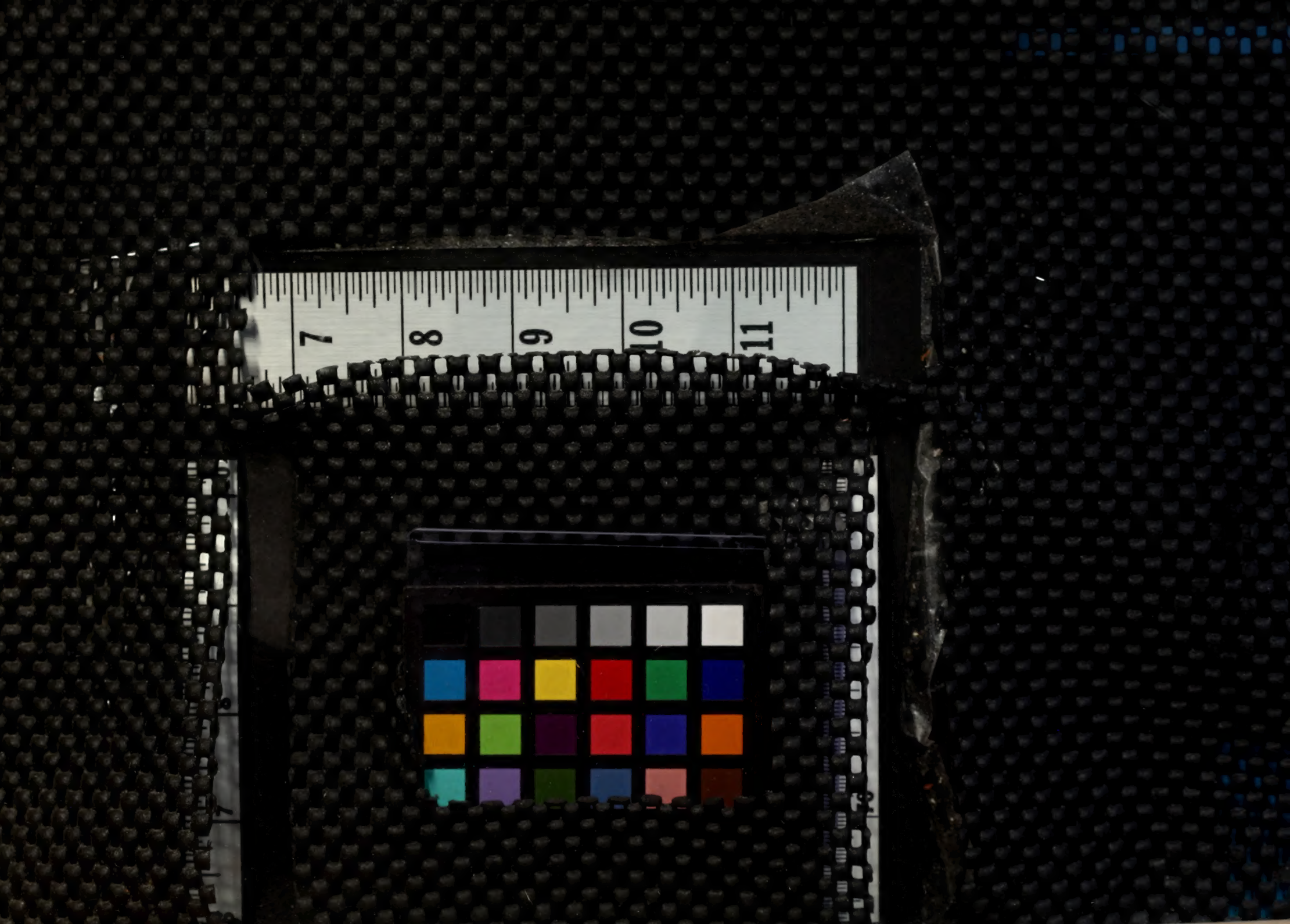

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